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Injustice and Persecution: Forced Migration of Sindhi Hindus in Pakistan

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Abstract

Sufism, secularism, pluralism, and religious tolerance are few for the unique features Sindh had always been known for around the globe. When the rest of Pakistan was devastated by sectarian genocide and targeted persecution, there was much to be learned from Sindh. People of Sindh have always been pluralistic and tolerant, but state sponsored seminaries house ethnic Punjabi or Pashtun Mullahs from Punjab and KPK provinces who target, harass and persecute Sindhi Hindus. The continued incidences of violence against the largest religious minority group Sindhi Hindus have created a sense of insecurity among them. They are subjected to kidnapping for ransom, forced abductions and conversions of their women. These trends forcing the indigenous dwellers to abandon their motherland. The aim of this study is to highlight the targeted discrimination and persecution of Sindhi Hindus which force them to abandon their own homeland Sindh. It also evaluates the underlying causes behind criminal activities and what are the possible motives of perpetrators. This study concluded that state sponsored religious seminaries that house ethnic Punjabi or Pashtun Mullahs from Punjab and KPK provinces are involved in the persecution of Sindhi Hindus. This is a conspiracy against indigenous people of Sindh to convert them into minority on their own homeland. By altering the demography of Sindh, they can undermine the political strength of Sindhis and make them defenseless to protect their natural resources, culture, language and their real and historical identity.

Keywords: Internal Colonialism; Sindhi; Hindu; Forced conversion; kidnapping for ransom; Forced Migration; Religious Extremism

1. Historical Background

Pakistan is not one country composed of only one Nation but is a conglomeration of socio-cultural different nationalities. The 'ethnic minorities' that basically comprise the smaller nations of Pakistan never supported the creation of Pakistan. But British imperialists decided to divide up India for strategic reasons and purposely set out to create a new state called Pakistan against the wishes of Sindh and other minority ethnic groups. After the construction of Pakistan, Sindhi, Baluch, and Pashtuns feel that they are trapped in a political set up which is run by dominant province Punjab since Punjab controls armed forces and key political institutions (Harrison, 2009).

With the emergence of Pakistan state started attempts to erase the real and historical national identity of ethno-nation groups and enforced on them a new identity some time in shape of Muslim nation and other time Pakistani nation. The opening of religious seminaries and religious syllabus are few of the methods have been used by state in this regard which gave birth to the religious extremism. A Sindhi political leader GM Syed delivered a spellbinding speech at the Vienna International Peace Conference in 1952. He deplored American and British efforts to unite Muslims based on their faith which, he felt, engendered serious ramifications. He warned them that patronizing such forces would promote religious extremism and fascism.

Right from the beginning Pakistan become a theocratic state in which other religious minorities were forced to leave country to make this country purify from unholy people. But it was not much easy to erode long native Sufi tradition. However, the anti-Soviet Afghan jihad of the 1980s had a massive blowback on Pakistani Sufi culture. In that period, General Zia ul Haq a dictator introduced Islamization programs which extremely transformed the Pakistani society. His islamization programs introduced rules and regulations to make Pakistani law more into tune with the Islamic law, or at least Islamic law as understood by him and his cronies (Ispahani, 2013). Huge amount of money from Saudi Arabia and other Gulf counties spent on Madrasas/religious schools to proliferate the ideology of Wahhabism which started eroding the centuries-long native Sufi tradition of peace and harmony among different religious and sects.

When the rest of Pakistan was devastated by sectarian genocide and targeted persecution, there was much to be learned from Sindh. People of Sindh have always been pluralistic and tolerant, but state sponsored seminaries house ethnic Punjabi or Pashtun Mullahs from Punjab and KPK provinces who eliminate dissenters with impunity. There are
number of religious extremists groups which operate in Sindh and spread the message of hatred and encourage violent jihad (Holy war) towards Sindhi Hindus.

Sindhi Hindus are increasingly subject to kidnapping for ransom. Rape, forcible and pressurized conversion to Islam have also become a matter of course for Hindus living in Sindh. As a result, thousands of Sindhi Hindus have forcedly migrated to India. Remaining Sindhi Hindus live in perpetual fear and anxiety as their lives, property and worship places are at stake. The aim of this study is to highlight the targeted discrimination and persecution of Sindhi Hindus forcing them to abandon their own homeland Sindh. It also evaluate the underlying causes behind criminal activities and what are the possible motives of perpetrators. Sindhi Hindus are persecuted in many ways but few of them which compelled them to migrate to India will be illustrated here.

2. Persecution of Sindhi Hindus

It was reported that the growing extremism has made Pakistan a very hostile county for Sindhi Hindus. The Sindhi Hindus raised their concerns about the abduction of girls and their forced conversion to Islam and their frequent kidnapping for ransom. But the indifferent attitude of the police and insensitive judicial system make them feel that they are unacceptable to Pakistan.

3. Forced Conversions

There has been an increase in Sindh, of the abduction and forced conversion to Islam of Hindu girls. The young Hindu girls were being kidnapped and forced to marry to Muslim boys and converted to Islam. The Asian Human Rights Commission documented that there are 20-25 forced conversions every month in Sindh (AHRC, 2012).

What has made the matters worse is the indifferent attitude of the police and insensitive judicial system. Police often refuse to register FIRs and in cases they do, the courts send the teenage girls to Islamic school centers or back to the kidnapper’s home instead of the girls’ families and women shelters. The Human Rights Commission of Pakistan (HRCP) in its report on ‘Working Group on Communities Vulnerable Because Of Their Beliefs’ said the courts often decided such cases against the girls’ families even if the girls were of 12 or 13 years of age (HRCP, 2014). Even the Hindus who are the part of assemblies and legislation feel powerless and marginalized. “Our community can bear looting and the kidnapping of our men, but the abduction of our daughters and wives is too painful," Bhawan Das, who holds a National Assembly seat reserved for minorities, told Al Jazeera. Bherulal Balani, a former legislator, reported: "Once the girls are converted, they are then sold to other people or are forced into illegal and immoral activities" (The News, 2010).

Kidnapping for Ransom

Another major persecution facing Hindus is their kidnapping for ransom. Hindus are routinely abducted for ransom, particularly in northern part of Sindh. Hindu traders in Sindh are increasingly face extortion or abduction for ransom (USCIRF, 2011). The case studies of these incidences indicates that that a powerful syndicate of bandits and their patrons regularly abduct wealthy Hindus for ransom. In case of delay in ransom money, abductees are killed. However, there are incidences in which abductees are killed even though they paid ransom.

The exact number of kidnapping for ransom cannot be stated because many of them are not reported due to fear of the abductors killing the abductee (Siddiq, 2012). However, there is a growing cases of abduction in recent years causing Hindus to leave their homeland. Pitnaber Sewani, a minority MPA from Sindh said “During the last two years, around 29 men from only Kandkhot (District of Sindh) area have been kidnapped” (Rehman, 2011).

Leaders of Hindu community claim that the abductions of Hindus are commonplace and abductors have been given free hand; police and other law enforcement agencies have been patronizing the abductors. A refugee told during their protest demonstration in Delhi after fleeing from Pakistan that they were either targeted by gangs of criminal or harassed by the seminaries that house ethnic Punjabi or Pashtun Mullahs from Punjab and KPK provinces (Shah, 2014). The routinely kidnapping of Hindu traders for ransom has caused the anxiety among the already disadvantaged Hindus.

It shows that Punjabi and Pashtun Mullahs who run religious seminaries are involved behind the abduction and forced conversion to Islam of Sindhi Hindu girls and kidnapping for ransom for Sindhi Hindus. They are working under the patronization of government. Feeling insecure in Sindh, thousands of Sindhi Hindus are compelled to abandon their homeland Sindh.

4. Forced Migration of Sindhi Hindus

At the time of Partition, Hindus comprised 15 per cent of Pakistan’s population. Today, one estimate puts it at 2 per cent
while another suggests 5.5 per cent with majority of them living in Sindh (Sharma, 2012). Around 90 percent of the total Hindus population lives in Sindh.

Sindh is going through the trauma of migration and heart-broken emotions of innocent indigenous inhabitants. The fear of being forced to conversion, abduction of daughters or other women in the family and their conversion to Islam under duress, or kidnapping for ransom are some of the many reasons that have probably exhausted Hindus to seek asylum elsewhere (Siddiqa, 2012).

The Pakistani Hindu Seva, community welfare organization, estimates that while 10 Sindhi Hindu families migrated to India from Sindh every month since 2008, in the past 10 months, 400 families have left to India due to fear of safety (Bhatia, 2009). In 2009, a Times of India report put the total number of Sindhi Hindus migrating to India at 5000 (Sharma, 2012). Additionally, Pakistan’s Hindu Council estimates that at least 1,000 Hindu families are now leaving Pakistan per year (WSC, undated). Other Sindhi Hindu leaders reportedly said that dozens of families were migrating to India every month. Even a Hindu Member of Sindh Assembly, after receiving threats from extremists group resigned from his seat and sought asylum in India. According a Sindhi Hindu journalist, Sindhi Hindus are abandoning their motherland because they think that they are not acceptable to Pakistani society (Rehman, 2011).

5. Discussion

The exodus of Sindhi Hindus has ushered in hot debate among the scholars and intellectuals. They tried to find the causes behind the persecution of Sindhi Hindus and why the perpetrators have given free hands and are not caught by law enforcement authorities?

A leading Sindhi international organization World Sindhi Congress expressed their apprehension that state sponsored religious fundamentalism is dividing Sindhi nation on the name of religion and a direct tactic to convert Sindhis into minority on their own motherland. Further it said that due to increased discrimination and violence directed towards indigenous Sindhi Hindus, including the abductions of young girls, is prompting an observed emigration of Hindus out of Pakistan (WSC, 2014). Some Sindhi scholars think that exodus of Hindus would undermine the Sindhi nationalism and freedom movement. Because with the migration of Sindhi Hindus, and inflow of other ethnic groups in Sindh will create demographic changes, converting ethnic Sindhis into permanent minority in their own historical land (Shah, 2012). A well-known columnist Venegas (2012) said that Mass migration of Hindus from Sindh is the part of conspiracy which want to convert Sindhi into minority on their own land. (Veengas, 2012).

The most important point has been raised by Word Sindhi Congress and other scholars and I concur with them that this is a conspiracy against indigenous people of Sindh to convert them in minority in their own motherland. Because with the migration of Sindhi Hindus and inflow of refugees from other countries and tribal areas along with other three provinces of Pakistan would alter the demography of Sindh.

As documents reveals that at the time of partition, Sindhi were 98 percent of the Sindh out of which 35 percent were Hindus. However, currently, there number is reduced to only 65 percent because of the inflow of refugees from Afghanistan, Bangladesh, Myanmar and Tribal Areas along with other three provinces of Pakistan. If Sindhi Hindus migration continues in this way, sooner Sindhi will be in minority on their own homeland Sindh.

There is a question why the attempts are made to alter the demography of Sindh? According to (Veengas, 2012) Mass migration will destroy Sindh’s economy as Hindus are business community of Sindh and will damage the vote bank of Sindhis. Other Scholars call it a conspiracy to undermine the Sindhi Nationalism and freedom movement. Being concurred with their views, It is argued that by altering the demography of Sindh, they can undermine the political strength of Sindhis and make them defenseless to protect their natural resources, culture, language and their real and historical identity.

6. Conclusion

The persecution of Hindus by state sponsored religious extremists and inflow of refugees testify the claims of Sindh rights activist and scholars that this is a conspiracy against Sindhis to convert them into minority on their own homeland. Converting of Sindhi people into minority on their own homeland have been done in two ways. Firstly, harassing indigenous Sindhi Hindus to the extent that they compel to leave their homeland. Secondly, allowing the inflow of other ethnic groups in Sindh who are spreading hatred against Sindhi Hindus and damaging the Sufi culture of Sindh. By altering the demography of Sindh, they can undermine the political strength of Sindhis and make them defenseless to protect their natural resources, culture, language and their real and historical identity.
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Women’s Political Participation in some of the Western Balkan Countries

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Abstract

In the early 1990s, Balkan countries in the course of the great regime transformation have articulated and introduced a number of democratic changes and institutions. Most of them also provided at least a formal legal framework for a fair and equal representation for all citizens in political process. Nevertheless, almost twenty years later, many countries are still facing the phenomenon of gender inequality both in society and economy and in the political sphere, particularly in the political representative bodies on various levels. The theme of this research consists of the analysis of social and systemic factors that affect women’s participation in political life. The purpose of this research is to analyze and compare the representation of women in the political representative bodies. This research is focused on the representation of women in political representative bodies, analyzing a wider Balkan region – Albania, Kosovo, Macedonia, Bosnia and Serbia. For purposes of this paper, was made a survey of citizens in Macedonia, which included questions that citizens have expressed their stance over gender equality, the quota system and the effectiveness of mechanisms for gender equality. Finally, I draw some conclusions and make some suggestions in order to encourage research and other activities related to gender policies.

Keywords: Women’s political participation, quota system

1. Introduction

To make an assessment of gender situation in a certain country, it is necessary both to understand the social and political contexts (nationally and regionally), as well as to understand the changes of the ‘gender policy field’ itself. Once those contexts and dynamics are captured, opportunities and constraints become clearer, and the development of gender equality could be approached as a complex social learning and interactive process which creates profound social change. That is the basis for the overall assessment of the gender equality situation in the countries and strategies and policies which have been applied. That is also the starting point for the recommendations and context sensitive definition of future priorities.¹

In order to understand the problem of equal representation in a transitional democracy, it is necessary to analyze the laws of some Balkan countries. Gender Equality Laws provide an important basis for ensuring women’s rights and political participation in the Balkan region. During the transition period, Gender Equality Laws have been put in place in many these countries. At this stage, emphasis needs to be put on harmonizing legislation and related procedures and institutions to ensure the implementation of gender equality laws.

Since the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW)² adopted by the UN General Assembly in December 1979, it has been ratified by 186 countries. The CEDAW recommendations also require that member states sensitize private enterprises, trade unions and political parties to promote women in the decision-making process. CEDAW Article 7 obliges states parties to ‘take all appropriate measures to eliminate discrimination against women in political and public life and to ensure that they enjoy equality with men in political and public life’.³ It refers to the exercise of political power, in particular the exercise of legislative, judicial, executive and administrative powers. The term covers all aspects of public administration and the formulation and implementation of policy at the international, national, regional and local levels. The concept also includes many aspects of civil society,

¹ Gender country profile for Bosnia and Herzegovina (Lot 1 COM), Project No. 2013/333302 /1, European Commission, 2014, p.13
² For the full text of the convention see http://www2.ohchr.org/english/law/cedaw.htm.
³ States that ‘Parties shall take all appropriate measures to eliminate discrimination against women in political and public life of the country and, in particular, shall ensure that women, on equal terms with men, have the right: (a) To vote in all elections and public referenda and to be eligible for election to all publicly elected bodies; (b) To participate in the formulation of government policies and the implementation thereof and to hold public office and perform all public functions at all levels of government; (c) To participate in non-governmental organizations and associations concerned with the public and political life of the country.'
including public boards and local councils and the activities of organizations such as political parties, trade unions, professional or industry associations, civil society organizations, community-based organizations and other organizations concerned with public and political life.4

A number of countries in the Balkan region have developed successful strategies to increase women’s political participation. Gender quotas are intended to guarantee a particular level of female representation in Parliament (Dahlerup & Freidenvall, 2005). Gender quotas ensure that women constitute a specific number or percentage of the members of a body, be it a candidate list, a parliamentary assembly, a committee or the government. There are three types of gender quotas: reserved seats, legal quotas, and voluntary/party quotas (Norris & Krook, 2011). Reserved seats involve the government mandating that a certain number of seats in Parliament be held for women; legal quotas are “mandatory provisions that apply to all parties” (Franceschet & Krook, 2008) and finally, voluntary gender quotas are “introduced solely by the individual political parties and not required by national legal rules”.

2. Assessment of Overall Gender Equality in Western Balkan Countries

The policy developments of the Western Balkan countries are very controversial and contradictory. On the one hand, there is formal acceptance of very advanced policies, legal changes and projects which should have an impact on the laws and institutions. Yet, these activities usually end in action plans, reports and/or conclusions which are not implemented; hence, they do not produce any actual change. On the other hand, the patriarchal system of values and conservative Government measures (introduction of religious education in the formal education system, campaigns against abortion, support for having three, four and more children and decreasing the support for early childhood care) pose serious obstacles to achieving gender equality.

Laws guaranteeing equal opportunities for women, in line with European Standards and norms have been adopted, however, the level of implementation of legislative measures is perceived as very low and women continue to face disparities in terms of jobs, wages and political representation. The legal frameworks related to gender equality are in place, but on the other hand there is quite time remaining in order to transpose these laws into the daily lives of the citizens. The implementation of the adopted legislation is slow and inconsistent. There is a stark contrast between stated goals and their actual implementation (Spehar,166).

2.1 Women’s Political Participation in Albania

In the first pluralistic parliament in 1991 only 3.6% were women and in the parliament that followed only 2.8% were women.5 Although the Parliamentary Elections 2005 produced one of the largest numbers of women participating in elections as MP candidates, at the end of elections, Albania produced one of the lowest numbers of women MP’s in Europe and of women in public administration. Women in the Parliament make only a little over 7% of the seats. In a survey of Inter-parliamentary Union of women’s representation in elected positions, Albania is in 116-position out of 187 countries, and the last if compared with other South European countries.6 In the local elections in 2007, only 9 were elected for mayoral/head of commune. In top decision-making positions, women are not well represented and as of 2008, there are only two female Cabinet Minister. Advances have been made – for example, the Speaker of the House, the Public Prosecutor and High Court Judges Chiefs are women.7 Additionally, many political parties have instituted quotas within their general assemblies.

Recent legislative victories in Albania, in particular the inclusion of quotas for elected and appointed positions in the law “On Gender Equality in Society” (July 2008) and the revised Electoral Code (December 2008), have led to an increase in Albanian women’s political participation at the national level. The 2009 parliamentary elections saw a doubling of the number of women in parliament: from 7% in 2005 to 16.4% in 2009. Despite these gains, women’s full and equal participation in decision-making in the public arena continues to be restricted by pervasive stereotypes and discriminatory practices – particularly at the local level.

The 2009 national election was the first to take place after the passage of the law, which instituted a quota for

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4 UN Committee for the Elimination of Discrimination of Women (CEDAW) Rec. No. 23, 16th Session, 1997
6 Report on Women in Politics for the situation on 1 January 2008 prepared by Inter-Parliamentary Union and the United Nations Division for the Advancement of Women on the occasion of the 52nd session of the UN Commission on the Status of Women.
7 5 out of 15 members of High Court Judges are female. http://www.gjykataelarte.gov.al/anetaret.htm
women’s participation in political life. It stated that at least 30% of appointed positions should be filled by the underrepresented sex (i.e. women). It also stated that 30% of all candidates put forward in national and local elections should be from the under-represented sex. In that election, 23 women deputies were elected, which was 16.4% of the total 140 seats in the Assembly of the Republic of Albania. The “Law on Gender Equality in Society” (2008) and the new Electoral Code (2008) were important steps forward in terms of women’s representation, but did not result in a critical mass of women entering parliament.

This global trend has yet to be felt in Albania, where women’s role in public life remains largely unrecognized, and women’s full and equal participation in decision-making continues to be restricted due to pervasive stereotypes and discriminatory practices.

2.2 Women’s Political Participation in Kosovo

The Constitution of Kosovo names gender equality as a fundamental value and participation is one of its more evident manifestations. Since 2002, following a decision by the Central Elections Commission, all political parties in Kosovo are obliged to have women represented at one third of candidates in their election lists. As a result, 30% of members of parliament in the Assembly of Kosovo are women. This fact alone ranks Kosova very high internationally regarding participation of women in politics.

The Law on Gender Equality, approved in 2004, calls for “equal opportunities for both female and male participation in the political, economical, social, cultural and other fields of social life.” The Assembly of Kosovo, civil service, Judicial Council, and Constitutional Court, among others, must ensure that the principles of gender equality are respected. The topics addressed in the Law on Gender Equality are extensive, leading some to see it more as a wish list than an implementable law.

The Law considers gender equality requirements to have been met when women’s participation reaches 40% within all institutions. The Law also stipulates that gender equality must be considered in the naming of institutions, public undertakings, and roads. It requires all public and private institutions to provide equal employment opportunities for women and men. Following extensive advocacy on behalf of women’s rights activists, the Law also established the Agency for Gender Equality within the Prime Minister’s Office, theoretically at the highest possible level. The Agency for Gender Equality (AGE) was created in 2005 to implement and monitor the implementation of the Law on Gender Equality, promote policies towards gender equality, propose research on gender equality issues, and work to increase gender equality awareness, among other tasks.8

Women in decision-making positions in Kosovo (2011): ministers (10%), deputy prime ministers (33%), Prime minister’s office (31%), foreign missions (18%), Kosovo Police Service employees 13.8%, all institutions (36%).9

The quota enabled women to secure 30% of the seats in the municipal assemblies and later in the Parliament.10 The positive impact of this measure on the “increased representation and meaningful participation of women in national and local governance” was evident.11 Women secured only 8% of the seats in the first municipal elections in 2000, but the quota guaranteed 30% in future elections.12 Eventually, the Law on Gender Equality (2004) would call for women and men to each hold at least 40% of positions at all decision-making levels. In 2007, 43% of the women in Parliament were elected by name recognition and 37% in 2010.13 That most decisions continued to be made within political parties and parties tended to be led by men limited women’s “meaningful” participation in decision-making processes.14 As political parties in Kosovo remain rather hierarchical, men do not necessarily have greater decision-making power than women if they do not sit at the top of the party.

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9 KWN interview with Ariana Qosaj-Mustafa, Advisor to President Jahjaga, Pristina, 15 July 2011.
11 KWN interview with Arbena Kuriu, Program Officer, OHCHR, Pristina, 27 July 2011
12 Law on Gender Equality, Art. 6, according to Luiljeta Domaniku, Legal Councilor for Gender Equality of the Ombudsperson Institution (KWN interview, Pristina, 14 October 2011).
13 KWN interview with EULEX representatives, Pristina, 13 July 2011.
14 UN Secretary-General, indicators 3a, 4, and 5a.
2.3 Women’s Political Participation in Macedonia

Gender equality is guaranteed by the Constitution of Macedonia (Article 9). From the group of laws on equality, equal opportunities law of men and women have a special role, which aims to ensure the implementation of "equal opportunity" for men and women in several areas (Article 2). Also, a provision on gender equality also occurs in other laws: the Law on labor relations, the law on political parties, Law on Election of Deputies, Law on Local Elections and the Law on Prevention and Protection from Discrimination.

Towards the incorporation of the concept of gender equality in the each ministry are appointed coordinators for equal opportunities for men and women, in the Assembly of RM there is a Commission for equal opportunities for men and women, while in the municipalities are formed committees for equal opportunities for men and women. Macedonian government have also developed and set up national machineries for advancement of women. The Unit for Gender Equality has been set up by the government in 1997 within the frame of the Ministry of Labour and Social Policy (MLSP) with the purpose to influence the advancement of women's position in conformity with the international documents. Ten Commissions on Gender Equality within the ten Local Municipal Councils in Macedonia were established in 2000. In 2003 the Women’s MP Club was formed, which works on promotion of gender equality in general and on harmonization with EU gender equality standards as well as representing a service for elected women in the Parliament.

Macedonia marks the progress in the past on the results of balanced participation of men and women in power and decision-making process. In the first period of implementation of the National Plan for Gender Equality (1997-2007), was marked gradual advancement of women's representation in power. As an illustration, it is worth comparing the results obtained in this direction. As a result of the parliamentary election of 27 April 2014 for the period 2014-2018 the number of women MPs in Parliament had exceeded the 30%, whereas in the government, women as heads of ministries were represented by 17.6%. Mayors were only 3%, whereas members of the municipal assembly were 21%. However, although the number of councilor's municipality has increased several times, is still great disproportion between men and women. All this is partly as a result of unfair access by political parties, and partly as a result of women's traditional political inactivity. Thus a greater number of municipalities was not achieved a minimum 30% quota of women in representative lists.

Laws guaranteeing equal opportunities for women, in line with European standards and norms, have been adopted, however, the level of implementation of legislative measures is perceived as very low and women continue to face disparities in terms of jobs, wages and political representation. Within the executive branch, the participation of women is low, as a result of lack of affirmative action.

2.4 Women’s Political Participation in Bosnia and Herzegovina (BH)

The BH case shows that closed lists are problematic for the empowerment of women and their participation in politics. Likewise, open lists can lead to a drastic reduction in women’s representation when the country lacks an enabling environment for women candidates. Women in BH are still largely excluded from decision making positions. In 2013 ministries of all nine ministries of BH were men. However, women are equally represented as deputy ministers, as men, which is a good indicator of possible change. However, the percentage of women in legislative and executive authorities at all levels remains unsatisfactory, although the situation is much more favourable in the Parliamentary Assembly of BH.

In 2011, only 19% of women were represented in the Parliament, 21.4% in the House of Representatives and 13.3% in the House of the Peoples. In the 2008 elections the electorate included 49% women and 51% men; registered candidates consisted of 64.8% of men and 35.2% of women, whereas among the elected officials 85% were men and only 15% were women. The percentage of women elected as mayors was in 2012 only 7.3%. In 2012 out of 54 positions there were only 12 women (22.2%) female ambassadors and general consuls in the diplomatic/consular offices. However, women make 51% of civil servants in the institutions. Available data on the ratio of men to women employed in public administration in BH shows approximately the same ratio amongst civil servants in both Republika Srpska and the Federation of BH. Within the judiciary of BH it is evident that women outnumber men amongst court personnel. The percentage for women

15 Official Journal of Macedonia, No.66/06 and 117/09
16 Official Journal of Macedonia, No.60/2005
17 Official Journal of Macedonia, No.76/2004
ranged from 43.1% in the Court, to 67.5% in the municipal courts. Election law requires a 30% quota of female representation in elected bodies (Women and Men in BiH 2013, p.49).

The major lesson learned from the Bosnian experience is that if a quota system is introduced, it must be accompanied by other measures such as support to women in election campaigns, education of women on how to lead their campaigns, support to media to pay more attention to women candidates, and voter education.

2.5 Women’s Political Participation in Serbia

Around 2% of women were elected in the first multiparty elections for the Serbian Parliament in 1992. Under the regime of President Slobodan Milosevic, the largest proportion of women in parliament was 5%. Following the democratic changes of 2000 and subsequent elections, the representation of women stands at around 11% and 6% in the national parliament and the local assemblies, respectively (Mrsević, 2004). In September 2004, the quota system, specifying that 30% of the under-represented gender must be included on candidate lists, was introduced nationwide. As a result, women won 25% of the seats in local assemblies.

Serbia aimed to increase the percentage of women within Parliament by a substantial percentage, from roughly 22% to 33%, by the end of the 2012 election cycle. This was attempted through an obligatory quota, which required Serbia’s political parties to place a woman in every third position on their electoral lists. This work served as a witness to the ultimate success of this gender equality goal, in an attempt to evaluate its potential application to other settings. For the larger part of the last election cycle (Vojvodic, 2012), Serbia stood in a relatively good position both regionally and globally. From 2008-2012, Serbia ranked 56th out of approximately 150 ranked countries on the Inter-Parliamentary Union’s list of percentages of women in national legislatures.22

In terms of the 5 other former republics of Yugoslavia, Serbia was also positioned relatively well in this group. According to data from the Inter-Parliamentary Union, Serbia was ahead of Montenegro where women only make up 12% of Parliament and Bosnia and Herzegovina where women make up a close 21% of Parliament. At that point, Slovenia’s Parliament was laudably composed of 32% of women, Croatia’s was composed of a close 23%, and FYROM’s Parliament was composed of 31% women. It is clear that the region has done quite well in terms of this indicator so Serbia had tough competition within the former Yugoslavia. The picture is more favorable for Serbia outside of the “Yugosphere”. Albania, a Balkan neighbor, also lagged behind Serbia with 16% of Parliament being comprised of women. Greece had 19% women in Parliament; Bulgaria had 22%.

Quotas have so far been used in Serbia to increase women’s representation in political party leadership and on parties’ lists of electoral candidates. Quotas may be the only way to ensure a degree of representation for women in countries where the rate of participation is very low.

In elections held in 16 March 2014, women were represented 34.4% from the total number of deputies.23

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Women in parliaments</th>
<th>Women Ministerial position</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Serbia</td>
<td>22%</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Albania</td>
<td>15.7%</td>
<td>6.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Macedonia</td>
<td>30.9%</td>
<td>13.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bosnia and Herzegovina</td>
<td>21.4%</td>
<td>6.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Montenegro</td>
<td>12.3%</td>
<td>5.9%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Women in politics 2012: Situation on 1 January 2012, UN WOMEN.

3. Survey Results

For purposes of this paper, in February 2015 was made a survey of citizens in Macedonia, which included questions that citizens have expressed their stance over gender equality.

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22 Inter Parliamentary Union, Women in Parliaments, 2012.
Table 2. The citizens’ opinion on the gender issues

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Answer</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Do you think that the quota system for the under-represented gender is politically justified?</td>
<td>62% 27% 11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do you think it with the census defined in the quota can be achieved gender equality in political life?</td>
<td>19% 80% 1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The control mechanisms for gender equal opportunities, are effective or not in political life??</td>
<td>29% 48% 33%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4. Conclusions

Gender equality in reality did not correspond to the legal framework. Even the small attention given to the process of overcoming stereotypes of gender relations in society as well as in the decision making process did not meet the expectations.

Large deficits have been indicated in equality in real economic life, production and creativity, employment, and specific branches such as media, diplomacy, management, etc.

At the doorstep of the European Union, all Balkan countries face the challenge of equal opportunities in the field of politics and in the decision-making process in particular. In the process of analysis, it has been largely proven that women are underrepresented in important decision making areas.

Though legal instruments and institutional mechanisms to promote women’s political participation have been established, more work needs to be done to fine-tune them and put laws into practice. In many cases, poor implementation of gender equality laws, including the absence of provision for work/life balance, account for the low participation of women in political processes. Greater participation of women in parliament and other decision-making bodies, together with their strong representation in civil society organizations, are needed to ensure government accountability to gender equality legislation.

Women in political parties face a number of challenges. For example, they are often not promoted to higher party positions, they do not have access to funding, and they don’t attract the attention of the media, or have the social support to promote themselves for office. Some reasons for their exclusion include: the patriarchal tradition, caring and domestic duties that are considered to be women’s duties, as well as the psychological and physical demands of switching focus from motherhood.

The challenge is to build a political culture, particularly during election campaigns, to promote women alongside men candidates. The key is to ensure that party lists respect quota systems when they are in place, and go beyond the minimum possible representation of women required by law. It is therefore important to encourage parties to place women candidates high on party lists and in responsible and accountable positions.

Also, on the other hand, the EU during the process of approximation of the Western Balkan countries must continue to recommend the Western Balkan states that:

- the issue of women’s rights should be at the center of negotiations in all negotiating chapters with candidate countries of the Western Balkans;
- to absorb EU funds should always targeted projects dealing with the promotion of women’s rights, including monitoring mechanisms;
- should support activities aimed at strengthening the position of women in society; including positive discrimination measures;
- combating all forms of discrimination in the workplace, including gender discrimination in relation to recruitment, promotion and salaries should be imperative;
- should continue without exception, the punishment of human trafficking in the Balkans;
- It’s important to improve the situation of women in rural areas, especially vis-à-vis the habits and discriminatory stereotypes.

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Women and Men in BiH 2013, Agency for Statistics, Sarajevo, 2013, p.49
Generation Y – Characteristics of Attitudes on Labour Market

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Abstract

The purpose of this paper is to present possible attitudes of Gen Y on the labour market, characteristics that can be used in the management of young employees. Second purpose of this paper is to find if the assessment of present job changed during time for Generation Y. Gen Y are persons almost adults but with a less than 35 years, they were born in the 80s and 90s of the twentieth century. This period is conventional and in each country the cohorts may be different. Affiliation to the generation Y depends on the culture, lifestyle, family and friends patterns, social surrounding. Deal (2007, p. 14) writes that all generations have similar values and "they just express them differently". In Parment (2013) may be find that identity, image and social networks have become increasingly important in the job seeking process. These same characteristics that also affect the perception of conditions of work and the obligation to work. Gen Y do not want to work as hard as the older generations. They don't believe that work is important part of life, but they tend to work-life balance. Because Gen Y are multitasking, so they willingness to learn new thing is stronger than in older persons. They are also ready to work hard, but only when their work is meaningful. After analysis of the ESS data, it was found that between Poles and the respondents belonging to the countries participating in the ESS there are differences in the perception of the present job, and that the attitude to work of Gen Y in 2004, was changed in 2010. The paper concludes with suggestions for the employers, how to manage Generation Y.

Keywords: Generation Y, labour market, characteristics of the work and employees

1. Introduction

The objective of research concerns on detecting differences between four generations on labour market and analysis of changes in attitudes to work. The analysis allowed to determine the guidelines for managers of employees of Gen Y. This article presents the results of research conducted on the Data ESS Round2 and Data ESS Round5 (ESS - European Social Survey). From the questionnaires were taken questions about assessment of current job:

1) Job is secure;
2) Job requires learning new things.

Each respondent chose one of the given response: Not at all true, a little true, quite true, very true. The analysis was conducted for the data from the years 2004 and 2010. In first period, the study group was aged 18-29 years (divided into two groups 18-24 and 25-29). Then were checked the attitudes after six years for these groups, so in 2010 the study group was aged 18-35 years. All persons from the age group 18-30 in 2010 belonged to the Generation Y, and respondents 31-35 year old belonged in 2010 to Generation X. Gender of respondents was also taken into consideration in analyses. In 2004 in survey (ESS Round2 and ESS Round5) participated respondents from 26 countries, and in 2010 from 28 countries.

Generation Y (Gen Y, Millennials, Yers) is the best educated group in the current labour market. They are the youngest, but they realize their knowledge and skills, they want to be equally, respectfully treated. Generation Y grew up with free access to modern technologies, therefore, their ability to use ICT in their everyday lives and work are much better than workers from other generations. Generation Y grew up in the age of globalised economy “surrounded by mobile phones and the Internet” (Barwińska-Małajowicz, p. 302) e-mails, e-commities. For them Internet is that place where they may find everything.

Gen Y are born in the 80s and 90s of the twentieth century. Therefore, this group includes people who are already functioning the labour market (age 25-34), those that are starting a job search (18-24) and the youngest Yers who are completing their training (14-17). The youngest group of Yers after entering the labour market will be even more surprising for the other generations, their ability to use modern technology will become more natural.

In the labour market, there are still three other generations: Traditionalists (1922-1945), Baby Boomers (1946-1964), Generation X (1965-1980). Each of these generations behaves differently in the labour market, but it should be...
noted that the difficulties indicated by one generation are other advantages. Bąkowska (2013, p. 10) writes that "Each generation has its own occupational preferences and its own market needs". Can be identified the conventional age cohorts in each country, however, this distribution may be different. Apart from the most frequently mentioned four generations could in fact be several other groups of the population.

Traditionalists (Veterans, Silent Generation, Matures, see for ex. Parry and Urwin (2011)) traditionalists are the oldest people that currently the most frequently are no longer working, but it is still among them a group of professionally active (compare Figure 2). People of this generation are very loyal employees, a fully respect for the authority. They are very involved in their work. They are not open to changes. Thrifty and preferring cash payments, what is related to their risk aversion. They are strongly attached to respect of procedures.

Baby Boomers (BB) are persons who were born after WWII during the demography explosion. Parment (2013) indicates that the baby boom started earlier in the US than in Germany, where the phenomenon was inhibited by the destruction and poverty after WWII. Sometimes this group is divided into two generations: Boomers I (Traditional, born 1946-1954) and Boomers II (Generation Jones, born 1955-1965) (Schroer, 2015). They differ of their objectives, priorities, scope of use of available technology and dealing with money. However, it can be concluded that all the Baby Boomers have similar attitude to work. They are loyal and say that hard work should be associated with the position, prestige and career advancement. BB move their family away into the background when they have to fulfil their professional duties (Bąkowska 2013). Greater financial opportunities and the availability of higher education degrees focused them on career. (Loretto 2015). Baby Boomers are in many cases the parents of Xers and even Yers. It Baby Boomers gave the Xers and Yers access to better living and modern technology.

Generation X is also called "Baby Busters, Twenty something, and the F-you generation" (Acar 2014, p. 12). As Ruthus (2014) explained, people from generation X are individualistic career-oriented, so they are looking for development opportunities in work, they make pragmatic and rational decisions. They appreciate family life. They have a respect for work. Although they are sceptical, they are loyal to their employer. They like to be independent. Because Xers grew up in a period intensified technological developments, their expectations of quality of life are much higher than those of previous generations. "Freedom is more important to them than money and titles" (Ruthus, 2014. p. 7). The result of the study of Gursoy et al. (2008, p. 451), which was carried out by in-depth focus, is the main characteristic of Gen X as: "Respond to instant gratification, Work to live, Identify with the lone ranger, Friends in high places".

Independently of gender, the share of Yers in the World population exceeds the share of generation X, BB and Traditionalists (Figure 1). For the population of Europe in 2010, the percentage of men and women of Gen Y is lower than the other groups that functioning in the labour market. In Poland there are more persons of Gen Y than Xers and Traditionalist.

**Fig 1:** The percentage rate of people in 5 age groups in the total population of Poland, Europe and World.

**Source:** Own elaboration on data from OECD, EUROSTAT [demo_pjangroup].

The next graph (Figure 2) illustrates the employment rate of each generation in 2010. Because EUROSTAT data were used, the age range was adopted identical to those contained in the source table. The employment rate for women from Gen X and younger from BB was in 2010 higher in Poland than the average employment rate in the EU. The employment rate of men from Generation X was slightly higher in Poland than in the EU. As shown in Figure 2 the smallest group of those working are people from Traditionalists generation. The employment rate of youngest people from Generation Y is
much lower than for the other analyzed persons from Yers, Xers and BB. Among people aged 20-24, there are many people who still learning and so the ratio is low (lower for women).

The employment rate (independent of age) for people participating in the labour market is lower for women than for men (both in Poland and in the EU). As seen from Figure 1 the largest part of the population in Poland and Europe are persons of BB generation. Figure 2 shows that the employment rate of people aged 45-49 years remained at a high level, and for those aged 50-64 is decreasing significantly.

**Fig 2:** Employment rate in EU and Poland in four generations by gender

![Employment rate in EU and Poland in four generations by gender](image)

**Source:** Own elaboration on data from EUROSTAT [lfsa_ergan].

### 2. Characteristic of Generation Y

In the literature, can be find another term for Yers: millennium generation, next generation, i-pop generation, e-generation (Barwińska-Mołowicz 2011). Martini (2005, p. 40) indicates that Gen Y "call themselves the Non-Nuclear Family Generation, the Nothing-Is-Sacred Generation, the Wannabees, the Feel-Good Generation, CyberKids, the Do-or-Die Generation, and the Searching-for-an-Identity Generation". These all names fully reflect the character, lifestyle and attitude to work Generation Y.

Generation Y are people who were born between 1980 and 1999. But those years are conventionally determined. However, in each country, the age cohort may be different. In the Hole, Zhang, Schwartz (2010) can be find examples of generational partitioning occurring in different countries: China, India (Gen Y: 1981+), South Korea (Gen X and Gen Y simultaneously 1970+), Japan, Russia (Gen Y 1983 -2000), South Africa (Gen Y 1990-2000), Brazil (Gen Y 1981-2001), US (Gen Y 1981-2001). Gentry et al. (2011, p. 41) define Gen Y as: "grew up in the digital age".

People belonging to this generation are get used to make permanent many choices (Parment 2013). Thus, multitasking is for them everyday life. Gursoy et al. (2008) suggest that Gen Y expects from their superiors to indicate how to proceed, which results in a lack of ability to make critical decisions.

They have a need for a constant feedback, so that Gen Y can function correctly. In the study described by Parment (2013, p. 6) is indicated that 36. 4% of respondents said that "feedback is very important for them and affects their efficiency. " Another characteristic of Gen Y is that the rules are set out in order to be broken (Gursoy et al. 2008). Millennials are a generation without "territorial limitations in communications" (Barwińska-Malajowicz 2011, p. 303). This is due to the fact that from birth they have access to new technologies that they use better than a Generation X.

Gen Y freely make decisions whether life or work-related. They are not afraid to open their own business. Martini (2005) indicates that they become the owners of 'Me, Inc.' (definition in Peters (1997)).

"They know their worth on the labour market" (Barwińska-Malajowicz A. 2011 p. 304). They use the work as an opportunity to achieve other (private) objectives. If they know that by completing the task in a shorter time they will be able to spend the rest of the time on private matters, then they will do the work faster and with greater involvement. It is very difficult determine the dead-line in cooperation with the Gen Y. They are willing to work in teams, and due to their high skills in use of ICT they can work across borders, globally. In such a form of work also helps them tolerance and openness to other lifestyles, cultures and ideologies. Because they like to get the concretized tasks (are task oriented), so they rarely show their creativity in finding solutions. Additionally they are become quickly discouraged when they tend to
solutions and faced with difficulties. Unlike previous generations, they cannot imagine of work overtime. If they agree to such a solution, they want to be additionally highly paid. Gen Y are very good adapt to the current trend in search of behaviour patterns: "Identität, Image und soziale Netzwerke spielen eine immer größere Rolle bei der Arbeitssuche" (Parment (2013, p. 58): Identification, image and social networks plays increasingly important role in job searching process). They are the youngest of the labour market, but they are best manage new technologies and social networks.

Gentry et al. (2011) examined what are the differences between three generations of managers due to the importance of factors determining Leadership and their practice and skills in 16 areas. In each generational cohort Importance and skills were different ranked. This points to the fact that the validity of the factors selected by the managers do not goes together with their skills. For example for Y-managers very important were following leadership practices: resourcefulness, leading employees and straightforwardness and composure. But in their skill level these factors were on 6, 15, 7 places, and the most important skills of leadership practices were: being a quick study, differences matter, putting people at ease. In every generational groups leading employees as leadership practices was very important but skill level was very low.

After analyzing the characteristics of all the generations presented on the labour market can be find a lot of differences. Examples of differences are presented in Figure 3.

Fig 3: Differences of work attributes and lifestyle among four generations


3. Analysis of Perceptions of Job Safety and the Possibility of Continuous Learning

In the Europe 2020 Strategy established in 2010, is indicated fighting poverty and social exclusion as one of headline targets. This action results from the increasing unemployment rate in the European Union. As shown in Stanimir (2014) unemployment rate of Gen Y in the EU decreased in 2006-2008, but from 2009 to 2013 grew. In such a situation, it seems reasonable the question of how youngest employees perceive the stability and job security compared to weaker, than the older generations, loyalty to the employer.
From figures 4 and 5 it can be seen that in Poland, in both 2004 and 2010 men and women evaluated their job as less secure than all participants of ESS. In Poland in 2004 men and women aged 18-24 assessed the safety of job very unfavourably. After 6 years, they were in the group aged 18-30 years, their assessment of safety has improved, they often chose answers very true and quite true. Analysing the responses of women aged 25-29 in 2004 can be seen that they assess their current job as a highly secure. After six years, their opinions were not so optimistic: the most given answers were a little true. Completely different answered men who in 2004 were 25-29 years: the most common responses were quite true, and a little true. After six years, they better assessed their current work: little true (most replies) and very true. Considering the answers of all respondents in the study of the ESS in 2004 and 2010 there can't be identified changes in the assessment of safety of work. Women aged 25-29 in 2004 and 31-35 in 2010 evaluated their job as the most secure.

Because the Gen Y declares willingness to lifelong learning, it was chosen in the next analysis variables describing their attitude in this matter. Figures 6 and 7 shows how the respondents evaluated the need to learn new things at work.
Fig 6. Job requires learning new things - results of the analysis for the respondents from all countries participating in the ESS

![Bar chart showing job requirements for all countries from 2004 to 2010.]

Source: Own elaboration on ESS data.

Fig 7. Job requires learning new things - results of the analysis for the respondents in Poland

![Bar chart showing job requirements for Poland from 2004 to 2010.]

Source: Own elaboration on ESS data.

Statement that the job requires learning new things was true for those of the countries participating in the ESS in both 2004 and 2010 (for men and women). In Poland, in 2004 women aged 25-29 years in most stated that current job requires learning new things. After six years, their opinion was similar. Among women aged 18-24 years in 2004, the most frequent answers were very true and a little true. However, among women aged 18-30 in 2010 were the most answers: very true and quite true.

4. Conclusions

Combined analysis based on data from the ESS for all the countries analyzed at the same time does not give a good picture of changes in the perception of work. Each country should be considered separately, and the analysis can be enriched with variables describing the economic situation of the country.

Generation Y declare their willingness to learn new things but probably it must be associated with the possibility of achieving additional benefits not only the execution of work. Unfortunately, the formulation of the questions in ESS does not allow to assess satisfaction with need to learn new things at work.

After the analysis of characteristics of all generations on labour market it is clear that in the management of young employees very important are: possibility of professional development access to modern technology, task oriented management and multitasking, continuous feedback. The employer must allow Gen Y to keep balance between work and life. For Gen Y work is the best place for learning soft and hard skills.
5. Acknowledgements

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References


Fear of Violence and Criminality in the Region of Gjilan, Kosovo

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Abstract

It has already passed a long time since the second half of the XX (twentieth) century, fear of crime has been subjected to an intensive study of many criminologist. Even today it is difficult to define precisely this notion because we are dealing with something that falls in the domain of subjective perception. Today the fear of violence and crime is considered as a problem, which mostly affects the quality of life not only of individuals but also the wider circle we live in. Many criminologist consider that fear of crime as a bigger problem than the official rate of offenses recorded in modern urban centers. The purpose of this research is to get to know the intensity of this problem compared to official figures, and how some of important factors affect sensitivity of Gjilani citizens security in the sense of security of citizens in Gjilan, Kosovo.

Keywords: Fear of crime, violence, victimization, prevention of crime.

1. Introduction

Criminality is a negative social phenomenon, which has been accompanying every society throughout all stages of its development. Most European criminologists believe that fear of crime is a bigger problem than the official rate of recorded offenses in modern urban centers. Crime and fear of crime reduce the quality of life of many Gjilan citizens, especially to elderly, children and minors, those living in the poorest areas with a higher density of population.

Fear of crime can be defined as the experience of an individual or a group that represents trust, perception or emotion in relation to crime and public order, and has a negative effect on human’s feelings, thoughts or behavior and quality of life (Gjoni, 2006). In other words, we are dealing with emotional reaction and unpleasant cases in relation with criminals.

Fear of crime is mainly and primarily psychological, but perceived risk of victimization includes cognitive evaluation of probability that in reality happens as victimization (Warr, 2000).

Recent years we have witnessed many events in the field of crime throughout Kosovo, witnessing various criminal acts, seeing and hearing through electronic and print media.

At the same time, according to the annual work report of the Kosovo Police official and police statistics is shown that the total number of offenses in the Republic of Kosovo in 2014 was 36,514, compared with the statistical data of 2014 and those of 2013, the number of offenses was 36642. This indicates that the number of cases and offenses have declined up to 4. 89%, respectively 00.35%. Based on an investigation, cases have increased from 2. 99 in 2014 and from 66. 8% in 2013, to 69. 79% (MIA, 2014). In 2013 the number of offenses has increased by 2. 97% compared to those of 2012 were 35585. Comparing discovered cases of the years 2012/2013 in percentage, is clear that since 2013 discovery of cases has increased up to 2.01% (MIA, 2013). In the Gjilan Regional Directorate the number of criminal cases in 2014 is the participation of 9% or 3286 criminal cases in total offenses at the national level of 36,514.

Despite the successful police organized at central and local levels, it has been seen a reduction of offenses committed in the past, but the factors that affect the fear of violence and crime in Gjilan region are manifold and complex, where are included socio-demographic characteristics, the earlier victimization, exposure to certain topics in the media, use of personal protective measures, previous contacts with the police and judicial bodies, the perception of neighbors and personal traits, etc.

Most European criminologists believe that the fear of violence and crime is a bigger problem than the official figures of offenses recorded. This situation is quite logical, because, we in Kosovo for years have been hearing official reports on crime which situation is almost a “satisfactory” chronic.

The population of Gjilan still perceives criminality as one of the greatest concerns of this time. In this context, this research is an attempt to provide answers to the question, to what extent is the fear of violence and crime in Gjilan...
region.

2. Subject of Research

Phenomenological analysis needs, we have undertaken an empirical research which includes structure, social - psychological, social - demographic fear of crime - a sense of danger which as such constitutes the subject matter of this research in the town of Gjilan.

Criminality is being fought by all means, and by various national strategies in cooperation with all relevant institutions responsible for it. Nevertheless it is very flexible and is changing the form of action by leaving bad “effects” in the region where it operates. On the other side it lowers confidence of institutions which are responsible to fight crime. Therefore, the content of this research is measured by different indicators due to fear of crime.

2.1 The goal of research

The purpose of empirical research plan is trying an objectivity of the security situation in Gjilani town, using some new methods of the criminality accuracy. Volume, dynamics and structure of criminality in any society can be assessed by various methods. Official statistics provide us with data on the number of persons the police dealing with, courts and institutions for enforcement of criminal sanctions. The success of these institutions depends to what extent they have managed to lower the citizens fear from crime. If citizens are disappointed by these authorities which are just some factors to measure crime, the fear would be greater towards criminality. Therefore, the main goal of this research would be collecting data of fear in terms of violence and criminality by various factors that influence and determine the perception of citizens in terms of violence and crime in the town of Gjilan.

2.2 Research method

Methodological opus means two methods. In fact, it comes to methods of analyzing the meta-analytic literature and examples of good practice in the introduction section, the theoretical part of the paper, with proper use and the method of content analysis and case studies. In the context of empirical work on which we have been exploring the sense of security of the citizens of Gjilan and compare that feeling on the quality and quantity of official indicators of criminality from the records of formal control bodies. As a tool in this research, we have used the questionnaire survey (for poll violence, N = 270 respondents), arranged in the correct way, with questions formulated previously defined and providing the answers. The survey in this research was the oral survey, where the interviewer ask questions orally based on survey instruments and has recorded responses to the questionnaire.

In this research, we have used individual and anonymous survey which is simultaneous and the most successful and frequent surveys. Knowing the importance of its plot - mass phenomena, the connection with general scientific statistical method, its characteristics: the systematization is provided through a responsible work in the conceptualization and design of research by our staff, the relative duration and economizing. In this process carefully pronounced operationalization facility is dedicated to research, hypothesis, indicators, questionnaires, sampling and training of enumerators.

2.3 Working methodology

2.3.1 Instrument

In this survey was used questionnaire of Wurffov for fear of criminality which is used in many international researches. (Van der Wurff, A. , Van Staaldeninuen, L. , Stringer, P. 1989), the used questionnaire consists of several variables summarized in groups:

1. Socio-demographic general characteristics (residence, age, gender and victimization of an offense, the time-period of residence in the last address, residential status, educational level, position in the labor market.)

2. Self perception of the respondents and their behavior. (Calculation of the running speed, the ability of financial survival, self-assessment of health status, frequency of association with people, attending the neighborhood association, attending the visit friends in the neighborhood, risk assessment in certain countries). Fear of violence and crime in Gjilani region is explored through the scale from 1 (impossible, slow, weak, never) to the 5 level (very easy, fast, very well, very often) in which participants have to assess self-perception and behavior
among these levels in reply to the posed questions.

3. Eight characteristics of socio-psychological model of fear of crime (I think the most evil men threaten me and my property, I think people are jealous of me, think I'm able to control a potential attacker, usually you deviate problems, generally trusting strangers, I do not believe to some people in my area. There are times when getting back home I think I might get attacked by somebody, but still I have a faith that the path I have chosen to go back home is safe).

4. Six situations in terms of security feeling or insecurity in relation to criminality is closely connected with four socio-psychological componenets: atractivity, misfaith, power and space criminality.

2.4 The sample of respondents

Sampling, selection of the method to carry out a survey is a complex process in which scientists, experts, supervisor and interviewers participate to choose a certain number of units representative of the knowledge and the completion of the phenomena on the basis of those units. The sample of respondents in this research consists of Gjilan residents aged over 18 years old selected by random method with previously trained interviewers. The starting point of the interviewers and the definition of the way in which they move is not made casually, it has its own importance in the sampling system. The starting point has fulfilled the spatial dimensions of stratification that has surrounded our "area of responsibility". Selecting family has been a very difficult task in the process of stratification to define in which families survey would be realized.

2.5 Hypothetical framework

The whole instrumental package, the anticipated contents even the purpose, subject and methodological framework is possible, testing through a general hypothesis records: "Official statistics of crime in Gjilan, in quantitative terms, is distinguished from the perception of crime by the citizens of this city gained from their victimology research properties ".

3. Summary of Survey Conducted in the Gjilan City

The perception of fear of violence and crime in the region of Gjilan, within the research surveyed individuals according to the structure specified below. During the survey interlocutors were informed with the subject of research, and the same individuals voluntarily participated in it. Research based on individual statement in the town of Gjilan on fear from criminality and its danger was conducted with a sample of 270 respondents, aged over 18 years.

Through research on gender variables it comes out the best predictor of fear from crime. This link has been proven by many researchers (Garofalo, 1979; Tolle, 2001; Skogan & Maxfield, 1981; Ferraro & LaGrange, 1987; Rountree & Land, 1996; Borooah & Carcach, 1997; Lane & Meeker, 2000) with results that women have a higher degree of fear than males, while according to research (Fettah of Sacco, 1989) older females were less likely to be victims. These thoughts also match our records where research results have shown us that women feel more fear of crime than men.

Employees are more afraid of crime than the unemployed ones, those who have been victims of crime feel less dose of fear than those who were not. We also have the case of unemployed persons who in this research is shown to have more fear than they used to have it before.

Many scientists have been dealing with the fear of crime research, and studies have confirmed its existence in different populations (Chokalingam & Srinivasan, 2009; Dolezal, 2009; Gjoni, 2006). In the meantime research defined a large number of determinants of fear of crime, including socio-demographics various features, such as gender, age and rural origin - urban.
Table 1. Structure of respondents after socio-demographic model of fear of crime.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>N</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Running speed: &quot;In relation to average people&quot; running</td>
<td>270</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How do you evaluate your health this year?</td>
<td>270</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Are you able to collect 250 Euro &quot;in a quick run&quot; without a loan from a bank?</td>
<td>270</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I get on well with people</td>
<td>270</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How often do you talk with your neighbours?</td>
<td>270</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do you visit your neighbours?</td>
<td>270</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How often do you walk alone at night?</td>
<td>270</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.93</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Regarding the age group of respondents appears that each ¼ is between 18 to 35 years old. If we focus ourselves at the responses from the socio-demographic data, it comes out that the speed (average 3.54) of running and health (average of 4.07) is a good rate compared to the ability "in a quick run" to collect 250 euros without loan from the bank with an average scale of 2.72. Analyzing the two important indicators of high unemployment among respondents with a percentage of 30.37% or the other indicator of young age, 62% of respondents there is a good average in general.

Regarding association with people, talking to people in the neighborhood, and visiting friends who live in the neighborhood, there is an average that is closed to 4 (scale one 1 never, whereas scale 5 often), respectively association with people 3.82, conversation with neighbors 3.85, and visiting friends who live in the neighborhood with 3.56.

Research carried out in Europe (European Communities, 2004), the US (Gallup, 2009), India and Japan (Chockalingam & Srinivasan, 2009) show a lower representation of fear of crime in general population. In a study conducted in 36 countries across Europe, USA, Canada, Australia and New Zealand, which was held in 1989, 1992, 1996 and 2000 and in which the total sample consisted of 162,346 people, participants answered an average of feeling quite safe when walking alone at night in the city, and the level of fear was approximately the same in all European countries and it has not changed significantly over time (European Communities, 2004). The situation is similar in the US, where in 2009 Gallup poll, 66% of respondents state that they feel themselves safe when moving through the city during night.

From other socio-demographic data we see that the walk at night by citizens is expressed with an average sample of respondents N = 270 of 2.93. the range of 1 to 5. Namly, citizens of the region of Gjilan do not feel very safe while walking at night. They lack safety and it cannot be compared with other world cities.

The respondents see as a huge problem groups of young-bands where they felt very concerned at a frequency of 180, or with a large proportion of 67.70%.

Table 2. Youth gangs (groups)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td>A very big problem</td>
<td>180</td>
<td>66.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A big problem</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>20.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A small problem</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>9.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>It is not a problem</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>3.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>270</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

If we take a retroactive look to the last year, police statistics shows that the security situation in Gjilan is not so enviably, since it has been based on the earlier problems of youngsters- groups who are split into two and they have with them large numbers of their members, which is a major problem and concern for all authorities dealing with social control. These authorities have been creating great strategy to combat this phenomenon and to prevent it in the future.

Nearly half of respondents, respectively, 47.40% or with frequency of 128 from N = 270 felt confident in their district compared to 1/7 or 14. 80% of those who felt threatened.
Table 3. Structure of respondents to the sense of security at night in their district

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td>Very safe</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>18.1</td>
<td>18.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Quite safe</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>19.6</td>
<td>37.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Safe</td>
<td>128</td>
<td>47.4</td>
<td>85.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Risked</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>14.8</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>270</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

With an average of 1.68, or 57% of respondents who are ranked in the first degree (1-5) and who feel very concerned with the risk of theft. Their main fear 6 indicators presented in question 3 is theft, a problem for them is very disturbing.

Table 4. Riskiness feeling of theft

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td>Quite big koncern</td>
<td>154</td>
<td>57.0</td>
<td>57.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relative koncern</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>25.6</td>
<td>25.6</td>
<td>82.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average koncern</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>11.5</td>
<td>11.5</td>
<td>94.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Small koncern</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>98.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No concern at all</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>270</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

But if you look at the statistics of the annual report of 2014 the number of thefts has declined by 10.83% or theft offenses 7748 compared with 2013 by 8689 offenses of theft. This factor alone does not reduce the fear of crime from theft. It is known that this fear is dependent on many different factors. After feeling the danger of theft, respondents feel afraid of the danger or fraud and feel very concerned with the frequency of 134 from N = 270 or 49.60%

Table 5. Riskiness feeling of fraud

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td>Quite big koncern</td>
<td>134</td>
<td>49.6</td>
<td>49.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relative koncern</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>21.9</td>
<td>21.9</td>
<td>71.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average koncern</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>17.0</td>
<td>17.0</td>
<td>88.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Small koncern</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>9.6</td>
<td>9.6</td>
<td>98.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No conceren at all</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>270</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Our respondents to the following question "Is there a part of the city where you would never go alone at night?" 66.70% answered that there is no part of the city where they would not go at night, which is a fair indicator for a good feeling of security in Gjilan. The rest of the respondents answered that there were still places, neighborhoods where there would not attend lonely at night is 33.33%.

Table 6. Are there parts of the city where they would not go alone at night?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>180</td>
<td>66.7</td>
<td>66.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7 Korriku</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>13.0</td>
<td>79.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Arbëria</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>7.8</td>
<td>87.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Baleci</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>92.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Dardania</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.4</td>
<td>92.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Dheu i Bardhë</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>94.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
They claim that the most dangerous area remains the street “7 Korriku” with 12.96%, or with a frequency of 35 and then Arbëria neighborhood comes with a frequency of 21 or 7.78%. and in third place is the neighborhood of Baleci with 4.81% or with a frequency of 13. But the remaining percentages are very small that will appear in continuity of this project.

9.60% of our respondents have replied that their property damages would be compensated in case of any possible damage caused by somebody, it is concretely with 2.20%, or with a frequency of 6 of those who have secured property with insurance companies with 7.40% or with a frequency of 20 who have secured their property at a private insurance company.

Table 7. Structure of respondents on the manner of choosing insurance in order to offset any damage caused by possible refraction.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid No</td>
<td>244</td>
<td>90.4</td>
<td>90.4</td>
<td>90.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Insurance company</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>92.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private Security</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>7.4</td>
<td>7.4</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>270</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Each of the 15th respondents has been a victim of any offense. The risk is theft at a scale of 11.11%, then it is victimization by being fraud at a level of 3.70.

Respondents to undertake various security measures on the fear of crime, respectively feelings of danger from crime have always taken steps to avoid contacts with unknown people at night (with an average of 1.71); often (with an average of 2.17). People usually take measures to avoid certain roads, streets or parks. But (with an average of 3.22) Night respondents sometimes use taxis, etc. Respondents also sometimes (with an average of 3.69) take security measures to keep safe large amounts of money.

 Undertaking security measures while getting out from the apartment is very necessary, and it has to be followed by strict security measures (with a scale of 2.87). To the extent that rarely take as a measure providing hedge funds holding himself responded (with an average of 4.43%) of respondents from Gjilan. Perceived threats to dangerous places among the respondents from the sample N = 270 are in the first place (streets, shops, parks, recreational places) with 66.30%, then the second row of hazards in their view are ranked recreation sites 48.15%, whereas in the first place of not being at risk are shops, sample =270 with 91.85%.

Table 8. Structure of respondents after socio-psychological model of fear of crime

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I think, evil peope put me in risk and my wealth</td>
<td>270</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.33</td>
<td>1.435</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I think people are jealous to me</td>
<td>270</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.73</td>
<td>1.359</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I think I am enough capable to fight any potential attacker</td>
<td>270</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.14</td>
<td>1.337</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mainly I avoid problems</td>
<td>270</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.46</td>
<td>1.152</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I talk to unknown people in general</td>
<td>270</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.01</td>
<td>1.354</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I do not have faith to some people in my area</td>
<td>270</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.93</td>
<td>1.410</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>On the way back home I have a feeling someone might attack me</td>
<td>270</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.87</td>
<td>1.458</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leaving home, I am pretty sure that the way to my destination is secured.</td>
<td>270</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.27</td>
<td>1.367</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Valid N (listwise)</td>
<td>270</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The socio-psychological model of fear of crime, the questions have different answers from the respondents but not having an extreme departure from the scale 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 scale (completely agree) but a concentration between scale 2 and 3. More specifically, at the question "I think the most evil men threaten me and my wealth" there is an average scale of 3.33%, while the question "I think people are jealous of me" has an average rate of 2.73%. Whereas the prevalence of potential attackers is of an average of 3.14. Just to avoid the problems there is a grown average that leads towards level 5 (completely agree) with 4.46. Faith to strangers is at the lowest level of socio-pathological model with an average of 2.13.

As far as the risk sentiment as to how much endangered would you feel in the evening when you're alone, you do not welcome visitors, someone knocks on your door, the respondents answered with a rate of 2.86 (from an average of 1-5) this respond relatively is endangered. But enough threatened feel our respondents finding themselves in a cafe in a Serbian village in the municipality of Gjilan where no telephone access is. In this case the respondents answered with an average of 1.94. Here the respondents answered with a lower average to all questions to the sense of danger.

As mentioned above, the factors influencing the fear of crime - a sense of danger in Gjilan, are multiple and complex and one of them is the exposure of certain topics in the media. The media largely contribute to the formation of attitude about crime and its presence in society. Graber (1980) showed that 95% of people rely on the media as the main source of information on criminality. Therefore, fear of crime can be linked to media exposure to crime. Selection of real events and its nonrealistic dramatization distort public perception problem. Doob and MacDonald (1979) have assumed that frequent exposure on television will promote fear of crime, it is not because of greater exposure to television, but for the reason that people who watch television more often tend to live in areas in which objectively happen more criminality.

In this regard when asked respondents "how much information affects the electronic and print media in your sense of security" sometimes there is an answer with the highest percentage up to 21.90, and then we often answer with 21.50%, always 18.50%, rarely 18.50% and 19.60% never. Based on this all the answers varies from a minimum of 18.50% to a maximum of 21.90. Based on this, we can say that this has an impact factor usually followed with a sense of security to the overall percentage of 80.40% (in four scales: always, often, sometimes and rarely).

4. Conclusions

Statistical analysis of this research have shown detection of crimes and their perpetrators have a limited effect in reducing the crime rate without participation of other entities and social communities in preventing and combating crime.

Citizens express a distrust of institutions to social control and feel somehow increasingly insecure. Hereby, it is clear that adequate authorities may be proud of reducing crime statistics, however they can not affect the sense of security among the citizens. During this research we have confirmed our hypothesis. Main - Official statistics of crime in Gjilan, in quantitative terms are distinguished from the perception of crime by the citizens of this city gained from their research of victimology properties. Due to what we have realised in our research there are many factors that affect the criminal fear and sense of danger in Gjilan, which are quite complex and attached to many socio-demographic characteristics. However, previous victimization has not been discovered due to fear facing victims for various reasons.

In this regard property protection measures in Gjilan show the following only 9.2 from N = 270 respondents have taken measures. Also, previous contacts with the police and judicial authorities are the key factors affecting the fear of crime and the sense of danger in Gjilan. Discovered offenses by police and meritory delivery of sentences by the court would reduce to some extension fear of crime.

Important role in reducing fear from criminality has been the role of neighbours and their perception all along with personality features, etc.

Gjilan city neighborhoods where this research took place almost has the same problem based on an analyse carried out by the Police Statistics in Regional level in Gjilan.

What is interesting, several quarters compared with other quarters, is that those citizens who were victims of crime do not feel a high insecurity now and in principle they are satisfied with the police and have faith in their work.

This research reflects in detail the work to explore and understand the fear of crime and the sense of danger in Gjilan. Such work is very important because it affects in particular the measures needed by police, judiciary authorities, Municipal Assembly, various Directorates of the Municipality of Gjilan for the prevention of recidivism and crime in general. To enhance the trust of citizens, it is necessary commitment of the aforementioned authorities in order to lower the fear of crime.

In this regard, data and results presented in this research, which arose out of the analysis of our work can serve relevant institutions in designing appropriate policies to prevent and combat the negative phenomenon affecting the fear of crime.
A good strategy for crime prevention not only prevents crime and victimization, but increases the safety of the community in the country, and promotes more security to all age groups affected by the fear of crime and simultaneously increases the confidence of the community in all organizations that fight crime.

References

Career Stages and Attitudes to Skills Development Process in Poland

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Abstract

There is an undeniable need for the continuous improvement of skills and competences in the era of the knowledge-based economy. The necessity of lifelong learning activities is included in the strategic European documents. The degree of achievement of the objectives in the field of adult education varies substantially among the countries of the European Union. The situation in Poland as compared to other countries is unfavorable. This paper deals with the subject of attitudes towards the skills development process of the Polish labor force. The analyses are carried out on the basis of the microdata provided by a Polish nationwide survey on human capital conducted in 2013. According to the Super's theory some career stages combined with age are considered: the exploration, the establishment and the maintenance. A hypothesis is verified that the educational patterns are different at various stages of the career development. As the dataset contains nominal, ordinal and interval variables, some specific statistical methods are applied to identify the associations.

Keywords: skills development; career stages; statistical analysis;

1. Introduction

The knowledge-based economy combined with rapid changes incline all members of the labour force to continuously improve skills and competences. Lifelong learning process is an important component of the European Union educational strategies. International comparisons show that in Poland there is a very low percentage of adults engaged in training (European Commission, 2011b). Recent researches concerning Poland (Czapinski & Panek 2013; GUS, 2009; Grześkowiak 2013; Grześkowiak 2014; Grześkowiak 2015) indicate that there are various factors associated with the involvement in educational activities as gender, place of residence, age, income, health condition, labour status, level of education.

The main objective of this paper is to analyze the attitudes towards improving skills with regard to career stages. According to the Super's theory some career phases can be distinguished in relation to age (Super, 1980). In this study the following division adapted from the Super's theory is applied:

- exploration (18-24 years),
- establishment (25-44 years),
- maintenance (45-64 years).

The Super's partition includes more stages like growth and decline (Super, 1980) but they concern persons beyond productive age and therefore are not considered in this paper.

Chosen statistical methods are applied to examine whether there are relationships between the above-defined career stages and various aspects of improving skills: participation in three forms of education, perception of learning new things in the context of the age, the time and the expenditure spent on education.

2. Data Characteristics and Analytical Techniques

This research is conducted on the basis of microdata collected during a nationwide survey on human capital in Poland named Bilans kapitału ludzkiego 2013. The sample size of this survey is equal to 17 600 individuals in productive age (i.e. 18-64 for men and 18-59 for women). As education plays an important role in human capital formation, the survey includes a choice of questions concerning the attitudes to skills development process. The variables taken into consideration in this study are presented in Table 1.
Table 1. List of variables under consideration

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Participation in formal education (last 12 months)</td>
<td>binary variable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participation in non-formal education (last 12 months)</td>
<td>binary variable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-learning activities (last 12 months)</td>
<td>binary variable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age as a barrier to lifelong learning activities</td>
<td>binary variable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ability to continuously learn new things</td>
<td>ordinal variable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of years since the last participation in training</td>
<td>metric variable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of hours devoted to training (last 12 months)</td>
<td>metric variable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total personal expenditure on training (last 12 months)</td>
<td>metric variable</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Own elaboration based on variables from the survey *Bilans kapitału ludzkiego 2013*

The variables represent various aspects of involvement in activities aiming at developing skills. Although the overall sample size is as mentioned above, no complete data are available for certain variables. In these cases the analyses are conducted on the basis of a smaller number of records (17,597 for *Ability to continuously learn new things*, 2,417 for *Total personal expenditure on training*, 2,432 for *Number of hours devoted to training*, 3,741 for *Number of years since the last participation in training*).

The variables are measured on different scales and therefore various approaches in the analyses are indispensable.

The chi-square test is applied in order to examine associations between pairs of non-metric variables. Since the chi-square statistic depends on the sample size, its usefulness as a measure of association is non convenient, hence the contingency coefficient is used to assess the strength of a relationship as its values are normalized between zero (independence) and one (full association) (Everitt, 1992, pp. 56-57). A directional measure - Goodman and Kruskal Tau having proportional reduction error interpretation is also calculated (see Reynolds, 1984). The associations in three-way contingency tables are evaluated by log-linear modeling (see e.g. Christensen, 1997). Some visualization techniques are applied to illustrate the relationships among nonmetric variables: doubledecker plots and mosaic plots (see Friendly 2000; Hornik, Zeileis & Meyer, 2006) implemented in R *vcd* (Meyer, Zeileis & Hornik, 2014), and *vcdExtra* (Friendly et al., 2015) packages. In the case of metric variables a preliminary assessment of the compliance with the normal distribution is carried out using quantile-quantile plots and the normality is verified by the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test. The lack of normality limits the possibility of the application of classical ANOVA. Hence, an alternative method of comparison of distributions is a non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis test considered also as the one-way analysis of variance by ranks (see e.g. Sheskin, 2003).

All analysis are performed either in R or SPSS programme.

3. Career Stages and Participation in Various Forms of Continuous Education

According to the classification of educational activities used in European policies there are four forms of learning (European Commission, 2006; European Commission 2011a):

- formal education, which takes place in educational institutions and is a part of the educational system of the country,
- non-formal education provided outside the educational system,
- informal learning, which is neither organized nor structured,
- random learning, which is unintentional.

The last one is not a subject of statistical observation (European Commission, 2006). The other forms are treated as intentional learning and statistical data may be available on this topic. The Polish survey on human capital covers these three forms of improving knowledge and skills with the informal learning reflected in the questions on self-learning.

Double-decker charts depicting the contingency tables for selected age intervals and forms of education are presented in Figure 1.
**Figure 1.** Doubledocker plots showing relationships between the career stages and the participation in various forms of continuous education

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**Source:** Own elaboration in R based on data from *Bilans kapitału ludzkiego 2013*

The biggest differences can be observed in the case of formal education. Participation in the group at the beginning of professional career is much higher than in the others. The tendency towards developing skills through self-education decreases with age.

In order to check whether there are dependencies between the phases of professional development and the participation in various forms of education chi-square test as well as contingency and Goodman and Kruskal Tau coefficients are applied (Table 2).

**Table 2.** Measures of association between the career stages and the participation in various forms of continuous education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Chi-square statistic</th>
<th>p-value</th>
<th>Contingency coefficient</th>
<th>Goodman Kruskal Tau</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Formal education</td>
<td>5585.122</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.491</td>
<td>0.317</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-formal education</td>
<td>119.665</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.082</td>
<td>0.007</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Informal education</td>
<td>533.317</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.175</td>
<td>0.031</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source:** Own computations based on data from *Bilans kapitału ludzkiego 2013*

Chi-square test indicates that there are significant relationships between the career stages and involvement in educational activities. The calculated coefficients allow to perform the comparisons of the degree of association. The largest association occurs in the case of formal education, and the lowest in the case of non-formal education.

As there are three learning forms in question, three-way contingency tables may be examined for detecting interactions among all variables. Log-linear models are applied for this purpose. The results of log-linear modeling are shown in Table 3.

**Table 3.** Best log-linear models for participation in various types of continuous education (F - formal education, N - non-formal education, I - informal education)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stage</th>
<th>Log-linear model</th>
<th>Likelihood ratio chi-square</th>
<th>p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Exploration</td>
<td>[FN][F][I][NI]</td>
<td>0.765</td>
<td>0.382</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Establishment</td>
<td>[FN]</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>1.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maintenance</td>
<td>[FN][F][I][NI]</td>
<td>0.007</td>
<td>0.935</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source:** Own computations based on data from *Bilans kapitału ludzkiego 2013*

Simplified models than saturated one are found for relationships of educational activities in case of the exploration and maintenance stages. The detected pattern is called homogeneous association meaning that no three-way interactions are present. The associations between any two forms of education do not depend on the third one. The third-order effect cannot be omitted in case of the establishment stage indicating that there are interactions among all forms of education.

The results of log-linear modeling in case of three variables are portrayed by three-dimensional mosaic plots in Figure 2. The volumes of the cuboids represent the contingency table cells frequencies corresponding to fitted values of log-linear models for exploration and maintenance categories.
Figure 2. Three-dimensional plots corresponding to fitted values of log-linear models for Exploration (left) and Maintenance (right): 0 - lack of participation, 1 – participation

Source: Own elaboration in R based on data from Bilans kapitału ludzkiego 2013

As the goodness-of-fit of the models is good no meaningful discrepancies are indicated. It should be underlined that the participation in education patterns differ essentially between the youngest and the oldest part of the labour force. The case of the maintenance stage is dominated by one big cuboid reflecting the combination of lack of participation in all three lifelong learning activities. In case of the exploration stage the division is not so strongly dominated by a certain combination of educational behaviors.

4. Career Stages and Attitude to Educational Activities

As it was shown above the lowest participation rate in lifelong learning activities is observed at the end of the professional career path (maintenance stage). The question is whether the perception of the ability to learn new things differs essentially between respondents from various age groups and whether age itself is considered as a barrier to involvement in training.

Double-decker plots portraying the contingency tables for the age intervals and the evaluation of the ability to learn new things as well as the perception of age as a barrier to learning are shown in Figure 3.

Figure 3. Doubledecker plots showing relationships between the career stages and the attitudes to lifelong learning activities

Source: own elaboration in R based on data from Bilans kapitału ludzkiego 2013

Persons being at the maintenance stage tend to perceive age as a barrier to undertake educational activities more frequently than the others. Moreover their self-esteem in terms of the ability to learn is lower than among persons at the exploration and establishment stages of career. These differences are also reflected in chi-square test results as well as contingency coefficients (Table 4).
Table 4. Measures of association between the career stages and the attitude to lifelong learning process

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Chi-square statistic</th>
<th>p-value</th>
<th>Contingency coefficient</th>
<th>Goodman Kruskal Tau</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age as a barrier to education</td>
<td>1200.519</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.253</td>
<td>0.017</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ability to learn new things</td>
<td>847.440</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.236</td>
<td>0.059</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Own computations based on data from *Bilans kapitału ludzkiego 2013*

Chi-square test points out that there are significant relationships between the career stages and the considered factors. Low values of Goodman and Kruskal Tau measure indicate that there is a small reduction in error when predicting the attitudes from the knowledge of career stages.

The attitude to learning activities may be also evaluated by analyzing a metric variable representing number of years since the last participation in training. The task is to verify the hypothesis that the average time since the last participation is the same at all distinguished career stages. In order to check whether classical ANOVA may be applied, quantile-quantile plots (Figure 4) as well as Kolmogorov-Smirnov test of normality (Table 5) are used.

Figure 4. Quantile-Quantile plots for *Number of years since the last participation in training* according to three career stages

![Quantile-Quantile plots](image)

Source: Own elaboration based on data from *Bilans kapitału ludzkiego 2013*

Both plots and test results show that the assumption of normality is not held, so the use of the classical analysis of variance is not possible. The suggested solution is the Kruskal-Wallis non-parametric test. The null hypothesis is that the mean ranks of the variable in question are the same across all categories of career stages contrasted with the alternative hypothesis that it is not true at least in two samples. As Kruskal-Wallis statistics is equal to 558.540 with corresponding p-value 0.000 the null hypothesis must be rejected. The time since the last training differs between the groups which are at different career stages.

Table 5. Test of normality: *Number of years since the last participation in training*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stage</th>
<th>Kolmogorov-Smirnov statistic</th>
<th>p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Exploration</td>
<td>0.241</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Establishment</td>
<td>0.216</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maintenance</td>
<td>0.188</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Own computations based on data from *Bilans kapitału ludzkiego 2013*

Pairwise comparisons are performed to evaluate the differences (Table 6). The differences are significant for every pair of career stages.
Table 6. Pairwise comparisons: Number of years since the last participation in training

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pairs</th>
<th>Test statistic</th>
<th>p-value</th>
<th>Adjusted p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Exploration - Maintenance</td>
<td>-22,336</td>
<td>0,000</td>
<td>0,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Establishment - Maintenance</td>
<td>-14,741</td>
<td>0,000</td>
<td>0,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exploration - Establishment</td>
<td>-13,709</td>
<td>0,000</td>
<td>0,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Own computations based on data from *Bilans kapitału ludzkiego 2013*

5. Time and Expenditure Spent on Training at Various Career Stages

Other indicators characterizing the involvement in the skills development at different career stages are the expenses and the time spent on training. These variables are metric in nature, so either ANOVA or its Kruskal-Wallis analogy are adequate techniques for detecting possible differences.

Quantile-quantile plots (Figure 5) and Kolmogorov-Smirnov test of normality (Table 7) are applied to data concerning the total personal expenditure on training during the last 12 months.

Figure 5. Quantile-Quantile plots for Total personal expenditure on training according to three career stages

Source: Own elaboration based on data from *Bilans kapitału ludzkiego 2013*

Table 7. Test of normality: Total personal expenditure on training (last 12 months)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stage</th>
<th>Kolmogorov-Smirnov statistic</th>
<th>p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Exploration</td>
<td>0,385</td>
<td>0,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Establishment</td>
<td>0,366</td>
<td>0,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maintenance</td>
<td>0,412</td>
<td>0,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Own computations based on data from *Bilans kapitału ludzkiego 2013*

Both quantile-quantile plots and test results indicate that the distributions of the expenses are not normal, so there is no rationale for performing classical analysis of variance. Kruskal-Wallis test is used instead. Its statistic equal to 14,978 with corresponding p-value 0,001 suggests that the null hypothesis of the same distribution of expenses across the three categories should be rejected. The results of pairwise comparisons (Table 8) reveal that the distributions of the expenses differ substantially between establishment and maintenance stages.

Table 8. Pairwise comparisons: Total personal expenditure on training (last 12 months)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pairs</th>
<th>Test statistic</th>
<th>p-value</th>
<th>Adjusted p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Exploration - Maintenance</td>
<td>1,433</td>
<td>0,152</td>
<td>0,456</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Establishment - Maintenance</td>
<td>3,830</td>
<td>0,000</td>
<td>0,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exploration - Establishment</td>
<td>-1,658</td>
<td>0,097</td>
<td>0,292</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Own computations based on data from *Bilans kapitału ludzkiego 2013*
Normal distribution assumptions are also not met in the case of the variable representing the time devoted to training in the last twelve months (see Figure 6 and Table 9).

**Figure 6.** Quantile-Quantile plots for *Number of hours devoted to training* according to three career stages

![Quantile-Quantile plots](image)

**Source:** Own elaboration based on data from *Bilans kapitału ludzkiego 2013*

**Table 9.** Test of normality: *Number of hours devoted to training* (last 12 months)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stage</th>
<th>Kolmogorov-Smirnov statistic</th>
<th>p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Exploration</td>
<td>0,244</td>
<td>0,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Establishment</td>
<td>0,263</td>
<td>0,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maintenance</td>
<td>0,285</td>
<td>0,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source:** Own computations based on data from *Bilans kapitału ludzkiego 2013*

Again, Kruskal-Wallis test based on ranks is applied to test the mean ranks of the number of hours spent on training. As the statistic is equal to 24,796 with corresponding p-value 0,000 null hypothesis is rejected meaning that the distribution of time is not the same across categories of career stages. Pairwise comparisons are given in Table 10.

**Table 10.** Pairwise comparisons: *Number of hours devoted to training* (last 12 months)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pairs</th>
<th>Test statistic</th>
<th>p-value</th>
<th>Adjusted p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Exploration - Maintenance</td>
<td>4,978</td>
<td>0,000</td>
<td>0,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Establishment - Maintenance</td>
<td>2,473</td>
<td>0,013</td>
<td>0,040</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exploration - Establishment</td>
<td>3,416</td>
<td>0,001</td>
<td>0,002</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source:** Own computations based on data from *Bilans kapitału ludzkiego 2013*

Pairwise comparisons lead to the conclusion that the time spent on learning varies considerably between the *exploration* and *maintenance* phases and between *exploration* and *establishment* stages. The pattern of educational behavior for the younger group is different than for the others.

6. Conclusions

The attitudes to lifelong learning activities as well as developing skills process are different across persons being at the three career stages. The patterns of association vary with particular variables. Nevertheless, the hypothesis of the same attitudes at all career phases was rejected in any considered case.

7. Acknowledgments

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References


Democracy Facing Complexity the Network Form of the Public Sphere

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Abstract

According to Friedland et al., „classical public sphere theory captures a particular dynamics of history, a point where reasonable discussion on politics is both possible and normative among certain groups“ (2006). While the functionalist approach was criticized by many, taking into account the powerful effects of the mass media system and impact on deliberation process, Habermas revised his theory (2006) and highlighted the centrality of the network at a number of levels, the increased complexity (multiple publics, increased fragmentation and privatisation of the opinion, the increased complexity and autonomy of political and economical systems) and „the loss of subsisitemic levels, increased flows of communication from below creating instability throughout of the entire system“. This instability is then related to the make sense processes, core meanings and semantic links that govern digital environments and the networks’ entelechy. In our research we used the grounded theory qualitative method (Glaser, Strauss in 1967, Strauss, 1987, Corbin, 1992), to create a model that identifies the main characteristics of the object of research (Babchuk, 1996). We aimed to analyze the representation of events on the political scene in the fall of 2013 and spring of 2014 as mapped by the most important political blogs in Romania. Currently, the research field is divided in terms of methodological strategy between two approaches: those who use this type of social network analysis in political science and sociology from a perspective focused on the study and relevance of content (categories, concepts, core meanings) and a second perspective, less interested in the relationships between nodes that form a network, focusing on what Newman (2003) characterizes as “large-scale statistical properties of graphs”. However, many networks cannot be adequately represented by random graphs and seem to have a very different distribution from other home network links.

Keywords: network, networked public sphere, complexity, network analysis, political blogs.

1. Introduction

Recent developments of the Internet and mobile networks (Facebook, Twitter, Instagram, etc.) have enabled users to create resources and share technological items, knowledge and ideas and to contribute to the setup and development of the web by incorporating the feedback in the new applications. The big impact of recent decades information technology and, especially, how the global development of blogger networks stimulate content development in the wider frame of social networks, in a society that develops rhizomatically around “space production” (Castells, 1999), are undeniable dimensions of contemporary network societies. Nowadays, content development no longer requires large budgets, and new technologies have reduced the influence of big players - media trusts owners - on access to a wide audience made up of users on different continents. According to Habermas

Since the public sphere is increasingly becoming integrated by networks of opinion formation, its structure is a prime case for studying the importance of networks to both social theory and communication theory (Habermas, 2006).

The transversalization of the various levels of networks, an issue addressed by van Dijk (2006)¹, allows for defining interactions between technology and the network society. According to him there are three main levels of networks. The first level corresponds to the practical sense of networking: individuals that create connections with family members, friends, acquaintances and colleagues. Currently, this level of growth is sustained and intensified by digital networks belonging to the Internet (e-mail) and mobile or fixed telephony. The second level is that of more structured relations within organizations. Individuals create all kinds of groups or collective agents, some of which are temporary and detached, while others are permanent and fixed (van Dijk, 2007, p. 26). All the contemporary groups have communication

¹ Jan Van Dijk, 2006, p. 20.
 niches represented by telecommunications networks and computers. According to Jan Van Dijk’s theory, the third level is that of societal relations. Individuals, groups, organizations form a society that is built based on discourse mediation and this applies to all subsystems of society. (Van Dijk, p. 20). But it had already been defined in the early 90s by Latour, Callon and Law in a way that gave rise to many controversies. In the actor- network theory, the authors focus on the interactions between human and non-human actors in the construction of current meanings, generating a new way of understanding the role of technology, that of actor of communication processes, not mere infrastructure or logistics of human communication. This approach is not without consequences, not just for the theory of the public sphere but also for the empirical contents that develop by embedding new media applications and multiplying knowledge. Thus, the Internet has prompted the emergence of global civil networks as an actor (Castells, 2008)), a product of the interdependencies of experts, activists and users in social movements. Habermas (2006) continues to define the public sphere issue in terms of self-regulation, media independence, and media system precisely to identify the weak links of the institutionalization of media theory, the paradigmatic framework of knowledge and deliberation. The implementation of web 2.0 has contributed massively to decentering the public sphere (Dayan, 2009, 2013) and has reduced the influence of media trusts changing to a large extent the patterns of public and political culture and communication by shifting the focus from the (public) show to the discussion forum (which is sensitive to micro-perception changes and values micro-politics and even the aesthetics of the Internet as participatory modes, action tanks) as well as to the incorporation of sociological knowledge into cutting-edge applications provided by the Internet. Studies on the decentering phenomenon reflect different epistemological positions and continue to involve difficult deliberations. The model that Daniel Dayan (2013) refers to is “the implicit model of a conversation between a given nation-state and the corresponding civil society, with central media connecting centers and peripheries”. He claims that: After having been structured for a long time in national terms and dominated by central television organizations, public spheres have grown in a number of directions, most of which involve a post-national dimension. According to Dayan this geography of centers and peripheries has been submitted to many waves of destabilization among which three directions being particularly significant: 1. The model of national television relativized from above by mega television networks offered to world audiences that are, in fact, nationally or regionally flexible (Al Jazeera, BBC World, TV5 Monde, CNN International, etc. ); 2. the national model relativized from below by new media and digital public spheres that subvert national space through decentered interactions described in terms of rhizomes, networks or capillarity; 3. the national model challenged by the multiplicity of centers catering to the same peripheries. It is challenged sideways (Dayan 2013) by “transnational” televisions that broadcast their programs across national borders that cater to immigrant populations and help in constructing or reconstructing spectral communities, disappeared/lost nations, forgotten empires, actual diasporas. Although Jürgen Habermas still continuing describes the manner in which the public sphere may rely on public institutions as sluices of public rationality under increased instability of the directivity of public sphere communication flows and implicitly impacts on institutional and public systems. In their analysis of Habermas’s supplement of the theory of the public sphere in “Between Facts and Norms” and “Political Communication in Media Society: Does Democracy Still Enjoy an Epistemic Dimension?” Friedland et al, highlighted his stance on “the centrality of the network at a number of levels” and “the loose/loss of subsistemic levels, increased flows of communication from below creating instability throughout the entire system”.

2. Blogosphere as Rhizomatic Public Sphere

Political blogosphere can be approached as public network sphere, a dynamic subsystem generated by the interdependencies among innovation, connectivity features and uses (practices) as modes of interaction among distant individuals in terms of microperception, micropolitics and "singularities in action" (Massumi, 2010). The emergence of semantic blog networks and forum activity strengthens both content creators’ autonomy from political, cultural elites and professional journalists. In this research we focused on:

- If and how the Romanian political blogosphere meets the requirements of a public sphere.
- If, how and by what elements blogs - as space resulting from intensifying interactions - are an extension / development of social and political identities in the online environment.
- How do motivations, choices and personal preferences relate to communication standards, how are they internalized, framed or modified by blogging?

Blogs, the related practice - blogging and the blogosphere, as space generated by interaction closely related to the other social networks, discussion forums, Facebook, Twitter and Linkedin, etc., reflect a shift of emphasis from the interconnected individual and self-generating log, as embodiments of the singularity of action (Massumi, Prost, Boucher, 2010), to aggregations focusing on content, "modes of speech" and nuclei of discussion which represent "action tanks"
grouped into semantic networks. On the one hand, blogs generate and develop as informal networks of opinion and the development of blogosphere is the result of integrating blogs into semantic networks, characteristics of the "interconnected public sphere", including connection modes common levels, interest groups, digital media hosting both discussion forums and online advertising, etc. being identifiable by the companies’ strategies of recruiting influential bloggers to make positive comments on their services and products, tutorials posted by companies to facilitate the use of their products and services, etc. One such example is the political blogosphere, as well as the institutional blog integrated into public relations, which resizes the communication strategies of certain organizations, institutions, systems, local national and transnational actors, the stake being the optimization of the public communication interface by use of platforms and online formats, this type of blog being linked to the evolution of public relations towards "cohesion and performance through communication" (Iacob, Cismaru, Pricopie, 2011) and, especially, the adoption of tactics to conceal asymmetries among actors in the digital environment, implicitly the adaptation of strategies taking into account the characteristics of this type of space. Globally, tensions among individuals interconnected in decentralized networks, as well as the integration in the range of influence of territorialismed systems as a set of institutions, public commitments and government strategies, provides an insight into the manner in which globalization processes shape social networks, public discourse and identification, but political and public affiliation and identity, in turn, are influenced by the language environment which reflects mentalities, social constraints as well as the continuous tension between the personal and the public sphere, i.e., we can relate to the Diaspora, but not in terms of the "resurrection of spectral communities and nations related media devices (the third type of destabilized public sphere mentioned by Dayan, but, in our opinion, as living forms of transnational political and public life related to flexible citizenship and transnational labor, business, study, marriage, tourism mobility, pilgrimages etc. Identities and their dimensions, such as role, class, gender, nationality, ethnic relations constantly establish connections as well as distinctions between individuals and society and influence behavior patterns, mentalities, thoughts, attitudes and feelings animated by network energy and the status of participant to debates as "modes of speech and action tanks". Social identity theorists argue that the society is a complex system of influences generated by interactions among individuals and that these are products, which, in turn, influence the social structures that they create (Burke, Stets, 2009, p. 3-4). The social relations network shapes real and virtual life as well as social imagined existence. People as social beings can belong to different social structures and cultural spaces being interconnected in a wide network of relatives and non-relatives, in very different ways, through different types of interdependencies. By this wide variety of social contacts people build their social life and constantly redefine their identities and interactions (Dijk, 2006, p. 156). The psychological dimension (exposure/dissimulation of the self through authentic as well as fictional identities) must be related to the emergence of modes of speech and participation in the network that change the empirical contents of constructivist anthropology, both the capturing of transformations through the gentrification binomial vs. the "common horizon" and the centrality of the network form being necessary to capture precisely the mobility, energy, "cross-" features and "autonomy from space" of interactions. In "Nomadology-The War Machine" (1986), Deleuze and Guattari talk about the social space generated, to a greater extent, by multiplying interactions than by pre-existing, fixed conventions and arrangements, and propose an ethics of creativity and resistance, an ethics of imperceptible becoming through strategies of continuous invention of "arms", movement. Against this background, the philosopher Brian Massumi (who translated the works of the two authors into English) has developed an approach of the Internet that he defines as aesthetics, microperception and micropolitics, in which each member, as a singularity of action provides a creative answer to the need to come together (Massumi, 2010), the success being ensured by reciprocity and trust. The development of recent decades information and communication technologies has led to changes both at the personal and the social life level as a result of their increasingly wider scale use, attracting members of different social and professional groups without a clear geographical boundaries (Giddens, 1984) leading to the emergence of a new model and new forms of social interaction, not only at the general public level but also in the government and corporate area.

3. Network Energy as Multiplying Effect

The design and technological innovation incorporated into networks and their uses have contributed to the intensification of the exchange of information and multiplication of social networks. This phenomenon defined as entelechy (Latour, 2005), is more than a movement of social capital across physical and intellectual borders, and more than an information and knowledge economy, being a micropolitics fueled by the energy of flows that releases the power of communicative reflexivity at the inter-subjective level (sharing of values, creating solidarity, participation in the deliberative (de)legitimization of policy, awareness of local and global challenges, etc.) as well as a capacity to influence political and economic decision which may counter-balance, to some extent, the action of macro level steering factors. Social
networks energy is fueled by reciprocity and participation as a ways of transformation and feedback in the process of continuous adaptation to the successive changes of the new economic environment as against the gentrification of offline contexts. In view of these issues, our research starts from the assumption that the revolutionizing of the current social life dynamics is the effect of the virtual space interaction of large groups made up of people meeting by chance through blogs generated by online platforms (Lowrey, u. a., 2011). Blogs as "signs of participation" and "action tanks" affect public opinion networks by intensifying exchange of information and social meaning assignment/ construction processes, but the interaction between blog creators and users can produce effects not only at the level of life and professional experience, but also by pressure and change at the political and public level, including in government sciences.

4. Methodological Framework

Grounded theory is an inductive method which seeks to generate a theory starting from a data corpus, based on plausible relationships among concepts and sets of concepts. This method was chosen because it is a qualitative manner of developing a theory through a "systematic process that highlights the significance of concepts and their correlation at content level", and therefore it addresses the formation of a network around a space development (blogosphere) which is also a development of meaning depending on micro-perception and the distribution of knowledge (information, concepts, meanings assigned to events in the processes of interaction) in which both human (bloggers) and non -human actors (traffic data analysis software, search engines, databases, bloglinks, blogosphere) participate, technologies being considered by Sebeok - in "An Introduction to Semiotics" extensions of the living-result of intelligence and, as such, included by him in the creation of signs (Sebeok 2008). The generation and development of concepts, categories and suggestions is a process that can underlie a future quantitative study. The starting point of the investigation in this research methodology is the study of a corpus of texts and the identification of variables, called categories, concepts, properties. Furthermore, it is an inductive method, starting from the study of the phenomenon it represents, in our case the dissemination of information on political events and their reception by Romanian bloggers. Researchers who use this methodology are interested in the modes of action and interaction of different types of categories, concepts, properties. The ability to label these variables and the relationships among them is termed 'theoretical sensitivity'. This has important consequences for the political effects of the blogosphere. We thus start from the following assumptions about the political blogosphere as "network public sphere":

- If different distributions of the links between nodes are associated with different forms and levels of participation and political efficacy. In particular, as we have tried to argue,
- If, to the extent that the links distribution is preferential (reflecting an intention to influence) there appear important consequences for the manner in which blogosphere affects politics (Davies, 2013)
  More precisely, many networks seem to have asymmetric distributions where most nodes have a relatively small number of links, but a small number of nodes have a disproportionately large number of links. In such networks, the best linked nodes will have a much larger number of links than the less well connected nodes.
  The distribution of influence power is particularly likely to be found in growing networks in which:
- If nodes that already have a large number of links are more likely to receive links to new nodes than nodes that have few such links.

In such networks, the initial advantages are the dissemination of information through nodes rich in links and are likely to become richer in time, generating a distribution of the power to influence relations by participants. This hypothesis was tested by other researchers as well. If web pages are more likely to link to other websites that already have a relatively large number of links (Barabási 2000; Adamic and Huberman 1999, Hindman et al. 2003) therefore based on the number of links. The nodes were also analyzed from a techno-operational perspective by Gene Amdahl as early as the 60s, assigning nodes a role in the aggregation of networks that had not previously had contact, the aggregation allowing for the "parallel processing" of information and generation of new nodes ( Amdahl, AFIPS Computer Conference, 1967). By the large number of preferential links (blogroll and links in messages) nodes (authors, but also web pages with a large number of links) networks develop a capacity for parallel processing of information around the nuclei of meaning. But the reaction too plays a significant role in the redistribution of the power to influence that bloggers have to shape a/an (op)position in the public network sphere and in real political life (see also the Tea Party movement in the US). Compared to offline networks, bloggers have the advantage of a first mover in formulating opinions (an advantage previously belonging exclusively to the media). Another comparative advantage of blogs in political discourse is their low cost of real-time publishing. Immediately after an event of great interest, be it for a presidential political debate, a terrorist attack or a major policy initiative, bloggers can post their reactions right away. (Kahn, Kellner, 2005). This analysis, which identifies labels, categorizes and describes the phenomena and properties mentioned in the text,
includes: a) open coding, following which code files that can then be used in reports are created; b) axial coding, identifying causal links between different codes, categories, properties; c) selective coding, which sets a category as the central group, and all other categories relate to this basic category. (Strauss, Corbin, 1990). By generating codes, we grouped the concepts in the corpus consisting of entries from 30 blogs around the online community response to political events, especially political campaign. Using open coding, we aimed to describe the blogosphere on the three major areas: the European Parliament elections, the ruling coalition, the president elections- by setting attributes and actions that are taken from posts concerning these events. In this process initial data were collected from each category of documents, they were analyzed, the codes were then selected according to their relevance in the main document. Thus we moved from the source text to a qualitative analysis. This process helped in determining the relevant categories, namely those with the highest number of occurrences in the analyzed unit. A computer assisted research program was used, more precisely Atlas. ti, several stages of data processing being followed. According to Keren (2006): 1) original texts relevant to the virtual community regarding the existence of an online representation of political events were processed. After selecting the documents, 2) specific coding procedures were used in data analysis. The following categories were identified through the process of open coding. 3) indicators of political events perception in the virtual environment were established based on the text. 4) linking the relevant categories that appear frequently in the text have formulated conclusions.

5. Interest for Political Information

In choosing the corpus we selected Romanian political blogs, according to how they define their interests and how websites and search engines (browsers) select them as relevant for accessing information on political events in Romania. Additionally, we used blogroll, a nexus of links and references (preferential and cross references) that the blogs chosen make to each other, thus making up an online information dissemination node. Despite some limitations, there is agreement on the direction of evolution of blogs, the fact that they play an increasingly important role as a forum for public debate, which has consequences for media, political life and governing. Given the differences in resources and organization compared to other public sphere actors, the question arises: When and how can bloggers exert an influence on political results and political life?

Perhaps the most important difference between blogs and media is determined by the fact that blogs are network phenomena based on hyperlinks, links between blogs. The links between blogs take two forms. First, many bloggers have a permanent "blogroll" on their website; a list of blogs they read frequently and, especially, they admire, having common interests, with links to the general URLs of those blogs (e. g. , with links to the homepage of the blog ). Secondly, bloggers can write special messages containing links to other blogs. Unlike the blogroll links, links in messages will move from the first page and will be archived as new messages replace old ones in time. Usually, such messages link directly to a specific post (posted content), on another blog (rather than the general URL of the blog), and may also provide some comments on the posted content. The public nature of the blogosphere is generated, on the one hand, by links and page views that are the trading currency of the blogosphere and, on the other hand, Blood (2002, p. 98) suggests that "the most reliable way to get traffic [in readers] is by a link from another blog. " This follows from the nature of hypertext and users' choices. When a blog adds a link to another blog, the former blog readers of are more likely to read an article by simply clicking a hyperlink than if it's absent. If they like what they have read, they can even become loyal readers of the second blog. (Highfield u. a., 2011). Thus, bloggers are very interested in discovering other blogs which link to their own blogs and can discover such blogs through a variety of means. These include: (1) traffic data analysis, (2) general search engines, e. g. Google (http: //www. google. com), (3) databases searched by bloglinks, such as Technorati (http: //www. technorati. com), (4) the Ecosystem blogosphere (http: //www. truthlaidbear/ ecosystem. php). We can note the active / participatory behavior of bloggers in the use of new media, both as authors and as mediators - linking agents, and communicative influence by cognitively affecting the network - conceptual sensitivity.

6. Identification of Nuclei of Discussion

We have analyzed the blogosphere in Romanian to discover networks of discussion around areas of Romanian politics and public issues. Starting with an initial set of over 25,000 blogs, using the empirically grounded theory method in the content analysis of social networks to identify a very active "nucleus of discussion" of 100 blogs. They were grouped according to their activity, the number of citations and posts, and the resulting segmentation is characterized both by automated analysis and by a strong human content. The main findings on the combination of these two features point to the concept of "system of preferential attachments" (Sola-Price, 1976), as follows:

7. Development of Axial Categories (The Funnel Model)

Kathy Charmaz compares the grounded theory model with a funnel: in spite of the different forms of the main documents, the modeling process based on coding prevents data loss, and selecting categories according to their relevance in the text acts as a funnel that allows for the fractionation in small sections, turning the primary text into codes and small units that are easier to manage. (Silverman, 2013). In the funnel process of conceptualizing we identified the nodes in the space of political discussion by "settlements" and "neighborhoods" as "preferential attachment systems" (Price, 1976). The random interactions hypothesis underlying objective science - as social physics based the critical mass of data – has no explanatory relevance for political blogosphere which develops around "nuclei of discussion" i.e. a complex system of influences. Thus, codes developed in the first step were filtered by the development of axial categories, according to their relevance in the primary document (e.g. the frequency of the executive conflict, manipulation, political agenda phrases). Comparing the indicators proposed for measuring and presenting the daily political events in Romanian blogosphere, we

can say that "mistrust in the political class" is a standard of speech in the digital space in that bloggers, regardless of their political affiliation (liberals, right-wing socialists . . .), believe that political events giving rise to debates are often ways to manipulate public opinion and means of achieving a political agenda that do not generally reflect the general interest, but a short-term interest, that of winning the elections. These entries in the digital space of Romanian political environment could be assigned to the network public sphere impacting on the shaping of public opinion in that they have thousands of views and are considered a benchmark for undisputed information. Code selection (Keywords) was done according to the high frequency of occurrence in the text. Membership relations of codes arise from comparing the relevant categories, validating their membership in the category of political event indicators. 3 Metacodes - for example, highlighting conflicts, mistrust in politicians, the relationships with blogs determining political activism, the share of the same posts by other bloggers with similar opinions - were subsequently used to classify the entry corpus by their addition. In the next section, we could see later that these codes are grouped by the frequency of citation in the original text around the concept of "mistrust in political actors", which the indication of the means of political manipulation plays a central role. Data analysis shows that the presentation of political events is associated with sharing of everyday events in terms of a deficient political agenda, and indicates disappointment and mistrust in the Romanian political class. Political involvement, interest in politics and a future electoral event, constantly affect the visibility and influence of blogs. Both electoral interest and political involvement are significant and positive indicators for the interest in political blogs. However, objective presentation of information, in the style of formal media, is not as popular as presentation of personal opinions on the political event presented. Political involvement of the virtual environment has increased greatly since blogs are classified as credible sources of information. Instead, Internet users interested in politics seek and rapidly form a selection of blogs with similar interests and views. Blogs allow for the presentation of recent events, often bring viewpoints of specific interest to their users. The codes cited for the area "strategies of majority insurance" can develop into sub-categories such as "violations of constitutional provisions, international influence, regional interests, public interest, political games". Here, other codes such as "political ability, but also political abuse", "political discourse" play an important role in establishing the importance of this criterion. The central topic is the "part - whole" relationship through the "political agenda" and "political speech" categories, the relations between the codes revealing the logics resulting from the integration of categories addressing the political crisis rhetorically highlighted by electoral campaign speeches. Previous research indicated that, while readers expect traditional media to maintain the honesty and balance standards (Metzger et al, 2013), these expectations do not extend to the blogosphere (Bruns, 2006; Lasica, 2002). In fact, blog supporters see any deviation from neutrality as an advantage that allows for a more detailed and in-depth examination of problems. It may also suggest that blog readers are attracted to sites that share their views and therefore have a potential polarization effect. We assigned metacodes to groups of topics (for example, reasons which prompted the description of a particular subject, their presentation in the social context, their relation to the target audience of the blog, similarities / differences between the presentation of an event on different political blogs, the sense of solidarity, asserting individualism, asserting mistrust in state policy), which has facilitated the analysis of posts.

The sharing of political events by blogs proved to be politically relevant being strongly influenced by a body of elements that define user behavior: a) trust in blogs, b) political involvement, c) political knowledge, d) readers' political interest. The research has identified the mediating role of the blog author (owner). According to Latour, the role of mediator in the digital network is distinct from that of intermediary.

3 political ability, abuse, international actors, political agenda, elections, America, electoral campaign, independent candidates, ruling coalition, executive conflict, corruption, determining culpability, democracy, political abuse, disappointment, political discourse, ignorance, violations of constitutional provisions, international influence, regional interests, public interest, political games, lack of mobilization, political dispute, majority, manipulation, media manipulation, manipulation of state institutions, mistrust, dishonesty, political opportunism, opposition, voter passivity, President-Government, economic problems, radicalization, corrupt system, resentments, responsibility, risks, Russia, weak political power, polls, rule of law, strategies of majority insurance, EU, voters.
Figure 1. Representation of political phenomena in blogosphere

If the intermediary merely shares and disseminates information, and, therefore, generates forces that he/she is not interested in, the mediator is an entity that produces and determines differences. The blog owner falls into the second category. Thus, political events are shared preferentially by bloggers, particularly according to their affiliation and political involvement, but once shared they can influence their readers’ opinions and decisions. Media studies suggest that the public can judge news based on its knowledge as biased and therefore will judge its content as less credible (Arpan & Raney, 2003; Gunther & Liebhart, 2006; Gunther & Schmitt, 2004).

8. Conclusions

The Romanian network is largely made up of blogs that are not based on selling advertising space. These hybrid platforms or social networking systems ("SNS") combine typical features of open blog platforms (e.g., Blogspot, Wordpress), with some features of closed social networking services (e.g., Facebook, MySpace). Romanian-language blogosphere is dominated by four such SNS hybrids (blog.ro, wordpress, blog.mail.ro and LiveJournal). The online information consumption of Romanian bloggers is more independent, mainly internationally and animated by an oppositional spirit than most Internet users in Romania and far more than most users of traditional media means, based on private television channels, which are often associated with a certain political ideology. Political involvement, interest in politics and a future electoral event constantly affect the visibility and influence of blogs. Political involvement of the virtual environment has increased greatly since blogs are classified as credible sources of information. Electoral interest and political involvement are significant and positive indicators for the interest in political blogs. Internet users interested in politics seek and rapidly form a selection of logs with similar interests and views. While readers expect traditional media to maintain the honesty and balance standards (Metzger et al., 2003), these expectations do not extend to the blogosphere (Bruns, 2006; Lasica, 2002). In fact, blog supporters see any deviation from neutrality as an advantage that

4 cf. ATLAS.ti Alternatives and Similar Software - AlternativeTo.net (alternativeto.net/software/atlasti/); http://www.zelist.ro/monitor/
allows for a more detailed and in-depth examination of problems. It may also suggest that blog readers are attracted to sites that share their views and therefore have a potential bias effect. The analysis results confirm the hypothesis that Romanian political blogosphere - a macro phenomenon resulting from the dynamics of online connecting behaviors develops as a public social network sphere maintaining elements of continuity between the real and the virtual as well as between the communication modes and genres which it nevertheless continually transforms.

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The Necessity of Using Foreign Capital in the Croatian Economy

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Abstract

Croatia, like most developing countries, is facing a shortage of capital for its economic development. Acceptance of foreign capital in the national economy should be regulated by legislative and economic regulations that would allow its unobstructed acceptance. In this process, it should be taken into account that investments should be pointed in the most favourable direction in order to encourage social development, but also ensure profit to potential investors. Foreign capital in the Croatian economy can operate in several directions: as international public capital, capital of international institutions, state capital, private capital, while in practice, there are also other forms of capital. In the present social moment, in terms of economic and legal insecurity in the country and high level of corruption, serious foreign public and private capital primarily shows interest in investing in major infrastructure facilities such as roads, ports, tourist facilities, and other facilities, and seeks to provide direct protection of the state. Croatian businessmen at lower levels of development as well as various entrepreneurs who would like to incorporate foreign capital in their business activities should make sure to use this capital in the realisation of the planned social development, and avoid foreign venture capital in the process. They should primarily demand legislation from the state that would provide them with legal and financial security of their investments. Investment experts recommend services of internationally acclaimed and reputable businesses that should be used to make investments in the country.

Keywords: foreign capital, investment, economy, development

1. Introduction

The economic system of the Republic of Croatia operates in the environment of Central European transition countries that orient their economic development towards the open and free social market economic system of the Western type. Within this system works an adequate system of property relations, entrepreneurial management, economic and political democracy, the rule of law and a certain level of social protection and human rights. Presently, Croatia is an European Member State, and it also needs to be fairly and effectively involved in European and global economic trends. Successful achievement of the above-mentioned requirement and the necessity to encourage such transformation processes would regulate internal relations in all segments and activities in the Croatian society, with special attention devoted to property, market, entrepreneurial management, organisation and management of business and other entities. In order to achieve such great economic and political changes in the country, it is necessary to acquire the appropriate modern knowledge, abilities, and skills, develop entrepreneurial spirit, innovativeness, all of which is included in human capital development, and particularly bring into the country new, fresh financial capital. At the time of property transformation and privatisation, there was a slightly better situation with large infrastructural government systems, where large-scale foreign investors appeared as buyers or investors, investing their capital into certain facilities or attempting to gain the majority of shares in all the systems such as banks, highways, insurance, etc. Of all the investments, 57.9 per cent occur in the private sector, and 26.6 per cent in the government sector.

The main hypothesis: Further development of the Croatian economy should be based on the belief that, along with all the forms of domestic capital, foreign capital is also necessary for future development of the country. PH1: Croatian economic development, according to all the relevant plans and indicators, is based on such viewpoints, and future strategic objectives are necessarily linked with an increase in material well-being of Croatian citizens, their material and spiritual wealth and quality of life. PH2: The realisation of these objectives should depend on successful management of
natural, technical, and human resources, i.e. economic and social efficiency of national economic operators, all of which affects the development of the national economy as a whole. The objective of this paper is to point to the necessity for a high level of transformation in the field of engineering, technology, organisation, management methods, but also the entire economic structure and structure of employees, with special attention devoted to entrepreneurial and managerial staff. All of this can be very effectively achieved by using foreign knowledge, techniques, technology, and capital. The scientific contribution is reflected in the development of scientific thought about the importance of changes in the social and economic environment of the country, but without the creative acceptance of useful global achievements from developed countries, one cannot be equally and effectively engaged in global economic trends or European economic and political integrations. Membership in the European integrations can significantly contribute to development of Croatian economy, but only to the level at which we are trained to use these achievements. Scientific methods used in this paper are methods of systematic analysis, dialectical and logical method, mostly in the combination inductive-deductive and vice versa, deductive-inductive. Quantitative and qualitative methods were used with methods of comparison of spatial and temporal characteristics.

2. Social Development and Foreign Investments

Along with evident development processes and economic transformation and restructuring of the country, it was soon noted that further development of the Croatian economy would not be able to continue without extra capital. Since extra capital from domestic sources is presently insufficient, it is necessary to enable free access of foreign capital to the country. In order to do this without causing major economic shocks, legislation should be used to achieve economic relations in the country that would enable majority control of domestic population over the capital. This is especially important in the segment of land ownership where a small country of this size can, part by part, be bought by any large multinational company. Its population can be moved out under different excuses and national demography can thus be changed. Unfortunately, domestic population in these areas has very bad experiences with foreign investors and investments of this type. Current experiences of other transition, underdeveloped or colonial countries indicate that foreign capital primarily aims to gain its own profit regardless of future consequences for the country they invest in. In this regard, owners of foreign capital in the recipient country should be controlled by legislation, and any kind of illegal behaviour should be prevented. In this way, their capital interest would be in line with domestic interests in the long run.

When foreign capital enters Croatia, one should bear in mind to ensure that economic ratio with domestic source of capital remains undisturbed, and attention should especially be devoted to quality distribution of social costs and tax obligations. The use of contemporary technical and technological solutions should be encouraged, as well marketing, and effective appearance at the global market. Foreign investments should be used in joint investments based on a well-designed national developmental economic policy. When foreign capital is invested in economic facilities, national investment should be estimated realistically. Price and location of the land are very important. Land ownership as an investment should, as a rule, stay in domestic ownership. This particularly refers to top quality agricultural continental land, while coastal, riverbank, and seashore land should not be sold, but rather rented for a short or long period of time. In this process, the use of the land and economic facilities should be conditioned by application of the most contemporary technological know-how, including the obligation to implement environmental protection (Aćimović, 1987). This could be achieved by using an adequate system of mortgage loans that would be applied in the economic activities. In this process, Croatian owners of capital who work and reside abroad should also be included in the system.

State capital, that needs to be legally defined, plays a very important role in Croatia. In the earlier economic system, state capital had operated in all segments of economic life in the country, while investments were exclusively under government control. Nowadays, in the age of neo-liberalism, the market system forces the creators of economic policy in the country to turn public companies into private enterprises, while the state should create a legal framework for such a transformation.

According to recent experiences in the majority of transition Member States, the government will remain the leading investor for a long time, as well as manager in some infrastructural industries of importance for the state. However, this should not be tolerated for too long, and conditions should be created for approaching private capital that must operate under government control, because it cannot be allowed that citizens are encroached due to various misunderstandings among owners of the capital. Refinancing is an important developmental factor in the economic system of any country. The refinancing system in Croatian economic systems, in the manner in which they have been used until now, should undergo significant changes. The effects achieved in the economic field in Croatia by refinancing point to the fact that refinancing has not been efficiently used in the sense of using extra capital, whether domestic or foreign, which would be used for national technical, technological, organisational or managerial adjustment of the existing.
economic system. The original idea was to use for this purpose the capital obtained by selling the shares in the process of sub-shareholding of former social companies. The gained capital soon disappeared in various embezzlements of leading governmental structures.

All things considered, there is no great quantity of free capital in Croatia that could be used to enter larger economic transformations and investments. Also, foreign debts are substantial and there is no real opportunity for increasing government debts, without causing a large-scale economic crisis.

For making investments in the national economy, one should realistically consider the capital of Croatian citizens working abroad. According to statements of the financial bodies of the countries in which Croatian citizens are living and working, this capital is quite large and it is estimated to tens of billions of dollars.

When we analyse the latest experiences with the redemption of shares of certain large companies, except those that had a monopoly at the market and were protected by the state, they were not particularly stimulating. After they had bought the shares of such companies, they went bankrupt, and shareholders lost their invested funds. The current situation on the capital market, as well as new trends, indicate that foreign and domestic owners of capital would be more inclined to buy certain smaller enterprises and take full control over their business activities, than invest into shares, with which persons who are sometimes connected with organised crime would trade at the market.

An important role in Croatian economic development should belong to owners of small capital, primarily Croatian citizens who gained their capital abroad, and who could invest their capital in small and medium-sized enterprises. These enterprises could become a new foundation on which one could revive weary economic flows that were oriented for years towards government bodies and had political influence on them.

All things considered, foreign and domestic investments should be directed to follow the trend of total economic development along with efficient government protection, but also assistance of financial institutions that should provide capital investors with certain benefits and guarantees that are common in the countries of developed market economies. These would be: tax and customs benefits, reduction of taxes and employee contributions, solving of insolvency, limitation of legal proceedings duration, reduction of administration, possibility of fast transfer of profit, use of different types of mortgages, etc. Most importantly, legal and economic factors should be created that would provide equal chances to everyone in the economic competition. In this process, competitive relations should be created in which the realised profit would not lag behind other, neighbouring competitive countries (Vizjak 1995, 227).

3. Adjustment of the National Market to Foreign Investments

For correct, effective, and safe investment of capital, the national market should be well-organised, and one should think about the effects of the investment on certain segments of the society. A point of consideration is also operation of some important market factors, because their timely synchronisation is important for improved access of domestic and foreign capital to the country’s economic structure. Successful economic market activities of Western type depend on successful overcoming of various legal or economic barriers at the national market. When adjustment in the market area is taken into consideration, in order to accept domestic or foreign investments, the idea is to establish and develop a complex national market with all its constituent parts. This is not only the market of goods and services; this system should, except labour and services, also include capital and knowledge, as well as all their sub-systems. In this way, a market would be created that would be open to the maximum, and operating enterprises could at all times obtain all the necessary factors, production and business inputs, and use entire, but fair competition, and place their products and services – outputs – into any other country at the foreign market (Ostojić 1996, 67.). In order to achieve comprehensive adjustment processes in the national market, and to enable successful acceptance of capital investments, there are many limitations in practice resulting from the application of certain adjustment operations, when underdeveloped marketing culture or wrong economic moves become visible, by those in charge of designing applicable operating systems. According to data by the Financial Agency, 733 industrial enterprises in foreign ownership pay average net wage of KN 5477, while the average wage in 10,826 domestic industrial enterprises is, on average, lesser by as much as KN 1066, which means that a foreigner is a more desirable employer. Out of 48 state companies, 36 gained profit, while 12 suffered loss in the amount of KN 1064 billion. The greatest winners are HEP, HKZP, Plinacro, ARZ, Hrvatske šume, and the greatest losers are HPB, Petrokemija, Croatia osiguranje, HŽ Cargo, Duro Daković. From January until September of 2014, there was a total of KN 6336 billion of investments, which is 16,1 or one sixth less than in the same period 2014. As much as 47 per cent of investments in state companies were in the following three: HEP, in the amount of KN 1,15 billion, INA with KN 1,08 billion and Hrvatske vode with KN 751,9 billion (Jutarnji list, January of 2015). Some entities in charge of designing economic strategies often present market systems from the period when capital development was at a lower level, or its liberal, a bit more developed stage, which causes resistance and fear of the users of the system. At the same time, quite
a few businessmen learnt some important different and more humane characteristics of the modern, developed Western market through their co-operation with foreign countries. Many of the so-called experts think that foreign experiences can easily be integrated into the Croatian economic system, using government’s force. This is why users of the national economic system are facing unnecessary dilemmas. Therefore, one should get well-acquainted with foreign economic conditions and practice, and think about which one of them would have the best effect in Croatian practice in the given time and space.

4. Foreign Capital as Stimulation to Development of the Croatian Economy

Given that Croatia was one of the most developed republics in the former state, that reached a high level of economic co-operation with foreign countries, needs for new capital investments from abroad were treated as a normal economic occurrence. When Croatia became independent, the necessary legislation was adopted at expedited proceedings which specified the conditions of entrance of foreign capital to Croatia. Owners of foreign capital became equal with domestic owners. In this process, the rule “everything that is not specifically forbidden is allowed” was applied. However, the established legislation was not accompanied by other conditions that would in practice regulate the inflow and the manner of operation of foreign capital in the country. It soon became evident that the legislation was superficial and incomplete; various “businessmen” from abroad or from Croatia, in agreement with the highest state officials without capital of their own, bought everything of any value in the country.

Some time later, Croatia started opening itself towards Europe and the rest of the world, and foreign capital of a more “decent” kind started showing interest in making investments in the country. Soon, the first results started showing at the international market with strong attempts to make up the lost time. This is when attention started to be devoted to the need to define foreign capital according to possible forms and sources, its allocation, way of co-operation, and all other factors in order to stimulate faster development of the Croatian economy. There is an estimate of the European Commission that this year in Croatia, there will be good business opportunities, because in the next 3 years economy will be stimulated by investments higher than EUR 300 million, which will result in opening of 1.3 million of new workplaces in the framework of the great Juncker’s Recovery Plan (Jutarnji list 23.2.2015). In the scope of the Juncker’s plan, Croatia proposed 68 projects in the value of EUR 19.3 billion, from which 24 were adopted in the value of EUR 9 billion as the ones that should be realised with the help of private initiatives. So far, Croatia has signed contracts for projects worth EUR 900 million from the offered EUR 1.2 billion from the EU funds, while EUR 500 million have been realised. Until February 2015, the announced signed contracts are worth KN 5 billion, and until the end of the year, more then KN 10 billion (Jutarnji list 02.12.2014). The most significant projects are LNG terminal in Omišalj (supported by both EU and Washington), the Adriatic-Ionian pipeline, portable power system, the E-schools project, ICT and broadband projects, hydropower plant Kosinj, thermo power plant Plomin C, Zagreb upon Sava (EC, Croatian government). The list also includes investments related to road, rail and air traffic, state-owned companies in the water industry, and HEP (Novi list 01.12.2014.).

5. Foreign Investments in the Croatian Economy

Modern Croatian economy accepts all of the above-mentioned forms and sources of foreign capital. In the long run, the most favourable would be loan capital, i.e. interest-based or investment, i.e. profit-making capital. Strong development of the securities market in Croatia leads to a greater inflow of portfolio capital.

Special attention should be devoted to the human capital necessary for social development of Croatia. Great social and economic processes, changes and transitions are not a coincidence, but a result of interactive development of nature, and human scientific activities (Pulić and Sundač 2001,5). Croatia has many educated employees and staff members, which is a large development potential; however, their knowledge and skills are partly outdated, especially from the aspect of contemporary needs and demands of market economy. Sometimes, there is also a need to import entrepreneurial-managerial human capital that should increase the level of domestic education in co-operation with the domestic capital. Society members who are not highly educated, but rich in honesty, good will, kindness and integrity, could also contribute to the creation of a society of well-being. (Zelenika 2007, 195). We need as many distinguished, talented and hard-working students in faculties as possible, and direct the already employed to life-long learning and training courses abroad. This especially relates to scientists and top managers.

From 1993 to 2006, about EUR 13,2 billion was invested in various parts of the Croatian economic system, and the majority of foreign capital preferred the financial part of the economy, in which about EUR 3,3 billion was invested (Buletin of the Croatian National Bank, 2006). From 1993 to 2000, about USD 4,5 billion of foreign investments were made in
Croatia. In this mass of investments, of about USD 3.6 billion, about 80 per cent or USD 669.2 million refer to equity investments, while about five per cent, or USD 243.6 million was transferred to the level of retained profit (Buletin of the Croatian National Bank, 2006). During 1998, USD 626 million was invested in Croatia, and the highest portion of investments related to investments by foreign companies operating in Croatia. The greatest inflow of foreign investments was realised in 1999, and amounted USD 1.2 billion. It originated from the first round of privatisation of HT shares. The second round of privatisation of HT was not realised in 2000, for reasons of which the inflow of foreign investments was a bit weaker than expected. In this year, the majority of Croatian banks were transferred into the ownership of foreigners. PBZ and Splitska banka were sold to the Italians, and Riječka banka was sold to Germans. Foreign investments of that time went into several economic activities. About 65 per cent of the total investment amount was invested in three economic activities; 24 per cent in telecommunications, 21 per cent in monetary business activities, and 20 per cent in the pharmaceutical industry. Except in these activities, foreign investments were made into the oil and gas industry, which was a result of the co-operation of INA and AGIP in the Adriatic, while the rest was invested in the cement industry. According to these data, it is evident that most investments were made in the production and not in the trade industry, as was advocated by the majority of economists. Only about 4-4.5 per cent of total investments were made in the trade industry. All other investments were made in other industries such as production of building material (1.9 per cent), industrial gases (1.4 per cent), production of beer (1.3 per cent), non-alcoholic beverages (1.3 per cent), production of radio, TV and telephone devices (1.2 per cent), sanitary ceramics (1.2 per cent). The biggest foreign investors of the time were the USA with USD 1.11 billion, Germany with USD 1.06 billion, Austria with USD 890.2 billion, and Italy and Holland (Babić, 2001.).

Current experience in business activities with foreign capital indicates its interest in investing in large infrastructure facilities under direct protection of the government, such as roads, financial institutions, insurances, energy potentials, and other large facilities of wider European interest. Table 1 and Chart 1 show foreign investments in the Croatian economy.

Table 1. Foreign Investments in Croatia from 1993-2014 (in mil EUR)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Equity Investments</th>
<th>Debt Instruments</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>In direct investment company</td>
<td>In direct investor (converse investment)</td>
<td>Between horizontally associated companies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1993</td>
<td>15.2</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1994</td>
<td>5.7</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1995</td>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1996</td>
<td>20.7</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1997</td>
<td>161.7</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1998</td>
<td>69.9</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1999</td>
<td>59.7</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>37.6</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>123.8</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>592.7</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003</td>
<td>70.2</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>94.1</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>57.4</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006</td>
<td>143.6</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007</td>
<td>144.9</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2008</td>
<td>943.8</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2009</td>
<td>1.030.2</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>-264.3</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011</td>
<td>182.4</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012</td>
<td>148.4</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2013</td>
<td>96.6</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1,2, i 3.tr. 2014</td>
<td>1.590.8</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>5.330.6</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chart 1. Direct Foreign Investments in Millions of KN 2004 – 2012


Foreign capital is oriented towards parts of the economy that represent a specific Croatian advantage. Besides, private foreign capital is interested in parts of the economy in which medium complex technology is applied. Analysis of investments according to investors’ countries shows that, traditionally, the biggest investors in the Croatian economy come from Austria and Germany, while the most recent investments were made by France, which invested over a billion euros in Croatia. Table 2 shows foreign direct investments in Croatia according to activities, and Table 3 foreign direct investments in the industry.

Table 2. Foreign Direct Investments in Croatia According to Activities, in Millions KN

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NCA 2002</th>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>Total foreign direct investments</th>
<th>Total investments 2004 - 2012</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>65</td>
<td>Financial mediation, except insurance and pension funds</td>
<td>45.648,3</td>
<td>132,647,3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51</td>
<td>Wholesale and mediation in trade</td>
<td>17.151,4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>70</td>
<td>Real-estate business</td>
<td>10.810,3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>74</td>
<td>Other businesses</td>
<td>9.420,1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>Production of coke, refined petroleum products and nuclear fuel</td>
<td>9.119,1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>52</td>
<td>Retail, repairs of household utilities</td>
<td>7.362,2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>Equity investment in real estate</td>
<td>5.317,6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Oil and gas drilling, service industries</td>
<td>3.408,6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55</td>
<td>Hotels and restaurants</td>
<td>2.844,8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>66</td>
<td>Insurance and pension funds, except obligatory insurance</td>
<td>2.347,2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>92</td>
<td>Recreational, cultural and sports activities</td>
<td>1.989,4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Production of food and beverages</td>
<td>1.194,9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41</td>
<td>Collection, purification and distribution of water</td>
<td>1.626,0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50</td>
<td>Trade of motor vehicles, repair of motor vehicles</td>
<td>1.119,8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Croatian National Bank. Available at: www.hnb.hr, accessed in January of 2015

Table 3. Foreign Direct Investments in the Croatian Industry (mil EUR)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Production of coke, refined petroleum products and nuclear fuel</td>
<td>110.6</td>
<td>-0.7</td>
<td>68.7</td>
<td>12.9</td>
<td>-119.6</td>
<td>15.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Production of chemicals and chemical products</td>
<td>-18.7</td>
<td>-440.7</td>
<td>244.1</td>
<td>-46.1</td>
<td>30.2</td>
<td>29.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Production of other non-material mineral products</td>
<td>11.5</td>
<td>-56.7</td>
<td>56.5</td>
<td>-6.7</td>
<td>-30.7</td>
<td>4.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Production of food and beverages</td>
<td>-175.5</td>
<td>-4.5</td>
<td>-6.7</td>
<td>24.4</td>
<td>79.6</td>
<td>6.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Production of electrical devices and appliances</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>11.1</td>
<td>-4.3</td>
<td>-5.8</td>
<td>12.7</td>
<td>2.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Production of textile</td>
<td>18.3</td>
<td>9.4</td>
<td>32.7</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>0.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Production of rubber and plastic products</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>-0.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Production of machines and devices 35.8 6.2 -4.3 -6.0 4.1 10.1
Leather processing, making of accessories and shoes 16.1 14.7 12.0 13.2 -6.6 -2.1
Production of clothes, finishing and colouring of fur -5.8 4.9 6.5 9.6 3.2 0.6
Oil and gas drilling -10.4 -70.7 -49.1 -52.6 -12.6 -2.9
Supply of electrical energy, gas, steam and hot water -5.6 10.8 10.6 6.4 13.3 1.7

Source: CNB

Analysis of investments according to investors’ countries shows that, traditionally, the biggest investors in the Croatian economy come from Austria and Germany, while the most recent investments were made by France, which invested over a billion euros in Croatia. Table 4 shows foreign direct investments in Croatia according to countries of origin.

### Table 4. Foreign Direct Investments in Croatia According to Countries of Origin

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Austria</td>
<td>441.9</td>
<td>-115.5</td>
<td>211.8</td>
<td>283.6</td>
<td>31.1</td>
<td>78.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Holland</td>
<td>694.7</td>
<td>-264.4</td>
<td>253.9</td>
<td>-231.4</td>
<td>226.2</td>
<td>964.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>186.8</td>
<td>92.3</td>
<td>225.3</td>
<td>-109.8</td>
<td>140.6</td>
<td>-906.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hungary</td>
<td>164.5</td>
<td>-10.3</td>
<td>104.2</td>
<td>41.7</td>
<td>-172.0</td>
<td>23.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Luxembourg</td>
<td>143.9</td>
<td>111.5</td>
<td>1332.9</td>
<td>176.3</td>
<td>45.5</td>
<td>30.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>87.2</td>
<td>142.3</td>
<td>22.9</td>
<td>39.5</td>
<td>91.2</td>
<td>22.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>42.0</td>
<td>17.1</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>17.2</td>
<td>-45.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slovenia</td>
<td>112.4</td>
<td>89.1</td>
<td>16.6</td>
<td>-6.2</td>
<td>-24.0</td>
<td>-8.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sweden</td>
<td>337.3</td>
<td>8.4</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>-22.8</td>
<td>-44.6</td>
<td>13.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Switzerland</td>
<td>6.4</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>24.8</td>
<td>7.4</td>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>0.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Great Britain</td>
<td>40.2</td>
<td>-48.7</td>
<td>20.5</td>
<td>6.9</td>
<td>40.7</td>
<td>21.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Czech Republic</td>
<td>-21.5</td>
<td>13.6</td>
<td>5.8</td>
<td>308.8</td>
<td>-8.2</td>
<td>3.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Russia</td>
<td>6.6</td>
<td>12.0</td>
<td>29.2</td>
<td>25.9</td>
<td>41.5</td>
<td>1.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ireland</td>
<td>41.5</td>
<td>82.3</td>
<td>6.8</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>1.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Denmark</td>
<td>21.7</td>
<td>-10.6</td>
<td>-20.0</td>
<td>5.7</td>
<td>23.7</td>
<td>-1.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slovakia</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>7.6</td>
<td>11.5</td>
<td>10.2</td>
<td>32.6</td>
<td>0.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USA</td>
<td>26.0</td>
<td>-17.9</td>
<td>-56.8</td>
<td>-70.0</td>
<td>14.3</td>
<td>5.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: CNB

In order to make investments in certain parts of the economic system, Croatia needs loan investment capital; however, judging from the experiences of other countries that surpassed the development level at which Croatia is now, loan capital should be used very carefully, because in such forms of investment, all the risk is transferred to domestic companies that are usually unable to manage this type of investment. This capital should be returned by certain deadlines with interest, and the selection of investment location and effectiveness of the use becomes an exclusive obligation of domestic companies. On the other hand, by using investment profit-gaining foreign capital, all or partial investment risk is shared by the foreign investor and domestic entrepreneur. This co-operation between a domestic entrepreneur and foreign investor is achieved through the assistance of the foreign investor in the transferring of new technology into the country and opening of new, preferably foreign markets, which could have a positive impact on the change in the ownership structure in the company, but also improvement of the qualification structure of the employees, faster development of entrepreneurial and managerial staff, etc. It must be taken into account that the every capital is directed to fast generation of profit to its owner.

All things considered, according to CNB analyses, 2008 was a record year in terms of investments in Croatia. Investments in 2006 were large-scale, because at that time, Pliva was sold. This upward trend of foreign investments in Croatia was contributed by the takeover of several large companies. The biggest investment of this kind was realised by the French Societe Generale that bought Splitska banka, and another large investor was the American Barr that bought Pliva. Foreign investors are mostly attracted to the financial part of the Croatian economy, and this economic part attracted about EUR 790 million of investments in nine months in 2006. Along with the financial part of the economy, foreign investments were made in several companies dealing with production of food and beverages, where the level of investment amounted about EUR 190 million. This was followed by telecommunications with investments of about EUR
127 million. Investments in oil amounted EUR 94 million, and in all other parts of the economy, foreign capital was represented at the level of about EUR 50 million (Buletin of the Croatian National Bank, 2006). Since the beginning of the crisis, i.e. from 2009, the number of foreign investments significantly declined. In the past year, the investments amounted KN 52 billion, i.e. they fell from KN 89.6 billion to 37.4 billion. High level of foreign investments in Croatia is primarily supported by the profit gained by foreign companies that operate successfully in Croatia, but they have also become desirable employers, because they provide higher salaries and are more productive and innovative in their activities. Table 5 shows the parameters of domestic and foreign companies.

Table 5. Domestic and Foreign Companies According to Parameters

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Foreign vs domestic Companies in foreign ownership</th>
<th>Companies in domestic ownership</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of companies: 733</td>
<td>10,826</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of employees: 39,746</td>
<td>191,021</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average net salary: 5477kn</td>
<td>4411kn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Source per employee: 471,650kn</td>
<td>201,159kn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Share of export in total operating revenues: 56</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Export/import ratio: 164%</td>
<td>191%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Labour productivity: 183,505</td>
<td>151,429</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Return on capital: 9.1%</td>
<td>15.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indebtedness: 51%</td>
<td>58%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Short-term debt: 70%</td>
<td>94%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Innovation: 40%</td>
<td>29%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Development of new products at the foreign market: 15.8%</td>
<td>6.2%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Jutarnji list 29.03.2014

It is interesting that foreign companies that realise profit in Croatia increasingly reinvest their profit in other parts of the economic system. Increasing number of Croatian companies is bought by foreign investors. This type of reinvestment is especially popular with foreign investors in the banking sector. They were forced to this procedure by the CNB that introduced financial restrictions that significantly raise the costs of borrowing abroad, and increasingly use their achieved profit to undertake further credit activities.

6. Conclusion

The need for rapid development of Croatian economic system has created the need for various types of foreign investments. Such investments should be in accordance with the needs and demands of the domestic market as well as open domestic co-operation with the international market. Croatian economic development should be based on scientific approach and research that would show all the good or bad sides of such ventures, taking into account the overall economic strategy of the Republic of Croatia. Special attention should be devoted to future development of national economic operators, their operational and financial bonding and integration into new organisational forms modelled on comparable groups in the world. In these activities, the government should have an important role; it should use efficient legislation to have an impact on the rule of law, ensure free operation of economic market principles, and prevent each attempt of market closure or creating a monopoly that would affect proper functioning of the market. The government should provide active development policy which would open space for developmental initiatives and creativity. In order to meet the existing needs and demands, big investment capital is necessary that should be collected from domestic or foreign sources. Presently, but also in the distant future, Croatia will not be able to collect the sufficient amount of capital to achieve these goals. Croatia has many unused resources. Smart activation of these resources could attract domestic and foreign capital. This capital can originate from a variety of sources and can be in different forms. The investment of foreign capital into a country does not only depend on the capital itself, but also on the conditions in this particular country. Previous experiences from other countries suggest that high expectations from the expected capital investments from abroad often have no real basis. One should not passively wait for developments, but rather try to use a real situation to achieve the maximum. When using foreign capital, particular attention should be devoted to the capital of Croatian emigrants i.e. people working abroad. It should be noted that capital, in terms of free market, knows no national bonds and aims to get away from the native country by creating better conditions in another country if the native country
has no prospect of making profit.

References

Bulletin of the Croatian National Bank, 2006
Croatian National Bank, available at: www.hnb.hr
Jutarnji list
Novi list
Homo Democraticus and Homo Philosophicus - Epistemological View on Teaching Philosophy in the Public Schools in Albania

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University "A.Xhuvani", Elbasan, Albania

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Abstract

The educational system in Albanian has gone through many substantial changes and very challenging times over the last two decades. The majority of these changes were, without doubt, dictated by the very insistent endeavor to bring the Albanian educational system closer to the European one. After a very succinct, but concise description, of the changes the basic concepts of education were gone through, and of developmental strategies of the Albanian Educational Reform from 1992 to the present, in this paper we give a very brief account of the ideas and considerations the Albanian policymakers and other decision-making organs share about philosophy and its role in our times, as well as of the status and the place philosophy as part of the academic curriculum holds presently among, and compared to other fields of knowledge and culture. In this paper we present then our considerations and arguments on philosophy and on philosophizing, its nature and its importance to the human thinking, knowledge, and civic education, as well as to the relation that has with democracy, freedom, the free individuals and the free society. Our paper aims to sensitize the community of teachers, of professionals and more specifically, the community of policymakers and decision-makers, to the vital importance philosophy has for the human life and existence, as well as to foster this last community to stop its actual attitude – which consists in sacrificing philosophy in the name of a mentality that has since long become part of the past – and to start its engagement for the creation of the necessary spaces and conditions to philosophy, by giving it the very place it deserves among other disciplines of academic curriculum. This is, at least, what the contemporary experience of other European countries is dictating us with more insistence than ever.

Keywords: homo democraticus, homo philosophicus, philosophy and curriculum of education, individual and liberty, teaching sciences and teaching humanities.

1. Introduction

In 2010, aiming to offer a very small and modest contribution to enriching the library of philosophical thought in the Albanian language and to responding, at the same time, to the very needs of that category of students that study the subject of philosophy as part of their academic curriculum, we rendered in Albanian two works written from two well-known authors of the XX century: “Way to Wisdom”, of Karl Jaspers, and “What does it all mean?”, of Thomas Nagel.

Despite the differences, they both claim the idea that man is a natural philosopher, that philosophy is intrinsic to him, whether he was caught or not, adult, child or adolescent. “The philosophical thinking is always with us and within us”, writes Jaspers, as he tries to highlight this as a feature of every human being. He repurposes this concept in the last chapter of his book, adding that “the philosophical thinking is in some form omnipresent wherever there are men” (Jaspers, 2010).

We see that the authors who are concerned to know the human entity, what is man, seem being not satisfied with the “zoo politikon” of Aristotle, nor with the definitions of homo sapient, homo farber or homo aestheticus of Luc Ferry; they seem unsatisfied either with the ‘intentionality’ of F. Nietzsche as an essential trait of man, nor with the “faculty to project” formulated by J. P. Sartre, in “Existentialism is a Humanism”. Man, maybe they want to say, is characterized by the ability to philosophize. In that case we will have a “zoo philosophikon” or a “homo philosophicus” (Haxhiymeri, 2010).

The man in his lifetime is realized as a philosopher, the question is whether this is accomplished at an instinctive level or rises at a theoretical level. In our opinion the concern of the authors is growing this capacity, common to every
person, not only to a certain elite. Seen from this perspective, the development of the ability to philosophize and exercise of such skills is not a strictly private matter or a game of desires; almost become a social issue, a fundamental human right, an obligation and a civic duty, a condition of human life. Such a community would appear as a human society. This effort is realized and intrinsic to the development of channels that grow and in turn develop the ability to philosophize at the same time the cynicism and prejudice of those who look to philosophy as a characteristic of the so-called elitist minds. The mystification of philosophy and science, photogenic and hermeticism of philosophical communication become criticized issues in the works of these authors.

Karl Popper explains that every intellectual has specific responsibility, because it has the opportunity and the privilege of studying, for these reasons, has to give to society, the representation of his studies in a simple, clear and modest way and not seek in every way to impress with the philosophy. Popper continues, saying that „Anyone who cannot speak simply and clearly should say nothing and continue to work until he can do so” (Popper, 1994).

Projecting this topic in the reality of our work, I would not think that any negligence, fear or distrust, towards philosophy during these twenty years expresses a critical assessment of Albanians academic ability, the ability or inability to present in those simple forms suggested by Popper, or to deal exclusively with matters not digestible, which have a metaphysical nature, sophistry, syllogisms and logic aporias. The last two decades of the post-communist transition were more than enough to prepare not indoctrinated philosophers and/or specialists in various academic fields. Philosophers of education, philosophers of science, history, law, etc., ought to have been prepared these years, drafting and implement supportive policies. In the same way it is also in the field of philosophical education. The redevelopment of graduates in philosophy in our universities, of teachers in service in this discipline, would be in any case a better solution that detachment from philosophy or even worse the elimination of this discipline.

However, let’s dedicate a space to the argument that sees philosophy as man’s existential need and feature of free citizen in a democratic society.

Such a feature as the ability to philosophize, as well as to write or to think logically and theoretical is a product of education. As indeed we know from studies in the field of developmental psychology, cognitive psychology and other disciplines even more specific, such as psychology of reason, the psychology of morality etc., with the birth and development of the capacity of logical thinking and with the subsequent development of sociality, of affective components etc., the teenagers develop capacity of philosophical meditation and philosophical game, the discussion or dialogue (even Socratic), algorithmic issues and other capacity of different natures. This is the age to start, assisting and supporting this process. Thomas Nagel says that the beginnings of thinking about the world around us emerge during the fourteenth year of age, when “…many people start to think about philosophical problems on their own…” (Nagel, 1987).

In this sense: “… the philosophical raw material comes directly from the world and our relation to it, not from writings of the past” (Nagel, Ibidem).

Do we have adequate curricula to respond in a timely and appropriate manner to the developmental needs of this generation? What is the way to obtain philosophical culture by people belonging to different levels of education?

Of course, for this, we must bring the attention to the fact that any consideration and evaluation needs a specific methodology, for some data on what we will evaluate, and tools with which we will measure or estimate our object of study and configuration types that serves to compare and measure it.

Let’s take a quick presentation or a synopsis of the fate of philosophy in public education in Albania since the ’90s. Teaching Marxist-Leninist philosophy was exchanged with History of Philosophy (Under a Marxist interpretation, or at best, looking for an impartial revaluation of philosophical culture, of course, teachers and lecturers were the same of the ’80s, both in mentality and tools used for knowledge and for the philosophical interpretation).

After 1992, in a school year of the second cycle of education would have been done a philosophical discipline, namely, an Introduction to the Philosophy and something from the History of philosophy. Originally was published a text, a very good adaptation from a European school text, but it proved somewhat difficult for students. The text that was published later, as good as the first, was used for more than a decade. Department of Philosophy at the University of Tirana, in the context of educational reform had become almost inexistente. The only Institution which was entrusted to prepare teachers and specialists of philosophy was not working, and in the same way was not working for the retraining of teachers in service. A large part of the department lecturers, were converted to sociologists. Sociology became favorite discipline, in vogue for several faculties and separate branches, while in most of these courses philosophy was eliminated, even as the philosophy of scientific knowledge or of a particular science. The same thing happened in the University of Elbasan: the course of the study of biochemistry is not performed since that time any philosophical discipline (even no training courses for citizenship); in Mathematics and Physics branch until 2001 was conducted Philosophy of Mathematics and Philosophy of Physics, but later they were eliminated from the program. In Scientific Masters programs can be found rarely a philosophical discipline (Philosophy of language, the MSc in Linguistics; Philosophy of History, Msc
in Cultural Heritage, ...) and almost none such in doctoral programs.

Not a good situation for philosophy was deteriorated even further with the implementation of the New Curriculum (2009-2010) for high school, where Philosophy becomes an optional subject matter. From 3240 hours of teaching in classes X, XI, XII, 2628 hours of teaching belong to programmed teaching and 360 hours are reserved for compulsory optional subject (Of these, 120 hours are for class XII). The students must choose between the following cases, two of them and each with 2 hours / week: foreign language, Albanian language and literature, mathematics, cultural heritage, philosophy, history, economics, chemistry, physics, biology. Philosophy is confronted with the disciplines that have a considerable space, not only in curricula of the first cycle of compulsory education, which lasts for nine years, but also in the cycle of high school that lasts three years: foreign Languages, albanian language and literature, mathematics in 3 years with 3 hours / week; history, in 3 years with 1/2/2 hours / week; chemistry, physics and biology, in class X and XI, with 2 hours / week, etc. (Kfr. The Institute of Curricula and Training, 2009).

This picture would still be incomprehensible unless we keep in mind the guidelines for the development of new curricula of high school (ICT – Institute of Curricula and Training) and in particular the clause that says, "The school has an obligation to provide to each student: […] The school hours belonging to the optional subject matter for each high school class", and further, that, "The school could not offer to students: […] all the other subjects of compulsory curricula" (The Institute of Curricula and Training, 2009).

The meaning of the text mentioned above, noting with regret, is an ornamental embellishment of public high school curricula with courses that will not take place in most of these institutions.

Among them, the worst fate will be reserved for philosophy, for some special reason, subject of Philosophy will not be carried out, although some students may choose it. High school teaching staff will not contain any specialist in this field (or in the worst cases, will be executed by teachers who have no competence in it).

We would not like to compare this initiative of our educational institutions with the imperial decree from Justinian in 529 A.D., which prohibited the teaching of philosophy, law and literature in Athens. There will not comfort us nor any expert reminding that such things have happened elsewhere, or that in these countries is not taught at all philosophy. We live in a wild season with prejudice, or better yet, in a season full of exclusionary and hostile actions against philosophy. But we care about how people react, intellectually, too. In fact, to them, we want remember the major events in France, the creation of "General Staff of philosophy" (Etats Généraux de la Philosophie), in 1979, when about 1,200 philosophers and teachers of philosophy from around the world responded unequivocally and unanimously to the call made by Jacques Derrida to protest the French parliament that those days had passed a law that denied the right philosophy to be part of the high school program in the territory of the French Republic" (Haxhiymeri, 2010).

Few years before Th. Nagel published his book titled “What does it all mean?”, several education specialists and researchers in the USA were expressed with concern about “[…]The non-inclusion of philosophy as an integral part of American educational program, […] its omission from high school programs” (with the reason that) […] this is a college subject, or because “…it is very advanced for the level of middle school;” its exclusion in high school programs with the argument that it is "irrelevant" and "that there develops critical thinking" (Breslin, 1982).

Apparently Thomas Nagel, presents conclusions from a broader perspective in his book, when he writes: „People ordinarily study philosophy only when they go to college” (Nagel, 1987).

Studying the school curricula of several countries and seeing their development and differences, we note that the inclusion of Philosophy in high school curricula has different variables both in time and in space where is applied; the whole is conditioned by the philosophical traditions in education of each country. We are talking about traditions, the relationship between the philosophical interpretation and the theoretical thought with the school disciplines, the studied literature in these programs, etc.

As we discern from our studies, affinity and place of Philosophy in social culture and in school curricula has a special relationship with democratic development in those societies. Philosophy, logic, literature, linguistics, history and arts, in addition to mathematics, physics, astronomy, biology, chemistry, etc., formed in the nineteenth century a deterrente, or better yet, a fund for a scientific and intellectual education. The era of positivism and the advent of technology, strikes harshly the theoretical sciences, but most of all philosophy.

When Europe, in the late ’30 and early 40 of the twentieth century was experiencing a great intolerance not only from the crowd but also from the political elites, a thinker, a prominent philosopher, Jacques Maritain will denounce the source of this madness callosity publishing his work entitled “Education at the Crossroads” (Cfr. Maritain, 1943). In the new edition of the work of Maritain (1947 Egloff; 1959 Athèrne Fayard; 1969 Nouvelle Edition; etc.), would come out that society and the so-called western civilization are still experiencing the crisis of values that Maritain describes, because the US education system, etc., remain at a crossroads, and education policies in these countries have the main contribution to this crisis. He thinks it was a crisis in the foundation of the system; the human model is in crisis, the model
of the citizen and citizenship, while it is on the pedestal the citizen designed as workforce and disciplined, professionally capable and in full respect of technical regulations, administrative and judicial (or otherwise known as the name of the state laws). However, in this project, according Maritain, lacks the human component, the development of thought in real size, depth of thought and philosophical meditation, metaphysical or religious dimensions, cosmological and world viewer, spiritual dimensions, ethical and moral, etc. School and education need to change, but the question above implies not just school and education institutions, what is essential, has to do with the aims of education in a society.

As such it has to do with political power, what is it, what relationship seeks to preserve (or sets) with the governed, the people? Education may be issued by the crisis and move towards a new strategy by the political emancipation of the society. Perhaps we should interpret this way the events of 1979 in Paris, as well as remember and reflect on the relationship between philosophy and civilization, humanity and democracy, Jacques Derrida a decade or so later.

Obviously, it suffices to refer to his work entitled “Du droit à la Philosophie” (Right to Philosophy, Derrida, 2002) the first chapter of which is very telling: “Qui a peur de la Philosophie?” (Who's Afraid of Philosophy) published Ed.Gallié, Paris 1990 (Derrida, 1990).

The history of civilizations and the emancipation of human society awake the conscience on the particular role of philosophy in them, the role in conditionality relations and mutual encouragement of philosophy and achievements of democracy. Philosophy is a measure of freedom and its particular achievement, too. This wording in his Hegelian conceptualization must be taken into political dimension, also economic, social, etc. So, it must be taken in the whole human dimension. Many thinkers and scholars see the source of the splendor of Hellenic civilization in the Aegean shores of the Mediterranean, to the flourishing of philosophy there, in the same way is the flourishing philosophy that gave rise to the Roman civilization; we see the source of the power of Chinese civilization, first of all to the Confucian morality, whose foundations are placed in the Confucian philosophy, associated with Buddhism and other ethical, philosophical and religious doctrines. Islamic philosophy gave to Islamic civilization and culture, a particular dimension, as well as Christian philosophy of Reformation and Renaissance gave to European civilization and to the so-called West. The modern theory of democracy, the sovereignty of the people, the doctrine of natural rights and freedoms of man are the main corps of the European Enlightenment and political projects that laid the foundation of modern democracy, in Europe and America. Postmodern philosophy is, for nearly a century, the mind and the project of civilization, its prosperity and democracy. Development strategies of today's society can’t be projected simply by technicians; work management and administration can’t be done by just the so-called bureaucracy. Philosophy, more than ever before will have a priority. It will be a theoretical foundation and a methodology of study and work, necessary for any particular field of knowledge and activity.

In terms of a developed society with a high level of emancipation, citizen participation acquires new dimensions and new relations with the management and administration of the areas of activity and social values. Existential concerns, cognitive, religious, moral, psychological, educational, etc., to individuals and social subjects should be answered, analyzed and interpreted. To achieve this, there must be a strong theoretical thought, category of philosophical thought, dexterity to penetrate, critical sense, knowledge of the main paradigms, etc. This is a fundamental reason to pay particular attention to the cultivation of the ability to philosophize through pre-university educational programs and undergraduate later. But the relativity of knowledge and thought, diversity and consensus of conflicting views, subjectivity and individuality of thought how will be cultivated to the people? Did we get this through "exact sciences", subjects such as mathematics, physics, chemistry, biology, astronomy, geography, etc? We are bringing here a consideration of Luc Ferry associated with this problem.

He writes on "exact sciences":

„Not that these don’t also provoke discissions and dissensions.

[...] The very special status of sciences teaching when compared with that of other disciplines is therefore all the more remarkable: where education has in general adopted more and more „liberal principles” [...] the inculcation of science remains the only one in which the relativism of personal opinion can be neither appreciated nor encouraged.

[...] Like it or not, the solution to a math or physics problem is not a matter individual or majority opinion, and relativism appropriate to other domains disappears in science for the good and simple reason that it presents the last remains of our relation to objectivity. It’s in encountering science that the child comes up [...] against a theoretical universe which resists his subjectivity, since it manifest itself to him in a shape of norms that he, at least at his level of learning, cannot contest“ (Ferry, L. 1990).

Finally we recall again the historical need for us, Albanians, but not only, to protect a new mind and soul, completely different from previous ideological mind. The need to encourage and develop true human individuality, subjectivity and freedom of thought, can’t be satisfied with the cultivation of accounting or manipulative skills, through
teaching mathematics and other natural sciences, or with the development of logical or algorithmic thinking, or lastly with information and data from these areas. The only way is to educate open minds, critical and reflective one, and for these reasons, we must reevaluate the philosophy.

References


Civil Society Development and its Impact on the Democratization Process in Kosovo

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Abstract

The process of establishing a sustainable and active civil society that effectively and responsibly participates within a democratic system of governance is crucial for transitional countries. After years of conflict and political uncertainty, Kosovo’s independent status poses great challenges, including healing ethnic and political conflicts while rebuilding the nation’s economy and infrastructure. The fragile society of Kosovo faces many challenges, the development of civil society is just one of them. Unfortunately Kosovo’s civil society is not yet an effective and influential partner of government public decision-making. Civil society in Kosovo went through two developmental phases: the so called ‘civil resistance’ against Milosevic’s regime in the 1990s, and the post-war period under international administration and building of democratic governance. In Independent Kosovo, problems of political and economic nature concerning the building of new institutions require the support of public discussion. The role of NGO’s whose focus is political activism that tends to expand the practices of citizenship is reduced, and true public debate and coverage of all sides of important issues – elements crucial to a functioning democracy – are hampered if not prevented. Hence, the process of democratization of Kosovar society is negatively impacted. This article will explore the process of civil society development in Kosovo, from its days of origin, through the complicated political situations of the 1990s, and its increasingly active role in contributions toward the current democratization process.

Keywords: NGO sector development, EU integration, state-building, political activism, democratization

1. Introduction

During the 90s in Kosovo a number of civil society organizations were established. This was the beginning of the development of an early form of civil society. Albanian political parties founded in a later stage were direct continuation of these associations. With the disintegration of the former Yugoslavia, these political parties developed into a national Albanian movement. The so-called “civil resistance movement” organized parallel institutions of Kosovo as a public reaction to Serbia’s isolation of Albanians from public life. The basic aim of Albanians was to fulfill their social needs of culture, education and common public life through civil society. The period under Serbian occupation led to the creation of a more or less active civil society.

After the war under the UNMIK administration the solidarity and voluntary engagement of the people of Kosovo for public causes has weakened. A huge number of small Non Governmental Organizations (NGOs) and local Media were formed solely for the purpose of soliciting grant money. As we shall see later in this study, Kosovar civil society was heavily impacted by the 1989 – 1999 repression of Serbian regime and the radical change of circumstances under UNMIK administration that followed the war in 1999. While Independent Kosovo is at the beginning of EU Integration process, progress towards acceptance into the EU involves annual progress reports that among other public aspects of society, assesses the status of civil society. Kosovo civil society and media has been continually assessed as weak. Now is the time for NGO representatives to establish more effective networking and integrative approach in order to play their important role for the democratization process in Kosovo.

On the other side despite the government’s positive vision of civil society, there is a lack of institutionalized cooperation between the Government and civil society representatives. The government should help civil society in many aspects, and capacity building is one of them. The government needs to be more receptive of civil society criticisms and create circumstances that will allow civil society representatives to perform their role as watchdog with enthusiasm.

This study explores the process of civil society development in Kosovo, from its days of origin, through the complicated political situations of the 1990s, and its increasingly active role in contributions toward the current democratization process. My study begins with the discussion of the various meanings of civil society and various existing discourses of civil society and continues by describing the historical roots of civil society development in Kosovo before the war of 1999. The second part of the study includes the period under communist Yugoslavia and years of repression.
under Milosevic’s regime and the process of establishing and developing NGO sector as part of civil society after the war, under the United Nations Mission in Kosovo (UNMIK) administration and in Independent Kosovo. The reason why NGO sector development will be in particular elaborated is that it represents the part of Kosovo’s civil society that international agencies have mostly focused on through donor funding that particularly targeted NGOs. After the war in Kosovo the term NGO has become so popular and almost interchangeable with the term civil society. As a result, NGOs became very relevant for the political agendas of both international and national authorities. Finally in conclusions I try to compare and analyse the role of civil society before and after the war by indicating challenges that civil society, namely NGOs must overcome in order to meaningfully contribute to the current democratization process in Kosovo and the risks that they can pose when they decide not to become force for democracy.

1.1 Civil Society from historical to contemporary perspectives

1.1.1 Origins and history of civil society

There is no commonly agreed definition of civil society. Civil society elements are diverse and complex. Some of the literature considers whether it is this very fuzziness that explains the present popularity of civil society in that “it can be all things to all people” (Glasius, 2004,). However, it is important to clarify its historical roots before we see how the concept came to be understood in different contexts. Although it now relates to societies of different civilizations, civil society rooted lie mainly in the West. Romans spoke for the first time of “societas civilis”, a term introduced by Cicero. Socrates supported the idea that conflicts within society should be resolved through public debates, and Plato saw the ideal state as a society in which people dedicate themselves to the common good, while Aristotle saw the ‘polis’ as an ‘association’, that enabled citizens to share in the virtuous task of ruling and being ruled (O’Brien, 1999). Nevertheless, neither Greece nor Rome distinguished between state and society.

The medieval idea of differentiating between state and society was lost in the work of Hobbes, who in religion found only potential for conflicts. He wrote that if a society is to be held together at all, it must be through the power of the sovereign. But Locke, in ‘Two Treatises of Government’ (1683) provided a distinctively modern form of differentiation by combining the concept with that of voluntary association. Adam Ferguson developed the concept of civil society as a moral sphere in which human interactions can be protected from the state (O’Brien, 1999). On the other hand Tocqueville presented civil society as a network of non-political social organizations that strengthen democracy (Tocqueville 1969). Hegel understood the distinction between market and state. In Hegel's analysis of society, the economy is a part of civil society, which is identified with market relations. Marx argued that civil society was strongly shaped by class antagonism and Rousseau thought that of the society where state should be absorbed into civil society. On the other hand Gramsci developed a concept of civil society that differentiated it both from the economy and the state, although he had a difficult time expressing the independent role of civil society without it being an instrument of state politics (Gramsci, 1971).

If we exclude the classical period, civil society meant every aspect of society that was not functionally and institutionally included within the State. The seventeenth and eighteenth century separation of state and society was a step of great significance. This later allowed theorists to conceive society as a social space in which the individual, alone or with others, could view the acts of society in order to oppose an oppressive state.

1.2 Definition and concept of civil society: Theoretical and normative dimensions

Many scholars think that because of its ambiguous nature the definition of the civil society concept sometimes is meaningless. Civil society belongs to a group of sociological and political theory concepts such as freedom, justice, equality and democracy that are also not clearly demarcated. At least two specific dimensions of the civil society concept are distinguishable: the theoretical and the normative role. In the context of theoretical role the concept of civil society analyzes dimensions of social life and social values, with citizens and civil organizations as key actors.

The normative role serves to motivate and mobilize citizens and other social actors for the establishment and development of various contents and forms of civil activities. The normative function is mostly manifested during periods of transition from less to more democratic societies. Both dimensions of the civil society concept have played significant roles, especially in countries where the position of civil society has traditionally played a marginal role.

Discussing the concept of civil society is quite fashionable today. Civil society is a popular term with politicians, academics and international agencies. We frequently hear politicians talk about the needs of the state and the market for a civil society. Civil society should provide an intermediate layer of governance between the citizens and the state that is capable of resolving problems without public coercion. (Edwards, 2004) The idea of civil society within the context of
modern history offers perspectives on state-society relations. Within these perspectives, the state should be differentiated from civil society as a binding or organizing principal of political order. In this analysis, individuals and different organizations are part of the political order to the extent that they seek to participate in those processes. The concept of civil society has been defended in various ways by a variety of political and social theorists. Today's content of civil society does not result with a commonly accepted definition of the term, but focuses on whether the term should be a normative or non-normative tool of social science, and whether economic, religious and family relations should be considered as part of it. Walzer has defined civil society as the space of (politically) un-coerced human association and also the set of relational networks-formed for the sake of family, faith, interest and ideology. Civil society is also seen as a sphere of social interaction between economy and state (Cohen and Arato, 1992).

Most of definitions try to describe civil society as part of the society, but not directly part of the state, consisting of different organizations, which operate in the interest of the common good. One of the significant functional goals of civil society is to act as a force maintaining liberal freedom. This key function is a set of diverse non-governmental institutions, which are strong enough to counterbalance the state. Civil society is: ‘a society in which polity and economy are distinct, where polity is instrumental but can and does check extremes of individual interest, but where the state is in turn checked by institutions with an economic base; it relies on economic growth which, by requiring cognitive growth, makes ideological monopoly impossible’ (Gellner, 1994). While these are but a few of the formulations of civil society (some of them exclude familiar, religious, and economic realms) most of them share the most common definition of the term: the ‘separateness of civil society and the state.’

1.2.1 The idea of civil society: From normative to functional definition

The core idea of civil society embodies an ethical ideal of the social order, one that harmonizes the conflicting demands of individual interests and social good (Seligman, 1995). In this context, its existence as independent from the state is a very important aspect. As we saw from the historical perspectives, the concept of civil society was defined differently by a range of German, French and Scottish Enlightenment figures, but common to all attempts was the articulation of the civil society’s main problem: the relation between the private and public, the individual and social, and between individual desire and public concerns. In this context, civil society could be seen as autonomous sphere and independent from the state, but regulated by the state (Shills, 1991). This idea of civil society is not the focus of power balances between the state and civil society, but their inter-independence.

Civil society should be considered as the location of independent thought. As a result, a functional definition of civil society could replace the predominant normative definition: ‘that civil society should not be defined negatively as opposition to the state, but positively, in the context of the ideas and practices through which cooperation and trust are established in social life’ (Shills, 1991).

1.2.2 Civil society and democracy

Citizen participation in processes of public decision-making is an essential part of the democracy. Through its social and political activism, civil society gives voice to groups of citizens that don’t feel represented in democracy. Civil society can be viewed as a solution to many challenges in contemporary democracies. Amongst other potentials, civil society organizations have expert knowledge in many areas of concern, and so are able to serve governments as counselors. (Habermas,1989). Participating in the system can be a good experience for citizens, allowing for a positive identification with their political system. This is how civil society can help strengthen some of the weaknesses in democracy and lower citizen dissatisfaction. This doesn’t necessary mean that civil society organizations have identical interests and are always homogeneous. In essence there are many organizations within civil society that are undemocratic in their platform. Through the employment of disruptive, violent, illegal or socially irresponsible strategies, civil society organizations accustom their members to behavioral patterns, which are diametrically opposed to those necessary for the smooth functioning of democratic regimes. Non-democratic goals and strategies of some civil society organizations may generate openly non-democratic views and forms of conduct at worst (Forbrig, 2002). These aspects can directly threaten the maintenance of democratic regimes. It would therefore be misleading to conclude that all civil society organizations are interested in making democracy a reality.

1.2.3 Democratic functions of civil society

Civil society in the context of communist regimes had a different meaning compared to the meaning of civil society in the
context of contemporary democracies. Because of the limited freedom of expression in communist regimes, civil society existed in someone’s living room, in churches or in cafes (Brinton, 1990). Under the communist regimes independent civil society usually took on the form of small groups of citizen activism. Both representatives of independent and of the broad civil society contributed with different means and forms to overthrow communist regimes and follow transition toward democracy (Skovajška, 2008). As outlined above, at its best civil society can make a positive contribution to democracy, but at its worst may undermine democratic regimes. Some major functions through which civil society contributes to strengthening democracy are identified as: ‘The Lockean Function (Control of State Power), The Hegelian Function (Interest Mediation), The Pluralist Function (Social Integration), The Non-Profit Function (Service Provision) and The Tocquevillean Function (Political Socialization) (Forbrig, 2002).

Although it is possible to identify some major functions through which civil society contributes to strengthening democracy, this doesn’t necessarily mean that we do have a precise definition agreed from all authors for the concept of civil society. Many authors give different meanings to the notion of civil society. Not everyone means the same thing when they discuss it. Consequently, it is difficult to formulate a precise research question which contains a concept which itself is not precise.

In general, civil society is seen more as a multifaceted concept, although it is noticeable that the differentiation between the state and civil society is mostly discussed. Within this context, my research remains within the concept that defines civil society as autonomous sphere and independent from the state, but regulated by a legal framework from the state. This is the concept of civil society that is not defined negatively as opposition to the state, but positively, in the context of the ideas and practices through which cooperation and trust is established between the state institutions and civil society thus contributing to the democratization processes.

Having in consideration that the relationship between civil society and Kosovo institutions went through two very different stages of development, the general research question that guides my study is: What are the differences between the roles and contributions of civil society in Kosovo before and after the war of 1998-1999? In order to answer to my research question I will focus in two different circumstances, the pre-war situation under the Milosevic’s regime and the post-war period under international administration and building of democratic governance.

2. Civil Society in Balkans: In Transition from Communism to Post Communism

Active civil society fosters democracy in a number of ways: by dispersing power and thereby keeping a check on the state and by developing social capital. Very few countries, if any, that had no tradition of developing civil society during the communist period, emerged with a strong civil society after the communist period (Miszlevitz, 1999). Any countries that had a relatively well-developed tradition of civil society before (or during) communism ended with weak civil societies by the end of communist rule. Their competitive advantage was, however, to have the blueprints of civil society still present in their institutional memory, this was a legacy on which they could base their efforts to reconstruct their democracies.’ (Hann, 1992).

Civil society in post-communist Europe is poorly developed. Because of the underdeveloped civil society in Eastern Europe and South Eastern Europe some authors refer to this as ‘illusory civil society’. This is because the number of individual participants in civil society is low compared to the impressive number of NGOs. Another concern about these organizations is that most are one man shows, with little political or social influence (Whitehead, 2004). Politicization of civil society leaders in post-communist countries is also evident, as some move into high political or the state administrative sphere after a very short period working with the civil society.

In order to achieve a better understanding of the complexities of civil society in post-communist countries, it is important to address some of the key relationships between civil society and the state, which affects the democratization process in these countries. As discussed earlier, the relationship between the state and civil society is the subject of among different authors, philosophers, scholars and academicians, beginning from the Enlightenment period until modern times. While overthrowing communist regimes leading South-East European dissidents have chosen the ‘anti-system’ model because of the communist dictatorships (Mudde, 2003). However, while leading civil society organizations against communist regimes, some dissidents became state leaders in the transition (Václav Havel, Lech Walesa), some authors believed that this is the ultimate victory for democracy, while others argue that unification of civil society and the state in post-communist countries is the structural destruction of civil society. Because of the ‘anti-system’ model and approach during communist rule, civil society was believed to be ‘anti-state & anti-institutional’ irrespectively of the state of regime. This remained the belief following the fall of communism (Mudde, 2003).

The idea of civil society groups as state resistance and alternatives to political parties finds its best expression in many post-communist European countries, whereas in Western Europe civil society is a sphere of social autonomy or
voluntary cultural and social organizations. Although civil society organizations led the opposition to communist states they should not necessarily be seen as adversaries of the state. To some degree it is possible for civil society to join state efforts in establishing and consolidating new democracies. Therefore, it is possible to elaborate the current perspectives of civil society development in post-communist countries, only by searching for the origins and effects of civil initiatives before and after the fall of communism.

Eastern and Southeastern European countries shared certain features, including party-state control over the most important institutions and other sectors of public life: supervision over organized social activities, widespread police control, suppression of independent activities outside of state control (including the private economic sector) and the outlawing of any activities deemed challenging to the ruling party. However, not in all of these countries the situation was the same if we compare state control over civil society. Best illustration for this is ‘Solidarity’, a social movement during the 1980s in Poland that was using the methods of civil resistance to advance the causes of workers. After nine years of existence they finally managed to outmaneuver the communist leadership. There were growing and very well organized dissent groups in Czechoslovakia and East Germany, while Hungary had a substantially developed private sector. Social activism organized around these movements produced alternative or independent cultural elites.

On the other side, since the fall of communism in the 90s, the Western Balkans had been undergoing fundamental and multiple transformations. At the early phases of the transition there are numerous constraints on the development of civil societies in Western Balkans, such as: the legacies of communism, impact of nationalism, and the manipulation of ethnic politics. It is obvious that the question of nationalism and ethnicity impacted negatively on the development of a civic-based democracy in the Balkan region. Kosovo is no exception here.

2.1 Legacies of communism and nationalism

The legacies of communist rule on civil society have proven to be negative. In most of the South East European countries, communism reinforced collectivist models of individual and social obligations to the state rather than individual liberties. With little tradition of mediation and resolving group conflicts, including religious and ethnic conflicts, it missed an essential process for the development of a fully functional and active civil society. Civil society elements during communism and the post-communist transitional period were the embodiments of this culture. On the other hand, the negative nationalism that characterized the Balkans during the 1990s promoted authoritarianism, which fostered an intolerant political culture, and justified government controls over the mass media and other public and private institutions with the pretext of defending endangered national interests. The road to an active and diversified civil society can be especially long and arduous where the legacies of communism are reinforced by the deliberate manipulation of nationalism.

Kosovo illustrates well the important role that nationalism and myths play in shaping human behavior. Manifestations for a myth known as Kosovo battle fought in 1389, marked the beginning of the collapse of ex-Yugoslavia. With the fall of the most of the communist regimes in Central and South Eastern Europe the concept of civil society discourse entered Kosovo in the beginning of the 1990’s. This concept was not seeking one objective as most of South Eastern European countries did (to turn down communism and start the democratization process) but to start the state building process in conjunction with democratization and transition process (if possible at all in those circumstances). Civil society activism in Kosovo began as a reaction to Milosevic’s regime and his hegemonic program inspired by a nationalistic myth. Before we examine forms of civil resistance against Milosevic’s regime and how Albanians used civic activism as a form of national emancipation in 1990s, it is worth considering civil society in Yugoslavia with Kosovo as a part of it.

2.1.1 Yugoslav Civil Society from socialism to pluralism

The disintegration of Yugoslavia actually started with the abrogation of autonomy of Kosovo. The first civil initiatives in Kosovo took place after 1989. The institutional vacuum created in 1989-1990 after a very rapid disintegration of the Kosovo communist party and abrogation of autonomy created space for new initiatives, particularly from new generations struggling for more pluralism. But under Milosevic’s repression, pluralism was impossible. Starting from 1991-1992 Albanians were interested in lobbying for independence. During the socialist Yugoslav rule civil society discussions in terms of their spectrum and intensity were fewer and weaker in Kosovo compared to other Yugoslav Republics. In the other republics: Serbia, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Croatia, Montenegro and Macedonia debates for civil society were predominantly theoretical and lacked energy of the new social movements. Slovenia brought fresh civil and democratic ideas such as the de-politisation of public sphere and introduction of multiparty pluralism, which were rejected by strong
republics like Serbia. Slovenia was left with no other political alternative than the Yugoslav one, and this is how, both theoretically and practically, they continued to use the concept of civil society as a form of national emancipation.

By the end of the 1980s, other Yugoslav republics had designed their national programs. These were nationalist programs without civil society, whereas the Slovenian program included ‘nationalism plus civil society’. In Serbia and Croatia, it appeared that the only alternative to communism was nationalism. ‘There were, however, efforts in most Yugoslav republics to develop a non-nationalistic, democratic and pluralist system. One of them is the formation of the Association for a Yugoslav Democratic (UJDI) initiative, which aspired to be equivalent to East German New Forum.’ (Ingrao, 2009). In Kosovo the UJDI failed to attract members of different nationalities, thus obtaining the membership of only few Serbs and hundreds of Albanians.

Another influential center for Albanians in 1980s was the Writers Association, which throughout Yugoslavia supported intellectual freedom (Clark, 2000). The Kosovo Writers Association defended alleged ‘Albanian separatists’ who were facing prison from the system. In the years to come the president of the Association, Ibrahim Rugova, became one of the main voices of Kosovo for the international and domestic press as a head of the political movement: the Democratic League of Kosovo (LDK), which was founded in December 1989 (Clark, 2000).

3. Civil Society in Kosovo before the War of 1998 - 1999

3.1 Kosovo civil resistance movement in 1990’s

During 1990 LDK together with other civil society organizations established a united front against Serbia’s regime by providing guidance for the civil and peaceful resistance against the regime in Belgrade. In many observations of Western journalists and politicians at the beginning of 1990s criteria for ‘civil society’ in Kosovo was never agreed (Kipred, 2005). For some of them LDK was identified as a civil society organization; for others who recognized LDKs political character and activism as a national political movement.

Between 1989-1990 civil society gained further substance with the foundation of a variety of other civil non-state organizations and political parties, such as the Social Democratic Party, Youth Parliament of Kosovo, and Green Party. All of them together were identified as ‘Kosova alternative” (Clark, 2000). In the same period came the formation of different independent organizations, such as the Council for the Defense of Human Rights and Freedoms (CDHRF) (1989) and the Union of Independent Trade Unions (UITU) (1990).

Apart from non-violence protests solidarity among Kosovo Albanians was a very important element of the national and civil resistance in the 1990s. In this context, the Albanian movement directed its attention to the violence within their community: the blood feud. The most common customary law among the Albanians was the The Code of Leke Dukagjini (from here “The Code”). “The Code” included an elaborate legal rule that tried to regulate the blood feud. The initiative for reconciliation of blood feuds amongst Albanians became a widespread social movement that promoted a very positive social change in the society. Other forms of civil resistance were developed in the beginning of 1990s (Ingrao, 2009). ‘Thousands of people would put candles in their windows or balconies, which marked the beginning of the curfew, a symbolic expression that despite the state of emergency Kosovo Albanians still held the key to the situation. At the beginning of 1991 an hour long silent demonstration took place in Prishtina, with the posters declaring ‘Stop the violence’. " (Clark, 2000).

The intuitive non-violence movement taken up by Kosovo Albanians from 1989-1992 and absorbed into their identity and culture was a durable foundation for civil resistance. Not just civil resistance, but solidarity among the population, was one of the overarching principles. The ‘Mother Teresa Association’ was another very important NGO, becoming the backbone of the Kosovo Albanian parallel healthcare system after thousands of Albanian personnel were dismissed from their positions in public hospitals. “Mother Theresa’ provided medical services and distributed food all over Kosovo to all categories of the civil Albanian population. The organization was funded by private donations from inside Kosovo, and later out of solidarity contribution of 3 percent of wages by the Albanian Diaspora (Khdr, 2008). This money was collected from financial councils that were established by LDK in the early 1990s. It is important to note that ‘Mother Teresa’ conducted a no-cash policy because of the risk from raids by the Serbian police (Clark, 2000). On the other side, all state media in Kosovo in the 1990s was at the service of policies of Milosevic’s repression and genocide. ‘Under these circumstances, during 1990-93, a “parallel society” in Kosovo developed with the efforts of Albanian professionals, teachers, and activists to maintain the functioning of society, and to exhibit a political will, which used the ensuing institutional basis to claim statehood for Kosovo’ (Kipred, 2005). This repressive situation pushed the Albanian community to look for other alternatives.

As a form of their civil resistance to Serbia, Albanians created their own system of education out of the public
facilities. ‘Self-financed post-autonomy graduates in Kosovo were the generations of the Kosovo Republic. They no longer studied the people’s heroes who had fought for ‘brotherhood and unity’ of Yugoslav nations and nationalities’ (Schwandner –Sievers and Jurgen Fischer, 2002). Education was organized in private houses and garages, especially for high schools and University of Pristina (UP). New curricula were enacted with an aim to promote the Albanian national identity. ‘This came to be known as parallel education. It was the cause that galvanized the entire Albanian community in Kosovo into action, triggering its unprecedented homogenization. Albanian parallel education in Kosovo emerged as an embodiment of the Albanian civil and peaceful resistance, and an argument used to prove the existence of the Albanian independent state in Kosovo’ (Kostovicova, 2005). Parallel institutions became a point of national pride and motivation for further solidification among Albanians for their statehood. The launch of the parallel system was also a gesture by Albanians to show to the international community ‘the independent Kosovo’.

LDK leadership used this model of success as an important symbol and proof of Albanian statehood in Kosovo. One Albanian analyst suggested that Ibrahim Rugova should more accurately be called “President of the parallel schools of Kosovo” than ‘The President of Republic of Kosovo’, his official title. Civil society in Kosovo emerged and took its form within the context of non-violent civil resistance led from LDK and Mr.Rugova. ‘The non-violence movement became part of the modern Albanian identity that drew together both village patriarchs and urban intelligentsia in a common effort to avoid a tragedy’ (Clark, 2000). While in much of the communist bloc, peaceful transition from totalitarian and one-party rule to plural and democratic regimes, buttressed by civil society contributions, was made possible, Kosovo’s civil society experienced a different kind of development (Khdr, 2008). The distinction between civil and political society was blurred. The reason was very close cooperation and sometimes the uniform actions between political parties and civil society that were imposed from the deteriorating political and economic conditions in Kosovo. One can say that pre-war civil society organizations were strongly politicized and nationally oriented as they embodied the goals of the Albanian Kosovar nationalist struggle by means of peaceful resistance under the civil society umbrella (Sterland, 2006).

3.1.1 Kosovo Civil Society after the war of 1998-1999

After the withdrawal of Serbian forces in 1999 the political circumstances in Kosovo changed radically. Kosovo entered a unique historical period to be followed by controversies with UNMIK, protection of minority rights and its status issue. Kosovo turned into experiment for different formulas of peace building and reconciliation. After the war of 1999 the majority of international donors and agencies interested in civil society development have focused their funds mostly on NGO sector. NGO sector role was so relevant to UNMIK political agenda after the war, but not less important to Kosovo institutions and political parties of Kosovo after UNMIK became irrelevant. Under UN administration and protection by NATO troops, Kosovo society was impacted by the mass arrival of international non-governmental organizations (INGOs), most of them with the objective to provide humanitarian aid, reconstruction and reconciliation. The INGO ‘boom’ in the aftermath of the conflict impacted the massive expansion of the local NGO sector.

Radical socio-political change in post war Kosovo is not the only reason for the quick development and new strength of the NGO sector. The legacy of the 1990s also explains that despite operations under Serbian repression and pressures to maintain one singular course within the national civil resistance, independent organizations experienced some kind of pluralism during the 1990’s. Therefore, pluralism was not totally inexperienced, or better to say, unknown (Clark, 2000). As a result, at least some of the independent organizations that existed before the war in 1999 onwards had to go through slight reconfiguration and continue to expand within a new context. While civil society in the 1990s was associated with civil resistance, after 1999 under the new circumstances of constructing a new political system, civil society underwent a necessary transformation. This process of transformation was rapid as it shifted radically the focus of civil society organizations from the politics of resistance to the politics of reconstruction and peace building (Kipred, 2005).

Compared to pre-war circumstances, NGO sector after the war experienced a UN-sponsored language of peace building, reconstruction, reconciliation and multi-ethnicity. In order to please UNMIK and lots of international donors all types of associations and NGO’s mentioned above were chasing donors whose funds they embezzled by organizing largely meaningless trainings, conferences, and roundtables on how to reconcile Serbs and Albanians just couple of months and years after bloody war was finished (Khdr, 2008). Most of the NGO’s will become politically relevant only when UNMIK and other international donors needed them to implement similar short-term projects. Consequently the rise of thousands of local NGOs was accompanied by a feeling of public skepticism and a fear that they are not driven by authentic needs but apply for similar projects to please foreign donors.

In 2002, after the new Kosovo institutions were established the relationship between these NGOs and state institutions needed further reconfiguration. At this point NGOs formed after the war removed from UNMIK structures and
no longer had any direct influence in policymaking. This phase of development of NGO sector as part of civil society has proven to be quite challenging, especially for that part of NGOs that emerged after the war (Brand, 2003). On the other hand, several major associations that existed before the war registered as NGOs. These organizations together with others that have succeeded from the disbanded Kosovo Liberation Army (KLA) were connected to major political parties and had better access to the government resources when their respective parties would come in power.

Another serious problem that started between the years 2003 and 2004 was the decrease of international donations. This started to affect the financial sustainability of most NGOs. At this point from 2003 to 2005, not only as a result of the proliferation of NGOs but also because of the antagonistic relationships between major NGOs, the Civil Society of Kosovo gradually began to lose its pre war homogeneity.

The antagonistic relationships within the NGO sector were mostly a consequence of a variety of historical reasons and competition born out of competition for foreign and domestic funding. After the formation of Kosovar institutions, powerful NGOs started to take political sides and represented interests based on organizational histories and inter-NGO linkages, rather than based on the forms of their activities (Atrc, 2008). Consequently, NGO sector became divided between different types of groups, from large-scale network organizations that have pre-dated the war to NGOs that emerged after the war (Kipred, 2005). As a result of this division a good number of NGOs failed to build their own identity as part of civil society, instead they formed particular ‘cliques’ within Kosovar institutions and political parties, or within the international community in Kosovo. Such cliques are usually connected to major sources of donor money like the international organizations coming both from U.S. and EU and later to the Kosovo Government and sometimes with political parties (Kipred, 2005). This antagonism impacted fair competition, because animosities and intolerance usually stretched into a highly personal level, thus preventing NGO networks from having a more unified voice towards the Government.

Similar animosities reflected the important interaction of some NGOs with the Kosovo institutions, as cooperation would often be sporadic and too dependent on individuals. The government(s) felt quite comfortable, as this fragmentation existed and as long as Kosovar media gave only limited space for NGOs to organize true public debate and coverage of all sides of important issues. Consequently, the political system these days remains partly open for cooperation with NGO sector and their input in the policy process and political influence is greatly constrained.

4. Summary and Conclusions: Looking Forward

4.1 Birth or Rebirth of Kosovo’s Civil Society

During the breakdowns of the communist regimes there is no doubt that civil society played an important and historic role. Civil society’s contribution was also significant in the process of democratic consolidation that followed the breakdown of the communism in East Central European countries. The East Central European movements of 1989 sent reverberations throughout the continent, including the former Yugoslavia, and by default in Kosovo (The Independent International Commission on Kosovo, 2000). As outlined earlier civil society in Kosovo went through two developmental phases: civil resistance and solidarity before the war of 1998/1999, and the post-war period and building of democratic governance after the war. Consequently, these days NGO sector in some of its nuances is still divided among NGO’s that pre dated 1999 and those that were formed after the 1999. Relationship between these two groups of NGOs is still antagonized.

In a given setting in order overcome these antagonisms, become a force for democracy and be able to contribute to the democratization process by deliberating public problems, most of the NGOs should first start to address their internal problems such is the legal framework, prepare a strategy to strengthen their participation in the European integration process, reach out to their target groups, address their financial sustainability problems and improve cooperation with the Government. NGO’s should be persistent on drafting legislation that will better facilitate their activities in the future.

NGOs are among the most important actors in the complex constellation of stakeholders in the EU Integration process. As the integration process develops in the future, Western Balkan countries will continue working to secure and/or improve present positions with regard to their European agendas. This ultimate goal continues to be challenging and it will call for an action from multiple society layers, whereas NGOs as an important part of civil society can contribute to the quality of and public support for pre-accession related reforms. NGOs could play an indispensable role in sustaining democratic development and good governance, especially against the background of historical complexities and challenges of transition in Kosovo. NGO sector can become one of the main partners in Kosovo’s EU integration process, but their capacities for participating in policy- and decision-making need to be improved (Progress Report, 2008). The leadership of both Kosovo institutions and NGO sector in cooperation with international actors involved in
Kosovo should prepare a strategy in order to strengthen the role and participation of NGOs in the European integration process.

There are several instruments that NGOs can use to participate in the process. Kosovo needs to develop a sustainable triangle between the government, the EU and civil society relations. NGOs need also to reach out more often to their target groups in order to create stronger networks between them. It is important to shun the individualistic and narrow interests when it comes to networking, and see the benefits of NGO joint action, which is ultimately a more powerful force compared to their individual capacities. They need to reach out more to their target groups and apply a more focused approach in their mission, rather than opportunistically shifting towards donor priorities.

Another serious problem that remains to be addressed from NGOs is that of financial sustainability. NGOs should not depend solely on international donors. Government funding, private donations and other funding options would help to ensure institutional and financial sustainability. Last but not least cooperation between the Government and NGO sector should be based on acceptance of shared responsibilities for relevant matters, recognition of shared values, and in sharing financial and human resources. In order to do this not just NGO’s but government institutions should also reconsider being the exclusive provider of public services and identify activities the NGO sector could perform. NGOs should work to build their capacity and professionalism and duly inform the public about their activities, as well as improve cooperation between NGOs. The Kosovar government should also be aware that it cannot address all the needs of a transforming society alone, which is why they need NGO efforts to complement them. This could possibly reduce current antagonism within the NGO sector that does enormous harm to the political efficacy of the civil society by taking different forms in practice.

At the time of democratic transitions in South Eastern Europe, different models existed in the West regarding the cooperation between the civil society and the state. Those are mostly models of a close relationship and cooperation between civil society and the state institutions, both in Western European countries and in United States. Leading dissidents and other groups in South Eastern Europe, including Balkans, have chosen the model of complete ‘opposition’ or ‘anti-institutional’ behavior. This model was not supported only because of the particular context of the dictatorship regimes, but because civil society was believed to be inherently ‘anti- institutional’ irrespective of the nature of the regime. While in South East European countries this behavior marked the period after the fall of communism, in Kosovo similar relationship between NGO’s and state institutions took place after 1999 (Atrc, 2008). It means that some NGO’s even after 1999 in many situations continued to practice that same aggressive negativity towards the Kosovo state institutions as they did during the 1990s under the circumstances of apartheid against the Serbian regime. It is understandable that this frustration comes as a result of highly centralized political party structures in the Government(s) which supports only particular NGOs and prevents other NGOs from having greater access to the policy making process, but this could also be a justification only for a number of NGOs that do not have well formulated policy goals so they could contribute to the policymaking process.

Regardless of this situation many of these NGOs are needed for the democratization process, especially NGOs with strong constituencies and those interested in impacting state policies. However, some of these NGOs need to change their approach and this would mean not only to offer alternatives for the problems they identify, but look for ways to actively participate in the policymaking process.

What remains ahead for NGO sector as a very important part of civil society is try to articulate a new vision for Kosovo’s future (Kipred, 2005). This would be possible also with a more integrative approach from the political parties, and by drafting legislation that will enable NGOs to participate in the decision making process, using EU mechanisms and instruments to contribute to the democratization processes and by improving communication between media and NGO sector. NGOs should be more independent from state but more active on behalf of citizens towards the state. ‘This doesn’t mean that they should take the role of the state or of other actors in the society, but they should improve the interplay of citizens with the state and achieve better effectiveness and responsiveness of its institutions.’ (Spurk,2008). In order to establish a collective identity within Kosovo’s new polity, NGOs, apart from sensitive historical elements and meaningful civic ideologies, need to articulate the civic engagement and activism. While articulating the overall values of active citizenship, political engagement, plurality and solidarity, NGO sector will complement the so-called ‘bigger picture’ by becoming a central factor for the development of a sustainable democratic community.

It is also important to define their agendas and build constituencies. Thus, a better cooperation between the Government and NGOs could be established. First step towards a meaningful cooperation between the government and NGO sector is to define the rights and responsibilities through a legal framework, which would formalize the cooperation between each of the sectors. It is the duty of the Government to create a favorable climate in order for NGOs to become more functional. Because the Government is dominated by rigid party structures it is not expected that they will be the first ones to start this reform. If communication between Government and civil society representatives brings no results,
NGO representatives could use EU Integration as a process in order to address this concern within the European Partnership instrument. The EC has a huge bargaining power within the EU Integration process, and they address issues regularly with national authorities, and follow up whether the government has implemented their recommendations and report accordingly in the progress report.

As outlined earlier various authors conceptualized the relation between civil society and the state in different ways. ‘Historical examples of this interpretation include Locke’s thesis that civil society offers protection from the potential abuses of state power. Similarly, Montesquieu argued for a balance between state and civil society. Likewise, de Tocqueville advocated self-government and civic participation as a means for counteracting power abuses by the state and/or other social majorities.’ (Fischer 2006). Civic performance in its essence implies good behavior of a citizen and his or her acting for a “good cause” that is in favor of the interests of the entire community. The civic performance does not necessarily imply “anti-state”, “anti-social-order” or anti-institutional actions, although, most frequently, it may seem to belong to the “anti” type of behavior. It seems that under new circumstances NGO sector is having problems to understand its new role. Their role as part of civil society is not to change the system (this was pre 1999 goal), they should be contributing to the development of the system regardless of the fact that this might sound complex if we take into consideration constants clashes between major NGO groups with the Government.

NGOs interested in impacting state policies should look for the instruments and mechanisms that will help reshape and improve their cooperation with the Government structures. In order for this to happen a contribution from both NGO sector and of the state is needed. Only when this happens will the new generations of Kosovo NGOs see the state as their protector, and political leaders will see civil society representatives as their supporters rather then a threat to themselves, only then, will a truly vibrant civil society be able to develop in Kosovo. However, this is not an easy mission. It is important to be recognized that participation of more citizen groups and civil society organizations in governance could potentially produce conflicts of interests between them. This is likely to happen in transitional societies like Kosovo. To avoid similar situations state institutions should enforce consistently legal and judiciary system reforms in order to settle disputes between all possible parties involved in the future public decision-making.

The Republic of Kosovo, in its seventh year as an independent state, faced significant challenges in addressing international and domestic events. Kosovo made global headlines when the International Court of Justice declared that Kosovo’s unilateral declaration of independence did not violate international law. The country’s image in the international arena was seriously tarnished when a member of the Parliamentary Assembly of the Council of Europe, Dick Marty, came out with a report on alleged criminal activities of the Kosovo Liberation Army during and after the war. The dialogue between Kosovo and Serbia may improve regional stability and cooperation, but as EU does not have a unified position on Kosovo independence, it may face similar problems also when its concerns the dialogue. In the meantime, the Kosovo Government will continue to struggle for a stable coalition, and their main challenge will be to rally the political potential in order to fight organized crime and corruption. There is a question whether they will manage to implement fully their executive mandate, specifically in the northern municipalities, in order to build a state with a functional rule of law.

These circumstances are the opportunity for NGO sector as part of civil society to play a role in determining the parameters and the quality of governance and social policy during the process of peace & state building. As it can be seen, civil society groups were a factor under the circumstances of apartheid and can be potentially a force for peace and democratization process. ‘Civil society actors can strive for democratic values and reconciliation. But in many countries undergoing transitions from violence to peace, civil society per se does not necessarily contain an emancipatory potential. This is further undermined when the civil society itself must be democratized.’ (Fischer, 2006). In today’s world ‘Civil Society’ has become a widely used term, essentially it is “the big idea on everyone’s lips” (Edwards 2004). Instead of aiming the job ‘everyone wishes to perform’, Kosovo’s NGO sector as important part of civil society should go through the process of internal democratization before its serious engagement in the very important processes of state building and EU integration. This could be the so-called process of ‘rebirth’ of the civil society in Kosovo.

Democracy is a process and it will take some time for Kosovo NGO’s to develop their political activism. Citizens in democracy have both rights and duties and this is the fundament for the democratic governance as they are given the opportunity to actively shape their individual interests within the public sphere. To understand socio-political changes in the ‘New-Born’ Kosovo, civil society needs to be taken into account in order to give answers to many ethical questions regarding the political and institutional practices in independent Kosovo. Effective civil society requires effective state institutions. Government structures will have to allow greater presence of NGOs in policy-making process.

The above initiatives followed with an action plan from all sides are relevant to foster and enable a better environment for the NGO sector development, which could in a later stage produce a healthier STATE-NGO relationship. With similar actions taken from all possible stakeholders NGO’s could potentially overcome the current fragmentation and antagonisms. This would be a new atmosphere with no need for the so-called ‘anti institutional’ model of behavior for...
many NGOs, because there will be less space for the Government to play favoritisms among different NGOs and associations, and because fair and open competition will be guaranteed by law. Operating in such circumstances many NGO representatives would gradually realize that civil society’s pre 1990 role was different from today. Today, their roles and contributions are different as they can seriously contribute to develop the system, not necessarily by using the ‘anti-system’ approach. It is civil society’s role to make state institutions more accountable and effective in order to strengthen citizen’s respect for the state and encourage their positive engagement. The fact the civil society is independent doesn’t mean that it should be in tension with the state institutions and permanently criticize and oppose them.

This is a fantasy of a creative, fluid and free civil society. This is the concept of civil society that is not defined negatively as opposition to the state, but positively, in the context of the ideas and practices through which cooperation and trust is established between the state institutions and civil society thus contributing to the democratization processes and potentially becoming a ‘postmodern’ panacea for the Kosovo society.

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Comparative Evaluation of Media Literacy Course: The Case of Turkey

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Abstract

In recent years, media literacy, as the result of unavoidable rapidly evolving technology, emerges as an issue that should be considered. Cause of the adult and children remain under the influence of early intensive of media messages, parents and educators are led to take measures against of the media messages. Today, it is not possible to stay completely away from the media. Reading media messages and determine the useful content regarded as a correct behavior. Choosing the correct information in the media as the emergence of the information density, which is now in the position of issuing content viewer / listener / is an extremely important point for publishers. The aim of the this study is to reveal the comparative study of media literacy course and its implementation style which is starting in Turkey and yet close to take place in the curriculum of the past elemantry school between the courses in United States and schools in Europe. In this context, domestic and foreign sources written about media literacy were utilized. Concrete information on applications in Turkey in order to achieve the 2006-2007 academic year of the pilot school for the teaching of media literacy course Ankara Cankaya Ahmet Vefik Pasha Primary School was conducted in research. The questions designed to obtain information on the implementation of the course is directed on teacher; the results obtained are used as another source in the study. After the interviews, the mass media in our lives that encompasses all areas and reaching out to different sizes with technological innovation community life, which gained strength in a century that have a say in the media literacy traditional approach seen in the education system in Turkey is possible to say that its impact in the course. Especially when you compare it with samples in the world, the need when they need to take more important steps in Turkey's media literacy practices in both gold was drawn

Keywords: Media Literacy, Media Literacy Course, Media Literacy Course in Turkey

1. Introduction

In the conference held in Aspen Institute1 in 1992, media literacy was defined as "skill of accessing messages in a vast variety of forms, analyzing, evaluating and conveying the same". In a different definition made in 19982, media literacy was tried to be explained as "educational tool in school, a value for the conscious citizens, a variable for researchers, a cultural problem, common concern of the public" (RobbGrieco, 2007: 5)

Potter deliberated primarily on the notion of "literacy" and the definition of this notion while trying to explain media literacy. According to Potter, the notion of “literacy” for many people is comprehended as the skill to “read” by associating it with published-printed media. Some sources expanded this concept into “visual literacy” by including television and cinema into its composition. Some other sources made a classification of “computer literacy” in connection to technological developments (Potter, 2004: 33).

Reading, visual literacy or computer literacy are not synonyms for media literacy. Media literacy includes all these skills, traits and much more. We cannot understand printed media without reading; if we have difficulty understanding visual messages, we cannot benefit from visual media; if we do not know how to use a computer, we cannot follow the developments in this field. Conclusively, media literacy is a general notion that is much more than these characteristics (Potter, 2004: 34).

Media literacy comprises of points of view, which we open ourselves to effects directed by the media, and which allows us to interpret such messages. Points of view are formed with information. We need tools and raw material to form and construct information. These tools are our skills. Raw materials are information obtained from media and the environment. We should be aware of the messages and their interactions with each other (Potter, 2004: 34). Media literacy helps us sail in confidence on the sea of images and messages. Today, we no longer obtain information about the world via some words printed on pieces of paper. Effective images and sounds reach us through different media (Thoman

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2 Ibid
and Jolls, 2003: 21).

Mediathas its own visual-audial language, with its own rules, which are used to convey notions and opinions. Media literacy is the skill to accurately evaluate, analyze and reform media within its many different forms. Media literacy is the 21st century approach to education (Thoman ve Jolls, 2003; 21). Media literacy is used to refer to the individual’s learning of critical analysis process and forming its own messages (with published, audial, visual and multiple media) (Hobbs, 2004: 1).

Media literacy is defined as “an education program that makes individuals be informed about media texts, provides them to be more resistant to their potential harmful effects, and which invites media organizations to act more carefully by raising awareness in individuals” (RTUK, 2007;35) by Radio Television Supreme Council (RTUK), which is prominent with its initiatives about media literacy in Turkey.

Up to this section, we have tried to provide brief information about what media literacy is or is not. In the 21st century, we can observe that media covers a major period of time when we analyze our daily lives. Media and messages conveyed by media has surrounded us to such an extent that this bombardment of messages continue even when we are not directly in contact with media. Especially in major cities, billboards on every step, advertisement monitors on mass transit vehicles continue to send messages without our awareness.

Media, without discriminating against age, has become the number one entertainment tool in our “spare time” as also included in Lefebvre’s “daily live” notion. We, on the other hand, enable media to have an indispensible place in our lives by defining our consumption habits, means to access information, make use of our spare time and methods of communications via media itself.

In the 21st century, in terms of understanding media better, which has such an important part in human lives, processing messages received from media with an aware and critical approach and most important of all, making the future generations become aware of this field, it has become mandatory to become media literates and teach media literacy in schools by teachers with sufficient knowledge about the field.

Teaching media literacy in schools as part of the curriculum will be an important step towards accurate understanding of media, accurate analysis of messages and making young generations media literates. However a delicate matter that should be emphasized at this point, is the necessity to avoid the “protective approach” that is dominant with regard to protecting children from harmful contents of media, or the approach that makes us surrender to media messages resulting from incomplete explanation of the media content. Adopting a unilateral approach, arguing against media or lacking the effort to accurately understand media shall cause faulty results to be obtained following a media literacy education. In brief, as stated by Erdogan3 (2009) “instead of becoming a viewer by following the ‘view’ prepared for us”, it is necessary to correctly understand and convey media literacy; and come to conclusions by analyzing media in order to become critical viewers. ”

2. Methodology

In this study, academic articles and books about media literacy and many local or foreign resources on the subject were examined with the literature review method. Especially the subject of “media literacy education” constitutes the common characteristics of these resources.

With the purpose to explain examples outside of Turkey, resources that are explanatory with regard to the curriculum system of such examples are considered. For examining the examples from Turkey, Media Literacy Teacher Handbook published by RTUK, and, Teacher Handbook published by MoE and RTUK were used, which include pictorial representations for explaining course applications. We have tried to accumulate information about applications in Turkey by using the online resources of RTUK, which is an important promoter with regard to Media Literacy course in Turkey, and web sites designed especially for this purpose.

Other than the literature review method, in the conclusion section of the study and with the aim to obtain some data on the media literacy course, an interview was held with a course teacher in a primary school where the course is selected by some students, after media literacy course was introduced to the curriculum as an elective course in Ankara. Questions that might effect the conclusion section of the study were directed to the teacher in this interview.

Furthermore, scope of the theoretical part of the subject was defined by researching the media literacy course application in some countries located in America and Europe. In the conclusion section, the boundaries of the study was defined with the primary school where media literacy course is an elective course, within the borders of Ankara province.

The main idea this study shows is that, in contrary to the world applications and along with the assumption that

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Turkey has fell behind in applying the course, media literacy course being introduced to only the primary schools demonstrates that the traditional educational approach of Turkey has reflected on the application of this course.

3. Analysis and Discussion

Initiatives on media literacy has started in the late 1920s and early 1930s in the USA. Upon concerns of parents, research on the effects of cinemas on children can constitute an example for these initiatives. Concerns of parents elevated with the publication of Fredric Wertham’s “Seduction of the Innocent” in 1954 (Kearney, 2006: 322). The first official media literacy program has entered the agenda with the proposal of Canada National Association of Educational Publishers (AEP) following the elevation of concerns toward the effects of media in 1959 (Kearney, 2006: 323).

Concerns about children’s habit of watching television were revealed once again in USA in the early 1970s. These concerns once again elevated with the publication of Surgeon General’s Scientific Advisory Committee’s report on television and social behavior in 1972. According to this report, anti-social behaviors of children are in correlation with the violence scenes shown on television. In the following years, more reports were published, warning the public about paying more attention to mass communication tools. These reports enabled many research to be conducted on media literacy (Kearney, 2006: 323).

In 1980s, efforts about media education received support from educators, families and public officials in Canada, Austria and Britain, where little support was received in the USA. However, while media literacy course was in the curriculums of only twelve states in 1999, the number of states with the course reached forty-nine in two years. The reason for this, along with the support of the government and private organizations, can be summarized as support from public organizations comprised of teachers and media activists such as the Center for Media Literacy (Kearney, 2006: 323).

In an international conference entitled “Educating for the Media and the Digital Age” held in Vienna in 1999, many speakers from various countries conveyed their opinions on media literacy. Cecilia von Feilitzen, participating the conference from Sweden, approached the media literacy education from another angle. According to Feilitzen, there are differences between western and eastern countries with regard to media literacy education. While in countries such as Austria, Canada and European countries, media literacy education emphasized subjects such as criticism and independence; in countries such as India, Brazil and South Africa media literacy education emphasized subjects such as freedom, development of the society as a whole, and social justice (Feilitzen, 1999: 4).

Media literacy, after being born and developed in the USA, has started to be accepted as an indispensable part of education in many other countries. Today, media literacy in France is operated by an agency entitled Center of Liaison Between Teaching and Information under the roof of the Ministry of Education. In Israel, it is emphasized that media literacy can be used as a tool for achieving social objectives. Another conspicuous aspect in Israel’s application is that media literacy education is not tied to any central administration, and is applied according to the programs prepared by each separate school (Cho ve Heins, 2003: 36).

As a result of a study conducted in 1991 by the Ministry of Education of Australia on students enrolled in mid-level schools, it is observed that the students could not differentiate between real lives and fictional lives on television. The grounds for this observation was based on the inability for children to fully grasp life in those ages. Another reason suggested excess exposure to media messages. As result of the study, the importance of media literacy was emphasized for teaching critical thinking (Cho ve Heins, 2003: 37).

When we examine Russia, a different country than the ones in Europe and America, it is seen that the fundamental objective media literacy education is to prepare the young generation to the new and modern information realm, comprehend, understand and realize the psychological effects on humans of different information (Fedorov, 2003: 1).

Following the brief information on media literacy in the world, we shall provide information on how the course is applied in Turkey.

RTUK is the prominent body with regard to media literacy initiatives in Turkey. In the Teacher Handbook prepared by RTUK, gains of students following completion of media literacy education is defined as follows:

“The student, instead of remaining a passive receiver of media, it can resolve the language of media, and become an active individual within the notion of communication by reaching a state of awareness” (RTUK, 2007: 4)

Media literacy course, started as a pilot application in primary schools in selected provinces, and was later introduced to the curriculum of all primary schools as an elective course. Furthermore, RTUK conducts additional studies in the online environment for encouraging media literacy education. Web sites prepared for this purpose encourage

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media literacy. Additionally, painting and poem contests between primary school students are also remarkable in terms of their results.

It is possible to talk about other initiatives on media literacy in Turkey, such as the initiatives of the Ministry of Education. Teacher Handbook prepared by the MoE is another resource prepared for this course. In this study, with the purpose to have an opinion on the application of media literacy course in Turkey, an interview was conducted with a teacher of the course in a primary school located in Ankara. Results of this interview and comparison of media literacy education in Turkey and other countries shall be conveyed in the conclusion section below.

4. Conclusion

When we look at the education system of Turkey, we can state that it has a traditional structure. Educational activities that are conducted with traditional methods may cause difficulties in catching up with technological developments. Many aspects can be ignored in education activities directed at the class as a whole that do not take into consideration the personal and perception levels of students (Çetiner, Gencel and Erten, 1998).

Along with using the same methods in media literacy education, a “protective” approach shall delay the effective and goal-oriented results.

It is possible to make a comparison at some points with world applications:

1. Media literacy education has started many years ago in the USA and Europe. Media’s long history of development in comparison to its Turkish examples may be one of the most important reasons for this.

2. The long passage of time has provided a change in approach to media literacy education. Although started out with a protective approach, today many countries have adopted the approach that defends the media literacy to lay out and examine media itself. Turkey has a long way to go in this sense.

3. Another important point in world examples is that almost all resources take into hand the "media education" before talking about media literacy course. Importance attributed to media education demonstrates the requirement for emphasis on providing the media literacy course by teachers, who possess the required knowledge and foundations for teaching this course. Today in Turkey, faculty of communication graduates who possess the required knowledge on media cannot become teachers of this course.

4. Another important point regarding media literacy course around the world is the sensitivity of civil society on this matter. Associations founded by educators, families, academicians and public officials aim to attract attention to media literacy. Similar organizations that will be formed in Turkey surely will attract attention on media literacy.

5. Although criticism and informed approach and media literacy itself in brief is explained appropriately in resources prepared by RTUK and MoE, both of which intends to point to the importance of media literacy education in Turkey, different attitudes stand out in application of such teachings. RTUK’s Intelligent Signs application is a good example for this.

At this point, we can talk about the interview and the level media literacy course has arrived in Turkey: The interview was held at Ankara Çankaya Ahmet Vefik Paşa Primary School, which was selected as the pilot school for implementing the media literacy course in the academic year of 2006-2007. Course teacher is the teacher of social studies. The teacher, who stated that the course was assigned by the school administration, started to apply the course on 125 students after attending a training program. The teacher, who uses the Teacher Hand Book prepared by MoE, stated that the content of the book is insufficient and information presented by the book are merely summaries of the topic. It was also stated that the school materials are deficient and only printed mass communication tools could be used. An important point was made about the difference of male and female students in selecting the content they wanted to read in the newspaper reading application; accordingly male students preferred reading sports news, while female students preferred the tabloid content.

The teacher stated that no foreign resources are used during the course, and especially emphasized that warning against the negative effects of media was conveyed to students. Finally, when we asked whether they have any extra-curricular suggestions, we received the reply that there should be resources in place for students as well, as special materials for students could make the course more effective.

As a result, we can state that there are many obstacles in teaching media literacy in Turkey that are yet to be overcome, and the traditional and protective education approach prevents the course to achieve its actual goal. In order for the obstacles to be overcome, the course should be taught by faculty of communication graduates who have the sufficient knowledge on the subject; transformed from elective to mandatory by forming civil society organizations for this purpose; and scoring system should be introduced to the course to enhance its importance both for teachers, administration and students alike.
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Correlation between Strategy of Tahfiz Learning Styles and Students Performance in Al-Qur'an Memorization (Hifz)

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Abstract

The aim of this study is to review strategies of tahfiz learning styles in Tahfiz Institutions in Malaysia. The study involved a total of 212 students who studied in Diploma of Tahfiz Darul Qur'an, JAKIM. The questionnaire instruments were developed by researcher and its content has been validated by panel of experts. Cronbach’s alpha reliability level of value for all parts of the questionnaire was high (> 0.9). Research data was analyzed descriptively and inferential by using the mean, standard deviation, percentage, T-test and Pearson correlation. The findings show that the strategies of tahfiz al-Qur'an learning styles were at moderately high level. Inferential data analysis found significant differences between ‘gender’ and ‘location of tahfiz institutions’ and strategies of students learning styles. The findings also show strong significant relationship between strategies of tahfiz learning styles and students performance in memorization (hafazan). Research implications conclude that elements of strategy in tahfiz learning styles should be given special attention by all parties when drafting a curriculum for tahfiz teaching and learning so that the excellence in quality of the students can be achieved.

Keywords: Learning strategies, learning styles, tahfiz learning

1. Introduction

Tahfiz al-Qur’an education is the earliest education in the history of Islamic education. Memorization is also a method used by the Prophet PBUH (Peace Be Upon Him) to teach the Qur’an to his Companions (Al-Habash, 1987). Allah the Most High and Exalted has makes it easy for people to memorize the Qur’an (al-Qamar 54: 17) and preserves its contents so that the Qur’an is protected from all forms of abuse and changes (al-Hijr 15: 9). Memorising the Qur’an is an effort to prevent a loss amount of people to memorize the Qur’an and it is impossible they deny al-Qur’an (mutawatir al-Qur’an) and also avoid any attempt to distort and falsify the Qur’an (Al-Suyuti, 1987). Allah praises and appreciates those who memorized the Qur’an with honour and noble titles such as God’s chosen (Fatir 35: 32), those who have been given knowledge (al-Ankabut 29: 45) and the guardians of the authenticity of Qur’an (al-Hijr 15: 9).

2. Research Background

The development of tahfiz education in Malaysia, in most states move according to its own direction with the emergence of private and local tahfiz schools. Consequently, each state or tahfiz administers are free to adopt any curriculum or teaching methods from whichever country and according to educational backgrounds of individual teachers concerned (Azmil Hashim, 2010). This encourages tahfiz teachers to teach based on their own experiences and not a specific teaching method. Therefore tahfiz education systems which exist are not following any specific and systematic teaching methods (Wan Muhamad, 1995).

The factors that have been identified as a source of weakness in the performance of tahfiz are the weaknesses in teaching and learning methods of the tahfiz, i. e. the teachers still retain traditional methods of teaching and learning process in tahfiz (Mohamad Marzuq 2008; Azmil Hashim et al., 2014) although they agree with confidence that the use of technology is helping to improve the quality of memorizing the Qur’an (Mohamad Marzuq 2008).

Weaknesses in students’ performance in memorizing the Qur’an are also identified. It is due to discrepancy in strategies of tahfiz learning style i. e. students do not have proper strategy, methodology and motivation in learning tahfiz (Misnan and Ahmad Dadi, 2003; Azmil Hashim, 2010). Structured teaching and learning process for tahfiz could not be implemented properly because professional teaching skill program offer by educational institutions does not make much contribution towards tahfiz professional teaching skills (Azmil Hashim et al., 2013).
3. Research Questions

These studies generally aim to review *tahfiz* al-Qur'an learning styles that had been practiced by *tahfiz* students. Hence, the research questions are:

i. What are the strategies in *tahfiz* the Qur'an students’ learning styles?

ii. Are there differences in strategies of *tahfiz* al-Qur'an learning styles by gender?

iii. Are there differences in strategies of *tahfiz* al-Qur'an learning styles by locality of *tahfiz* institutions?

iv. Is there a significant correlation between strategies of *tahfiz* al-Qur'an learning styles and students' performance in memorizing the Qur'an?

4. Research Hypothesis

This study has the following hypotheses:

Ho1. There is no difference in strategies of *tahfiz* al-Qur'an learning styles by gender.

Ho2. There is no difference in strategies of *tahfiz* al-Qur'an learning styles by locality.

Ho3. There is no significant correlation between strategies of learning styles and students' performance in memorizing the Qur'an.

5. Research Methodology

This research is a quantitative study using questionnaire and is compatible with the survey method (Robson, 1988). The questionnaire used is selected questionnaire responses. In this study the researchers chose to use the method of data collection by five items Likert scale responses types, as a scale of respondent’s answers to all items used in this research instrument. Likert scale is suitable for measuring the views expressed by respondents in a particular area on an ongoing basis about a practice perceptions and attitudes (Cohen L, Manion L & Morrison K., 2000). In this research instrument, respondents were asked to rate an item by marking one of the numbers from 1 to 5, based on description for each number, i. e. Strongly Disagree (1) to Strongly Agree (5).

In order to determine its validity, the questionnaires were referred to nine people who have expertise and experience in their respective fields consisting of expertise in the field of *tahfiz* education, Qur'anic education and research. As for the reliability of the items in the questionnaire, an analysis of the data was performed to obtain Cronbach’s alpha values. It was found that the students’ questionnaire instrument has a high reliability, i. e. Cronbach’s alpha value of 0.96 as shown in Table 1 below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicator</th>
<th>Alpha Cronbach’s value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Very High</td>
<td>0.90-1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High</td>
<td>0.70-0.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moderate</td>
<td>0.30-0.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>0.00-0.30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Brymen & Cramer (1999)

The study was conducted at 11 Maahad and Tahfiz institutes across the country which implements Tahfiz Darul Qur’an, Department of Islamic Development Malaysia (JAKIM) curriculum. A total of 212 students were chosen as respondents for the study consisted of sixth semester student at Darul Qur’an, JAKIM and State Maahad Tahfiz Al-Qur’an (MTQN).

6. Research Analysis

The process of analyzing quantitative data was done descriptively through computerized analysis using Statistical Package for Social Sciences Version 12.0 software. Descriptive statistics used were frequency, percentage, mean and standard deviation. Researcher describes this descriptive analysis using interpretation tables mean affective behaviours that have been formulated by Nunally (1978) as shown in Table 2. The interpretation of the mean is arranged by descending order from the highest mean to the lowest mean.
Table 2. Interpretations Mean of Affective Behavioural Dimensions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mean Score</th>
<th>Interpretation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4.01-5.00</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.01-4.00</td>
<td>Moderate High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.01-3.00</td>
<td>Moderate Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.01-2.00</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Stufflebeam (1971)

Inferential statistical data analysis methods are used to obtain statistical inference from a sample of the total population. Independent-Samples T-Test procedure is used to test the significance level comparison of the mean for independent variables such as gender (male and female) and the location of the institution (DQ and MTQN). Correlation coefficient using Bivariate Correlations procedure to measure the strength of the correlation between the dependent variable is used. In this case, the Pearson correlation model was used because of the dependent variables was tested using the scale interval (Davies, 1971) as shown in Table 3.

Table 3. The Correlation Coefficient Value

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The Correlation Coefficient Value (r)</th>
<th>Interpretation of Coefficients</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>Perfect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.70-0.99</td>
<td>Very high</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.50-0.69</td>
<td>Strong (Substantial)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.30-0.49</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.10-0.29</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.01-0.09</td>
<td>Negligible</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Davies (1971)

7. Research Findings

7.1 Strategies in Tahfiz Al-Qur’an Learning Styles

Teaching strategies of tahfiz al-Qur’an were obtained through questionnaires among the students of tahfiz. Table 4 below shows the mean, standard deviation, frequency, percentage and interpretation of mean (score) of tahfiz al-Qur’an teaching and learning strategies according to students’ perceptions. The findings show that eight (8) items record interpretation of mean at a high level, eight (8) items record interpretation of mean at moderate level and only one item which record interpretation of mean at a moderately low level.

Eight items recorded the interpretation of mean at a high level is checking (tasmi‘) new (jadid) memorization by Syafawi (orally) item (mean=4.74, sd=0.57) with the percentage of very frequent and frequent at 97.7%, improving the interest in memorizing the Qur’an item (mean=4.69, sd=0.55) with the percentage of very frequent and frequent is 98.6%, supplicate prayer item (mean=4.55, sd=0.68) with the percentage of very frequent and frequent is 93.6%, learn the importance of memorizing (the Qur’an) item (mean=4.54, sd=0.63), sincerity of intention item (mean=4.47, sd=0.72) with percentages of very frequent and frequent is 92.6%, seeking for forgiveness item (mean=4.38, sd=0.82) with the percentage of very frequent and frequent is 90.4%, learn the advantages of memorizing item (mean = 4.30, sd=0.61) with the percentage of very frequent and frequent is 97.7%, and revising previous (qodim) memorization by Syafawi (orally) item (mean = 4.30, sd=0.91) with the percentage of very frequent and frequent is 84%.

While items that have interpretation mean at a moderate-high is complete memorization (muraja‘ah majmu‘) item according to schedule (mean=3.81, sd=1.18) with the percentage of very frequent and frequent is 68.8%, record new (jadid) memorization item (mean=3.50, sd=1.34) with the percentage of very frequent and frequent at 53.7%, has a specific schedule for revision item (mean=3.42, sd=1.05) with the percentage of very frequent and frequent is 49%, enhancing the motivation item (mean=3.25, sd=1.29) with the percentage of very frequent and frequent is 44%, steadfast in memorization revision item (mean=3.33, sd=1.01) with the percentage of very frequent and frequent is 41.7%, disciplined in following the revision schedule item (mean=3.21, sd=0.97) with the percentage very frequent and frequent at 35.3%, record old memorization item (mean=3.05, sd=1.34) with the percentage of very frequent and
frequent is 37.6%, and tested new (jadid) memorization by writing (tahriri) item (mean=3.01, sd=1.26) with the percentage of very frequent and frequent at 36.3%.

Meanwhile, the item that recorded interpretation mean at a moderately low level is revising previous (qodim) memorization by writing (tahriri) item (mean=2.90, sd=1.18) with the percentage of very frequent and frequent only 29.8%.

Based on the research findings, this study show that the learning strategies of tahfiz al-Qur'an preferred by students are checking (tasmi') new (jadid) memorization by Syafawi (orally), improving the interest in memorizing the Qur'an, supplicate prayer before memorizing, sincere intentions, seeking forgiveness, learn the advantages of memorizing the Qur'an, and revising previous (qodim) memorization by Syafawi (orally).

The study also found that the tahfiz Qur'an learning strategies which is given less attention by students are complete memorization (muraja'ah majmu') according to schedule, record the new (jadid) memorization, has a specific schedule for revision, enhance motivation, steadfast in memorization revision, discipline in following the revision schedule, record previous memorization (qadim) and tested new (jadid) memorization by writing (tahriri). While, the practice with the least attention by students is revising previous (qodim) memorization by writing (tahriri).

Table 4. Tahfiz Learning Styles Strategies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strategy</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D</th>
<th>Interpretation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>New (jadid) memorization by Syafawi (orally)</td>
<td>4.74</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Improving the interest in memorizing the Qur'an</td>
<td>4.69</td>
<td>0.55</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supplicate prayer</td>
<td>4.55</td>
<td>0.68</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learn the importance of memorizing (the Qur'an)</td>
<td>4.54</td>
<td>0.63</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sincerity of intention</td>
<td>4.47</td>
<td>0.72</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seeking for forgiveness</td>
<td>4.38</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learn the advantages of memorizing (the Qur'an)</td>
<td>4.30</td>
<td>0.61</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Revising old (qadim) memorization by Syafawi (orally)</td>
<td>4.30</td>
<td>0.91</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Complete memorization (muraja'ah majmu') according to schedule</td>
<td>3.81</td>
<td>1.18</td>
<td>Moderately High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Record the new (jadid) memorization</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>1.34</td>
<td>Moderately High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Has a specific schedule for revision (memorization)</td>
<td>3.42</td>
<td>1.05</td>
<td>Moderately High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Steadfast in memorization revision</td>
<td>3.33</td>
<td>1.01</td>
<td>Moderately High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enhancing the motivation</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td>1.29</td>
<td>Moderately High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disciplined in following the revision schedule</td>
<td>3.21</td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td>Moderately High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Record previous memorization (qodim)</td>
<td>3.05</td>
<td>1.34</td>
<td>Moderately High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tested new (jadid) memorization by writing (tahriri)</td>
<td>3.01</td>
<td>1.26</td>
<td>Moderately High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Revising previous (qodim) memorization by writing (tahriri)</td>
<td>2.90</td>
<td>1.18</td>
<td>Moderately Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total Mean</strong></td>
<td><strong>3.94</strong></td>
<td><strong>0.43</strong></td>
<td><strong>Moderately High</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

7.2 Differences in Strategies of Tahfiz al-Qur’an Learning Style by Gender Demographics

H₀: There is no significant difference between mean scores in strategies of tahfiz students learning style by gender demographics.

The research finding from one-way Analysis of Variance to examine the mean score in strategies of tahfiz al-Qur’an students learning style based on the gender demographics.

Table 5. T-test Differences in Strategies of Tahfiz Learning Style by Gender Demographics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sex</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>Sig. P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>3.86</td>
<td>0.45</td>
<td>-2.055</td>
<td>0.041*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>3.98</td>
<td>0.39</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Significant at the level of p<0.05

The T-test analysis results shown in Table 5 above shows significant differences in mean scores (P=0.041, p <0.05) in strategies of tahfiz learning style between males (mean=3.86, sd=0.45) and females (mean=3.98, p <0.39). With this result, H₀ is rejected. This analysis also showed that the strategies of tahfiz learning among female respondents are higher than male respondents.
7.3 Differences in Strategies of Tahfiz al-Qur'an Learning Style Based on Tahfiz Institution Locality Background

H₀₂ There is no significant differences between mean scores in strategies of tahfiz students learning style based on tahfiz institution locality background.

The research finding from one-way Analysis of Variance to examine the mean score in strategies of tahfiz al-Qur'an students learning style based on tahfiz institution locality background.

Table 6. T-test Differences in Strategies of Tahfiz Learning Style Based on Tahfiz Institution Locality Background

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Location</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>T-value</th>
<th>Sig. P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Darul Qur'an</td>
<td>143</td>
<td>3.96</td>
<td>0.44</td>
<td>2.117</td>
<td>0.035*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MTQN</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>0.38</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Significant at the level of p<0.05

The T-test analysis results as in Table 6 above shows significant differences in mean scores (P=0.035, p<0.05) for strategies of tahfiz learning style between the Darul Qur'an students (mean=3.96, sd=0.44) and the State Maahad Tahfiz al-Qur'an students (min =3.83, p<0.38). Hence, H₀₂ is rejected. This analysis also indicates that the strategies of tahfiz learning style among students of Darul Qur'an are higher than students in the State Maahad tahfiz al-Qur'an.

7.4 Relationship Between Strategies in Tahfiz Al-Qur'an Learning Style and Student Memorization (Hafazan) Performance Levels

Inferential data analysis has also been carried out to identify the relationship between strategies in tahfiz al-Qur'an learning styles and students memorization (hafazan) performance. This inference analysis relationship was conducted in order to answer the third question in this study. Pearson Correlation methods were used to analyze inference relationship in this study.

H₀₃ There is no significant correlation between strategies of learning styles and students’ performance in memorizing the Qur'an.

Results of Pearson correlation analysis are to identify the relationship between learning styles and students memorization performance as shown in Table 7 below:

Table 7. Correlation Between Tahfiz Learning Styles with Student Performance Level

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Correlation</th>
<th>r</th>
<th>Sig. P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strategy * Memorization (hifz) Performance</td>
<td>0.546**</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

** Correlation is significant at the level of p<0.01 N=212

Pearson correlation analysis is to identify the relationship between strategy in tahfiz al-Qur'an learning style and student memorization performance as shown in Table 7 above. It shows that there is a strong significant relationship between strategies in learning styles and student memorization performance (r=0.546, p<0.01). Thus, H₀₃ is rejected.

8. Discussion

The study found that the elements of strategy show that the strategy in tahfiz al-Qur'an learning style is an incremental design, i.e. continuous in development and improvement. This is evidenced by the elements of strategy in learning styles are moderately high. Strategies in tahfiz learning styles have three elements, i.e. preparatory strategy, reinforcement strategy and retention strategy.

The research findings of preparatory strategy in tahfiz learning styles show that students were focus and pay attention to these aspects of strategy, i.e. learn the importance of memorizing (the Qur'an), improving the interest in memorizing the Qur'an, learn the advantages of memorizing (the Qur'an), sincerity of intention, seeking forgiveness and supplicate pray before memorizing the Qur'an. Nevertheless the study also shows that students were less motivate in memorizing the Qur'an. This is evident by every item of preparatory strategies in students learning styles scored a higher level, but for enhancing the motivation item its only acquire moderately high score.

This shows that tahfiz students have the passion, initiative and high self learning in tahfiz al-Qur'an learning style.
Nevertheless in terms of motivational aspect, students feel it is not sufficient and require more guidance and improvement. The importance of motivation in tahfiz learning styles has been proved by Misnan and Ahmad Dadi (2003) by asserting that there is a high correlation between the methods of motivation and students performance in tahfiz al-Qur’an. Study by Azmil Hashim et al. (2014) also pointed out that higher level tahfiz learning methods can help in the performance of the Qur’an memorization because there is a significant correlation between higher level methods and the performance of the Qur’an memorization.

The findings of reinforcement strategy in tahfiz learning styles shows that the method of students recite new (jadid) memorization by syafawi (orally) is widely practiced. It is clearly indicated since this item is at a high level. Where else revising the new memorization by writing (tahriri) and students’ record their progress in a record book are not widely practiced by students. This is indicated clearly as both items are at moderate level. According to Abu Najihat (2002) and As-Syarbini (2004), in order to strengthen students’ memorization, teacher should do checking memorization (tasmī’) on each new (jadid) memorization orally (syafawi). Abu al-Wafa’ (1999) and Abu al-Fida’ (2006) also adds that tasmī’ new (jadid) memorizing must also be done by tahriri, i.e. by writing on paper.

The findings in memorization retention strategies in tahfiz learning styles shows that students are concerned about revising previous (qodim) memorization orally (syafawi). However, revising previous memorization in writing (tahriri) was not fully practiced by students. They are also less practiced in keeping their progress in record books. In retention strategy of tahfiz learning style, it indicates students did not complete memorization of the Qur’an (khatam) revision (murajā’ah majmu‘) according to schedule, lack of specific schedule for hafazan revision, less disciplined and less steadfast in following the revision memorizing schedule. Retention strategies in this learning style needs to be upgrade so that retention memorization can be achieved by students. This is evidence by Mohamad Marzuq (2008) who stated that the practice of īrādah i.e. tasmī qadim and murjā’ah majmu’ significantly correlated with student memorization performance.

This has been asserted by Abu Najihat (2002) that discipline and perseverance are indispensable in revising memorization of the Qur’an, and with this the verses of the Qur’an that has been memorized remain in students memory. Retention strategies in learning style has been affirmed by Muhammed Muhsin (1994), Abu al-Wafa (1999) and Abu Najihat (2002) by stating that in order to retain memorization, teachers are required to do tasmī of previous (qodim) memorization and revising memorization (murajā’ah majmu‘). Mohd Farouq (1427 AH) adds that at the end of each lesson, teacher should records the progress and development of students in a record book. Hence student’s memorizing level can be known and this can be a guide when teachers are assessing students’ performance in memorization.

8.1 Differences in Strategies of Tahfiz Teaching Based on Gender and Location of Institution

Overall, inferential statistical analysis showed that there are significant differences in the pattern of strategy in tahfiz al-Qur’an learning styles by gender and institutional location. The findings of the analysis showed that there are significant differences in strategy of learning styles between females and male students. It was found that female students have higher level strategies in learning styles than male students. This shows the use of learning strategies in tahfiz learning styles is wider among female students than male students. Generally, female students have a higher learning style than male students (Azhar Ahmad, 2006) and they are also having a higher level of commitment than male students (Rohani Arbaa, 2010). This study was consistent with the study of Azmil Hashim et al. (2014) which showed that there were significant differences in learning manners among females compare to males student. It was found that females’ students have a higher learning manner than male students. While the study by Rowe (2000) and Mac Donald et al. (1999) showed that male students are less committed to school and are more likely to face the risk of low academic performance, particularly in literacy. Male students also reported having less positive school experience in terms of enjoyment in school, the benefits received through the curriculum and positive response from teachers (Rowe 2000).

There are also significant differences in strategies of learning styles based on the background or locality of the institution. It was found that the students of Darul Qur’an have better strategies in learning styles than students of MTQN. It is likely Darul Qur’an has a more structured education system that emphasizes tahfiz learning styles compared to MTQN. The different learning styles based on the background or locality of the rural versus urban institutions occurred due to urban institutions have diversity of methods compared to rural schools (Kamarul Azmi Jasmi et al., 2011).

9. Study Implications

In general, this study found that, there are some weakness and shortcomings in the strategies of students learning styles which must be improved and developed. In the aspect of preparatory strategy in learning styles, it implies preparatory
strategy requires enhancement and improvement in an effort to increase knowledge on the importance and advantages of memorizing the Qur’an (tahfiz), instil deep interest in memorizing the Qur’an, always sincere in memorizing the Qur’an, purify oneself by seeking forgiveness and pray (to Allah) to make it easier and keep steadfast in memorizing verses from the Qur’an.  

While in the aspect of process strategy, it also implies guidance in memorizing methods, memorizing techniques, memorizing activities and preserved manner in memorizing the Qur’an should be enhanced. Development in educational technology should be utilised wisely to provide guidance on methods and techniques in memorizing (the Qur’an) as well as in tahfiz teaching and learning. Traditional methods of tahfiz education which is practice previously should be strengthened and enhanced by adapting into contemporary teaching and learning technologies.  

Implications of reinforcement strategies aspect in tahfiz learning styles are also need to enhance and improve. In reinforcement strategies, the checking (tasmić) of new (jadid) memorization should be implemented properly. Records on the progress of students memorizing and new memorizing revision by writings (tahriri) is an important aspect in this enforcement strategy. It can determine and measure the extent of performance and ability levels of students on their memorization.  

Implications for retention strategies in tahfiz learning styles also requires incremental change i.e. development and improvement. Aspects of improving discipline and steadfast in revising memorization is an attitude that needs to be improved. The practise of tasmic qodim and muraja’ah majmūʿ should be implemented in a good manner. Specific schedule for revising memorization by tasmic qodim and muraja’ah majmūʿ until the entire Qur’an is fully memorized (khatam) successfully according to the schedule should be fully enforced. While checking previous memorization by writing (Tahriri) is also an important aspect of retention strategies that should not be ignored.  

The findings of differences in tahfiz al-Qur’an learning styles from this study provides an understanding of gender factors that should be taken into consideration by all parties in formulating strategies for tahfiz learning styles. Thus the students may excel in their memorization especially male students. Meanwhile the locality factors should also be considered when formulating strategies for tahfiz learning styles in order to form a conducive learning climate in all tahfiz institutions due to improve the quality of students memorization performance.  

Analysis of strategies in tahfiz learning style found a strong relationship between tahfiz learning styles and students’ performance in memorization. It provides an understanding that the strategies in tahfiz learning styles should be given explicit emphasis, and extended in tahfiz learning style. This is because the strategy in learning style has contributed significantly to the performance of tahfiz students.  

10. Conclusion  

This study shows the strategies in tahfiz learning styles and its relationship with students’ performance. The findings also indicate that the strategies in tahfiz students learning styles have a strong relationship with student’s performance. Thus the elements of strategies in tahfiz learning styles should be given special attention by all parties when drafting a curriculum for tahfiz teaching and learning. Tahfiz teachers and students should be exposed to these strategies and implement them in the teaching and learning of tahfiz. This is to ensure that the students achieve an excellence quality performance in memorizing the Qur’an.

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The Relationship between Culture and Organizational Commitment among Chinese Primary School Teachers

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Abstract

The purpose of this study is to identify the relationship between school culture and organizational commitment. The study focused on twenty-three Primary Chinese Schools (SJKC) in Kota Setar, Kedah, Malaysia. 200 teachers were randomly selected to be the respondents where they were asked to complete the School Culture Inventory (SCI) (Maslowski, 2001) questionnaire to test the school culture while Organizational Commitment (OC) (Meyer & Allen, 1990) to examine teachers’ commitment. Descriptive statistics of the SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) version 19.0 were used to analyze the data to determine the frequency, percentage, mean and standard deviation. Using Alpha Cronbachs, the reliability test of the instrument is 0.90. To test the school culture and organizational commitment, statistical methods, descriptive and inferential statistics were used. Data collected was found to be not normal (K-S test) where Spearman correlation p < 0.05.

Findings indicate that school culture is related to organizational commitment. Dimensions of human relations, open system, rational goal, internal process showed positive and significant relationships with organizational commitment, thus, proving that school culture is a predictor of organizational commitment.

Keywords: School Culture, Organizational Commitment, Chinese Primary School

1. Introduction

To materialise Mission 2020, the important aspect that needs to be addressed is the schools’ organizational culture, teachers’ commitment and school efficacy (Education Development Blueprint 2006-2010, 2007). Previous researches done showed the factor that impedes school success is the school organizational culture (Hopkins, 2005). Thus, in order to increase the quality of education we should focus on this factor.

Although similar curriculum is used throughout the schools in Malaysia, the school culture between the schools still differ. According to Marimuthu (1990), school culture consists of values, beliefs, knowledge and traditions, thinking styles and behaviours which are different from other social institutions. So, although schools are provided with the same infrastructure and work force the achievements of the schools still differ (Sharifah Md Nor, 2000; Huberman, 1992; Bolman & Deal, 1991). This proves that school leadership plays an important role in determining school culture (Sergiovanni, 2000; Deal & Peterson, 1999).

The performance of a school relates closely to teachers’ high commitment for without it, the school’s target will be difficult to achieve. The effectiveness of teaching and learning depends on teachers’ quality (Abdullah dan Ainon, 2005). Teachers who are highly committed will ensure that every task delegated are completed successfully. Teachers’ commitment is related to work performance and the ability to create and consolidate new ideas in their teaching, having influence on their students’ achievement, and teachers’ attitude towards the school (Tsui & Cheng, 1999).

Studies about school culture in Malaysia and effective schools are still scarce (EPRD, 2004). Although studies...
conducted overseas are vast, majority are empirical qualitative studies and thus the data collection are from small schools (Colley, 1999; Kelley & Bredeson, 1987). Other studies on school culture only focussed on comparison between secondary schools (Cavanagh & Dellar, 1998; Pang, 1996). Therefore, this study aims to identify the school climate or culture at a primary chinese school (SJKC) in the district of Alor Setar and its relationship with teachers’ commitment towards the school.

A study by Pang (1998) focussed on school culture in secondary schools in Hong Kong. Pang (1998) identified the school culture profile based on the composite score on four variable: bureaucratic relationship, culture relationship, authoritarian monitoring and laidback monitoring. However, Pang (1998) did not analyze the profiles to identify types of secondary school cultures. Thus, this study tends to explore the existence of types of secondary school cultures. The knowledge about school culture and values is vital. Schools can use this study to identify their own school cultures and display values that work towards their school success. If school cultures are identified, school administrators will be able to plan and implement appropriate actions to improve their schools.

Commitment also relates to the achievement of the organization’s aims (Mintzberg, 1989). An effective should have committed teachers towards achieving the school’s vision and mission. A study by Kushman (1992) showed that there is a strong relationship between commitment and school culture, collaboration and school climate. Nir (2002) stated that teachers’ commitment is also related to the efficacy of the school, work performance, work satisfaction and students’ achievement. Committed teachers are more motivated to work towards change and are responsible (Firestone & Pennell, 1993) more sensitive, dedicated and diligent (Elliot & Crosswell, 2003). Therefore, this study will focus on school culture and teachers’ commitment of SJKC.

1.1 Objectives

The objectives of this study is to identify the school culture based on the dimensions such as human relation, open system, rational goals and internal process in SJKC in the district of Alor Setar in Kedah. This study also aims to examine the relationship between school culture and teachers’ commitment.

i. To identify school culture dimensions at SJKC in the district of Alor Setar in Kedah.

ii. To identify the relationship between school culture and organizational commitment.

2. Literature Review

Fullan dan Hargreaves (1996) defines culture as beliefs, assumptions, and hope in terms of school operations. School culture is also defined as school beliefs and values that are shared together or agreed upon as true and accurate Hobby (2004). School culture aspects can be identified through similar content and strength (Maloswki, 1993). Content refers to basic assumption meaning, norms, and values shared together by the school community.

According to Pang (2006), the strength of a culture is a combination of a clear definition of values and the level of values and norms practices. The strength of a culture relates to the social control that suits the school's values and norms. A weak school culture generates teachers who only follow the set guidelines and do not act innovatively. A strong school culture will influence various values, norms, beliefs, symbols, traditions and language which will color the students’ future. The school community has to be exposed to and practice good and effective moral values in line with the National Philosophy of Education (NPE) (Asmawati Suhid, 2005). School culture has to be identified and understood so as to increase school's performance and achieve the NPE objectives (PIPP 2006-2010, 2007).

Ng (2006) who conducted a school culture study in a normal primary school (SK) and SJK in Malaysia found that SK schools display hierarchy culture compared to SJK. The findings showed that younger teachers in SK respect their seniors, are humble and respectful; and maintain the good name of their schools. On the other hand, in SJK the teachers were more individualistic, selfish and outspoken although they know their words may hurt others and cause conflict.

Deal and Kennedy (1982) and Peters and Waterman (1982) suggested that the culture of an organization gives a great impact on the organization especially in terms of performance and commitment. Teachers’ commitment is identified as one most critical factors to determine future performance of education and schools (Huberman, 1993). Teachers’ commitment is related to work performance and the ability to create and consolidate new ideas in their teaching, having influence on their students’ achievement, and teachers’ attitude towards the school (Tsui & Cheng, 1999). To maintain the energy and the working spirit, teachers should uphold their personal commitment towards work (Day, 2004).

There is positive relationship between organizational culture and organizational commitment among the Chinese community in Taiwan according to a study by Chow et al (2001). The dimensions such as innovation, aggression, respectful, and stability showed a strong relationship with commitment and work satisfaction. Team work showed average
relationship. A study by Ritche (2000) showed that organizational culture has an influence and effect on the performance of an individual and organization.

There is a positive relationship between secondary school teachers’ commitment with school culture according to Jones (1998). 11 schools in New Jersey were tested by Jones (1998) to examine the relationship between commitment and school culture by involving the school administrators and teachers as respondents. The result showed that the relationship between variables such as loyalty, work environment, happiness, and information sharing among colleagues have positive relationship with commitment.

There are three factors that influence teachers’ commitment in schools are personal, school and system (Elliot dan Crosswell, 2001). Personal factor refers to personal daily life. Professional factor denotes to the importance of involvement and responsibility towards the profession. School factor relates to positive relationship with colleagues and the feeling of ownership while system factor refers to control, support, and teachers’ influence towards the reform processes done. Lack of support from colleagues, students’ parents and school administrators may influence teachers’ commitment. It is difficult to be in schools that do not support change and development (Elliot & Crosswell, 2001).

Lee et al. (2010) suggested the orientation of school aims as an important factor that affects teachers’ commitment. The relationship between the teachers, especially a collaborative relationship is one important factor suggested by several researchers in their studies on school culture and teachers’ commitment (Paine dan Ma, 1993).

The result findings of the study done by Wang et al. (2007) showed that school culture affects teachers’ commitment towards the school. Therefore, if a school increases the strength of its school culture, teachers will increase their loyalty. The literature review showed that the role of school culture is closely related to teachers commitment. The variables that relate to school culture have significant relationship on teachers’ commitment towards school. The researcher aims to identify the relationship between school culture and teachers’ commitment towards school.

There are five null hypotheses that will be studied here.

**Ho1:** There is no significant relationship between school culture and teachers’ commitment.

**Ho2:** There is no significant relationship between human relations dimension and teachers’ commitment.

**Ho3:** There is no significant relationship between open system dimension and teachers’ commitment.

**Ho4:** There is no significant relationship between rational goal dimension and teachers’ commitment.

**Ho5:** There is no significant relationship between internal process dimension and teachers’ commitment.

### 3. Method

Since this study involved a huge number of respondents and there were differences between schools, a quantitative approach was suitable to be employed Pang (2006). Stratified random sampling was appropriate for mixed populations because this method could reduce the sample error, decrease variants, and give correct assumptions (Gorard, 2001), a less sample count and nearly represent a perfect population (Johnson & Christensen, 2004). Size Determinant Table for educational research activities built by Krejcie and Morgan (1970) was used to determine the research sample and 228 teachers chosen from among several SJKC in the district of Kota Setar through simple random sampling were used as research sample.

To identify the school culture dimensions which focus on organizational efficacy values, questionnaire constructed by Krejcie dan Morgan (1970) was employed whereas to examine teachers’ commitment Organizational Commitment (OC) (Meyer & Allen, 1990) questionnaire was used. Section A consisted of teachers’ personal information such as gender, marital status, age, ethnic group, years of teaching experience, years of teaching in the school and level of education. Section B involved 4 school culture dimensions which contained 10 to 11 items for each dimension (human relationship (1-11), open system (12-21), rational aims (22-31), internal process (32-42) and five options were given; Never (N), Very Seldom (VS), Seldom (S), Often (O), Very Often (VO). Section C dealt with teachers’ commitment which involved 24 items based on Organizational Commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1990) questionnaire. 5 Likert scale was given; 1= Disagree (D), 2= Slightly Disagree (SD), 3= Slightly Agree (SlA), 4= Strongly Agree (StA) and 5= Very Strongly Agree (VSA).

The pilot study was conducted at an SJKC in the district of Kubang Pasu to test the validity of the instrument. 45 teachers completed the questionnaire and data analysis showed Alpha Cronbach Coefficient Value ($\alpha$) = 0.95 which meant the instrument was suitable to be used in the real study.

### 3.1 Data Collection

After attaining the approval to conduct the study from EPRD and from the Education Department in Kedah, the
researcher distributed the research instruments to the selected schools together with the documents listed below:

1. Letter to the Principal/Headmaster
2. Letter to the Teachers
3. A copy of approval letter to conduct the research

The respondents were given seven days to complete the questionnaire. Data collected was analysed by using SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) version 19.0. To describe sample characteristics and school culture dimensions, frequency, average, standard deviation, and percentage were used. Anomaly test were also conducted. Spearman Correlation test were used to identify the relationship between school culture and teachers’ commitment.

4. Results

4.1 Demographic Information

Research sample needed was 228 SJKC teachers in the district of Kota Setar. Although 240 sets of research instruments were distributed, only 210 were returned with the return rate of 87.5%. But only 201 questionnaires could be analysed. Descriptive analysis was used to explain the respondents’ information in terms of gender and marital status. Based on Table 1, there were 18 male teachers (9.0%) and 183 female teachers (91.0%) involved.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Number of respondents</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>9.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>183</td>
<td>91.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>201</td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1. Respondents’ distribution based on gender

Table 2 shows the mean result of the overall culture which is 4.31. Human relationship has the highest mean value which is 4.49. The mean for other dimensions are high; with human relationship (4.49) the highest, open system (4.23), rational aims (4.07), internal process (4.43).

Table 2. Mean and Standard Deviation for school culture

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School Culture Dimensions</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Human Relationship</td>
<td>4.49</td>
<td>0.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Open System</td>
<td>4.23</td>
<td>0.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rational Aims</td>
<td>4.07</td>
<td>0.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internal Process</td>
<td>4.43</td>
<td>0.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall</td>
<td>4.31</td>
<td>0.53</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To determine that the data collected is normal, anomaly test was conducted. Table 3 below shows the test result.

Table 3. Anomaly Test for school culture and teachers’ commitment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Kolmogorov-Smirnov&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</th>
<th>Shapiro-Wilk</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Culture</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commitment</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Shapiro - Wilk (W) test was .702 (p < .05) for school culture whereas for teachers’ commitment Shapiro – Wilk (W) Test was .647 (p < .05). From the results, it showed that anomaly was not observed and so Spearman Test was used to test the relationship between school culture and teachers’ commitment.
4.2 Hypothesis testing

H01: There is no significant relationship between school culture and teachers' commitment.

Based on Table 4, the correlation analysis using Spearman test finding showed positive significant relationship between school culture and teachers' commitment (r = .501, p<.05). This result rejected Ho1. The analysis finding showed that a high practice of school culture will result in high level of teachers' commitment. The correlation value between school culture and teachers' commitment was averagely high.

Table 4 Spearman Correlation between school culture variables and teachers' commitment variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Teachers' Commitment</th>
<th>Significant</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>School Culture</td>
<td>.501**</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Correlation analysis result using Spearman test in Table 5 showed positive significant relationship between human relationship dimension and teachers' commitment at SJKC. (r = .998, p<.05) statistically. This result failed to accept Ho2. The high positive relationship showed that a high level of human relationship was able to increase the level of teachers' commitment and vice versa.

The relationship between open system dimension and teachers' commitment was also positive and significant (r = .500, p<.05) which also rejected Ho3. The result showed that high level of open system practice resulted in high level of teachers' commitment and vice versa. Similarly with Ho4, there was positive significant relationship between rational aims and teachers' commitment (r = .502, p>0.05) which failed to accept Ho4. With this, there was an averagely high relationship between both variables. The positive significant relationship showed that high rational aims brought about high teachers' commitment. Finally, the result for Ho5 was also significantly positive (r = .52, p<.05) which showed an averagely high positive relationship between internal process dimension and teachers' commitment at SJKC. This result failed to accept Ho5. The positive significant relationship showed that an effective internal process resulted in high teachers' commitment and vice versa. Overall, human relationship dimension showed a high correlation value r = .998 compared to other dimensions which gained r value, r = .50.

5. Discussion

This study was conducted to identify the relationship between school culture and teachers' commitment at SJKC in Kota Setar district. This section will discuss the research questions and the findings. There are four school culture dimensions namely human relationship, open system, rational aims and internal process in this study. Overall, the mean score for all the four dimensions were high which exceeded 4 in the 5 Likert scale. The result finding showed that human relationship dimension is the dominant culture in SJKC with the mean value of 4.49.

This finding is similar to the study by Maslowski (2001) in Holland. According to Maslowski (2001), schools in Holland showed a higher score in the human relationship dimension compared to the other dimensions. In addition, the result found is also in parallel with the result by (2003) in a university in the state of Ohio. According to Berrio (2003), the university culture focused on flexibility, human consideration, and sensitivity towards customers.

A journal written by Johnson (2002) also claimed that a small size school can brings about a better school culture. This is due to the fact that teachers are more focused on their students because of the small number of students and they have good relationship with the students' parents. According to Gruenert (2005), schools with high human relationship will produce a high number of successful students.
The findings of this study are similar to the study done by Peterson and Deal (1999) who claimed that schools with high culture practice such as having the same goals and display good relationship with the surrounding community will increase teachers’ commitment in schools. Peterson (2002) stated that schools with low culture practice will decrease the level of teachers’ commitment to increase school achievement. The characteristics of low culture practice such as unclear vision and mission, no cooperation and unfriendly attitude with the surrounding community will decrease teachers’ commitment.

Nevertheless, the finding of this study differs from the study findings by Ng (2006) which showed that the culture in SJKC did not emphasize on human relationship and internal process, instead, more focus is given to rational aims and open system. Ng (2006) said that teachers in SJKC are more individualistic in achieving the aims. They are more outspoken although their words might hurt other peoples’ feelings and result in conflict. According to Ng (2006), teachers in SJKC are more responsible in undertaking their tasks because by doing so, they will be acknowledged.

Similarly, in a study done by Barth (2002), it was found that the dominant dimension is rational aims. His result finding is similar to the result by Yaakob (2007) who concluded that the dominant dimension in primary schools in Kedah is rational aims such as efficacy values, chasing aims and the success of aims orientation. The finding of this study proved that school culture has positive significant relationship with teachers’ commitment at SJKC in Kota Setar district. From this result, research questions have been addressed and explained elaborately.

In materializing Vision 2020, the human capital needed originate from schools. School functions as the main education institution which is responsible to disseminate quality education to the children of our nation. Thus, teachers, as the main player in schools, should increase the quality of our education.

The government has realized that committed teachers will help in materializing the nation mission by practicing good school culture. Thus, school culture has been included in the Malaysian Education Blueprint (2013 – 2025).

The finding of this study has mentioned that human relationship dimension is the dominant school culture. So, school sustenance program, parents’ financial resources and EDRP have encouraged the involvement of the PTA and parents in the program organized by the schools. Parents’ support and involvement is important towards the success of the school programs and the increase of teachers’ commitment.

In conclusion, the government especially the Ministry of Education should give emphasis on school culture which has impact on teachers’ commitment. Teachers’ commitment will increase if they work in a good school culture.

Teaching and learning will become more effective. School excellence will be achieved. The mission and vision of the Ministry of Education will materialize. Thus, education in Malaysia can be at par with other countries in the world.

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Organized Crime and the Prevention Thereof

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Abstract

Organized crime has been and persists as one of the most concerning problems threatening the society and the state. The exigency to fight organized crime has urged the necessity of adopting a range of legislative measures both in national and international level, which, consequently have induced establishment of the new institutions of justice and have brought significant changes into the judicial nature of the existing ones. Discovery, identification, requisition and confiscation of property are product of crime and part of any strategies involved in the fighting against organized crime or other serious crimes. In the frame of the fight against corruption, the compliance of the Albanian legislation with international standards constitutes a crucial aspect since the engagement in international level promotes legal reform in the domain of penal legislation; aiming to deal a blow to corruption in all forms it is displayed. This writing will treat precisely the compliance of legislation as well as the role of the authorities of justice, which are the ones giving life to penal legislation and rendering it effective.

Keywords: Organized crime, international agreement, mutual collaboration, Criminal Procedure Code, Penal Code.

1. Situation of the Organized Crime in Albania

The situation of the organized crime in Albania requires a special and in-depth analysis, based on data, facts and evidence regarding the ways it has been evolved and the forms it has been displayed.

Inclinations to organized crime have been obvious during the whole years of the totalitarian system in Albania. Despite the all-round isolation and the impossibility of trespassing the country’s border, organized crime persisted in simple forms suchlike smuggling, criminal gangs for stealing as well as other crimes, whereas some forms of organized crime were even rendered by the system itself, as in the case of the tobacco smuggling. 

After 90’s, there have been several factors effecting the gradual evolvement of the organized crime in Albania, at first being displayed in simple forms and later in utterly organized groups. The main factors revealed by scholars are:

- Establishment of contacts among individuals with criminal disposition in Albania and those in the neighboring countries, making use of their experiences and forms of the evolvement of organized crime;
- Lack of community awareness about risks and the consequences of the organized crime;
- Plentiful gains made through organized crimes as well as earning a great deal of money in the shortest time possible;
- High level of poverty;
- Factors related to geographic position of the country;
- The low level of response by the state institutions;
- Lack of the necessary legal instruments against the organized crime.

Because of these factors as well as many others, within a short period, the reports of the international institutions began to refer to Albania as source of high criminality. Gradually and as the time passed by, the Albanian criminal gangs became competitive to Italian, French, Belgian, English and Greek criminal gangs. Alongside the evolvement of the organized crime in Albania, evolved the response by the state institutions, too, mainly the reaction of the specialized organs to investigate about and fight the typical cases of the forms the organized crimes were displayed suchlike trafficking of human beings, prostitution, smuggling as well as other forms of trafficking.

At meantime, there have also been ascertained inclinations to create criminal organizations, with criminal dispositions which commenced to commit serious crimes suchlike homicide and robbery with the use of weapons. Utterly

2 "Politika e luftimit të kriminalitetit", Hysi V
3 Ibid, Hysi V
criminal organizations were also the usury firms created in Albania, tending to money laundering or other criminal dispositions. The year 1997 marked one of the peaks of the evolvement of criminal gangs and armed bands in Albania as well as the crystallization of the organized crime in the country. Criminal gangs were organized in structural groups with specialized tasks, sustainable criminal activity and tending to increase perpetrating serious crimes.

For years on end, the reaction against an increasing criminal situation has been weak, even because of corruption, pressure, fear and uncertainty. It was the insistence of international organizations and the European Union that induced the undertaking of institutional steps in the fight against organized crime.

Progress made to this regard by the Ministry of Interior and the structures of the state police was reflected even in the Report on the situation of the organized crime, realized by project CARPO, which states: “It is quite fair to emphasize that the recent dismantling and the arrest of some individuals of high criminal profile and members of several criminal organizations has given a heavy blow to the world of organized crime in Albania. This once more shows the determination and the readiness of the Albanian government to fight all kinds of organized crime.”

Precisely for this reason, the fight against corruption has been the main priority of the state penal politics in general. The entirety of the measures taken has been reflected into the Albanian penal legislation and the Penal Code of the Republic of Albania, based on the UNO declaration “Fighting Corruption and Bribery”. Part of the amendment of the Penal Code with provisions against corruption have also become even new figures, suchlike the passive corruption of foreign officials and judges. All this criminalization testifies that the state policy against organized crime is on the right path though it needs to be further evolved not only in the national but also even in international ambit. Collaboration in local, regional and international level against the organized crime as well as against crimes in general, cannot succeed if it is not organized and combined in a unique way both in national and international ambit. The successful fight against corruption and the organized crime in general requires all-round consideration, continuity and sustainability in its implementation based on preliminary rules and responsibilities.

2. Institutional Frame and Strategies

Actually, the preventive measures have been established firmly in terms of practical planning as well as in the theoretical debate, in the field of the modern strategies against organized crime, corruption, money laundering and financing terrorism. In this frame, in international plan, an even greater attention is being paid to the measures for the identification, discovery, freezing, sequestering and later on confiscating the products of the criminal offenses of the organized crime groups, as another effective way to weaken their economic power. Efforts are being concentrated especially in the compliance of the legislations, aiming to create a legal framework suitable to operate in international level, since it has been obvious that differences among legislations would provide a serious obstacle to the effective fighting against organized crime.

The domain of the fight against organized crime and illegal trafficking is one of the priority fields of the Albanian Government as well as an important element in the frame of the integration of the country in the European Union. Commitments are in line with the obligations determined in the Association and Stabilization Agreement. These obligations entail the necessity for Albania to engage into regional collaboration and promote good neighborhood relations for the development of the projects of common interest about issues related to the fight against organized crime, illegal immigration and trafficking, especially the trafficking of human beings, smuggling, the illegal trafficking of weapons, cars etc. These obligations consist into a key factor for evolving relations of collaboration among Albania and other countries, so contributing directly to regional stability.

- Undertaking investigations which aim to completely destroy criminal networks, criminal organizations or structured groups of all dispositions or forms of crime;
- Paternity as one of the main policies of those structures;
- Increasing the awareness about the experiences of the more progressive countries in the fight against organized crime;
- Ever increasing risk for individuals or groups of individuals involved into these activities;
- Diminution of drug offers and the destabilization of their market in order to minimize the availability and usage

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5 Law no. 9275, dated 16.09.2004
6 Politika e luftimit te kriminalitetit, Hysi V, Latifi V, Elezi I, p121
7 Law no. 9590, dated 27.7.2006 On the ratification of the “Association and Stabilization Agreement between the Republic of Albania and the European Communities and Member States”
of drugs;
• Elimination of the cases of corruption and crime in the economic-financial domains;
• Increasing citizens’ awareness regarding effects of the organized crime in the Albanian society as well as into the destabilization of the country’s economy.
• Minimizing human beings trafficking and all other sorts of trafficking;
• Prevention of the money laundering in the country;  

2.1 Legal base of the fight against organized crime;

A wide range of legislative base exists in the field of organized crime and illegal trafficking, among which the following might be mentioned as primary;
• Law no. 7895 dated 27.01.1995 the “Penal Code” which has been continuously amended by adding new figures of criminal offenses, mainly in the field of organized crime;
• Law no. 7905 dated 21.03.1995 “Criminal Procedure Code of the Republic of Albania”, which in years has also been object of a range of amendments and improvements regarding penal proceeding of the crime authors and applications of the techniques and methods of investigation;
• Palermo Protocol 2000 “Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, especially Women and Children”, in compliance with the UN Convention “Against the International Organized Crime”;
• Law no. 9284 dated, 30.9.2004 “For the Prevention and Suppression of the Organized Crime”
• Civil Convention “About Corruption” dated 06.07.2000;
• Penal convention “About Corruption” dated 26.04.2001;
• Convention “About cleaning, discovering, sequestering, and confiscating crime revenues” dated 27.01.2006.

2.2 Responsible structures

In order to implement obligations deriving from the legislation in force in the field of prevention of money laundering, the following structures have been made available;
- General Directorate for the Prevention of Money Laundry (GDPML), which is taking the role of the financial intelligence units. The Directory’s mission is to prevent the “money laundering” as well as the fight against terrorist financing by collecting, verifying, evaluating, controlling and preserving information from the subjects of law as well as by suspending, blocking and freezing any actions, aiming to prevent transferring, alteration or transition of property or products sourcing from criminal activities in coordination with other law enforcement structures suchlike the Ministry of Interior, General Prosecutor’s Office, National Intelligence Service and other homologous organisms and the international institutions; in drafting collaboration plans and mutual assistance relating to the prevention of “money laundering” with other countries, based on the ratified international conventions.
- National Committee for Coordinating the Fight against Money Laundry (NCCFML). This committee is directed by the Prime Minister and consists of representatives from several state institutions. Its main tasks are to determine the main directions of the state policy in the field of money laundering prevention; considering and analyzing 6-months reports of the activities accomplished by the General Directorate for the Prevention of Money Laundering as well as reports and documents compiled by international institutions and organisms exerting their activities in the field of the money laundering prevention; the Bank of Albania (Observation Department);
- Sector of the Fight against Money Laundering integral part of the Directory of the Fight against Organized
Crime at the Department of Criminal Investigation in the Ministry of Interior. The main tasks of this sector are the direction, coordination and exertion of activity for the prevention, discovery, documentation and the interruption of the criminal activities in the field of money laundering as well as crimes in the economic and financial fields.

- General Directorate for the Prevention of Money Laundry exerts its activity in the field relating the prevention and fight against money laundering, terrorist financing and financial crimes in general. Structured in two directorates, the Directorate of Analysis and Monitoring and the Directorate of Prevention and Observations, GDPML exerts the functions of the financial information unit. It serves as a national centre and is responsible for collecting, analyzing and dispatching data to the competent authorities regarding suspicions for money laundering and potential financing of terrorism. Data are obtained from the financial information reported by institutions envisaged by law no.8610, dated 17.05.2000, “About the Prevention of Money Laundering”.

In order to realize the obligations determined by the institutions that signed this Memorandum, the ratified international conventions as well as in order to make possible the identification, discovery, freezing, blocking, sequestration, and confiscation of money, possession, revenues, profits and products sourcing from the criminal activity, mainly from the organized crime as well as for penalizing members of the criminal activity and prevention of this phenomenon, was decided to set up the Contact Group, comprised of specialists from these institutions.

In order to apply legislation in force and in conformity with the object of their activity members of this group have full authority to cooperate in fields suchlike information swapping about the subjects suspected for money laundering; drafting common programs about their functional activity in the fight against money laundering and financing of terrorism; undertaking swift actions in operative anti-crime aspects to prevent any transaction or alteration of property sourcing from criminal activities; identification, verification, discovery, prosecution, blocking and freezing funds made available to terrorist organizations and groups financing terrorism; determining the common measures to be made against individuals or subjects involved in the criminal offense of money laundering conform the penal procedure of the Republic of Albania. Compound sectors of institutions prosecuting the economic and financial crime envision forms of collaboration to operate in conformity with the law for information swapping about individuals, both physical and juridical persons who are suspected that the origin of their possessions might be sourcing from criminal activities; foresee tasks for obtaining information in cross-border points regarding occurrences of exporting currency in cash and travelers' cheques abroad or importing them in the territory of the Republic of Albania and, depending on the situations created and concrete problems, envision tasks for evaluation, necessity and the importance of collaboration in information swapping; collaborate for the discovery, documentation and identification of possession sourcing from organized crime activities such as trafficking of human beings, drugs, arms, smuggling, fiscal evasion, etc.

2.3 Practical effectuation of the law no. 9284, dated 30.09.2004 “About the Prevention and Suppression of the Organized Crime”

The new “Antimafia” law, passed by Parliament on 03.12.2009, differently from what is being discussed, does not bring essential and conceptual changes, compared to law no. 9284 which has been effective for about 5 years, bys since 2004. Before analyzing the two previous laws comparatively, it is necessary to introduce the first legislative initiative preceded by the first antimafia law no. 9284, dated 30.09.2004.

The law “About the prevention and the suppression of the organized crime” envisaged concrete measures to prevent and suppress the organized crime via discovering, identification, sequestration and confiscation of illegal possessions of the suspected individuals as being involved in organized crime as well as for the determination of the ways this possession has been used. The 2004 law aimed at realizing an effective blow to the phenomenon of organized crime, terrorism and illegal trafficking. The United Colleges of the High Court, by decision no.1 dated 25.01.2007, have ruled on the decision no. 37 dated 10.07.2006 of the Court of Appeal for Serious Crimes, Tirane, over the sequestration of possessions basing on the law nr.9284, dated 30.09.2004 “About the Prevention and Suppression of the Organized Crime”. In this decision, the United Colleges of the High Court unified judicial practices regarding the following;

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9 Amended by Law. 9084, dated 19.06.2003, “About some supplements and amendments in Law no.. 8610, dated 17.05.2000 “About the Prevention of Money Laundering”.

amendments are the following;

- Explication and interpretation of the meaning of article 4, bullet 3 and article 28 bullet 1, of the Law. 9284, dated 30.09.2004 – over the appointment of the competent Court to investigate and judge over the preventive measures for sequestration and confiscation possession of the possessions as well as on the adjudication of the case laws;
- Meaning and interpretation of articles 7 and 10 of the Law no. 9284, dated 30.09.2004;
- Interpretation of the time to decide for confiscation in compliance with article 9 or 7 of the Law no 9284, dated 30.09.2004;
- Interpretation of the terms used for the suspension and sequestration in articles 9 and 10 of the Law no 9284, dated 30.09.2004.

As for the above, referring to actual provisions of the Law no. 9284, dated 30.09.2004, for the unification of the judicial practices regarding their application, as ruled by the High Court, as well as the recommendations of the experts from the EU member states, the amendment of the Law no. 9284, dated 30.09.2004 “About the prevention and the suppression of the organized crime”, because of the intervention by the Colleges of the High Court with its unifying decision dated 25.01.2007. Amendment of this law will be in two aspects; total reformulation of some provisions and supplements and improvements in the existing articles of the law. These amendments and improvements intend the proper separation of the civil procedure related to sequestration/confiscation of the illegal possessions from the penal procedure, emphasizing the fact that the procedure is against the property, not against the individuals. Some of these amendments are the following;

- Supplementing article 2/2, entitled “Definitions” in which the new terms used in the law are listed, suchlike ‘preventive measures’, ‘suspected person’, and ‘unjustified living standards’. Preventive measures have been summarized in a single concept to make their meaning easier and include the sequestration and confiscation of the possessions. The suspected individual has been defined to highlight the fact that such a term does not stand only for individuals against whom penal proceeding have commenced, is going on or has ended. For the purpose of this law, this concept includes even individuals having an unjustified standard of living in rapport with their incomes.
- In addition to article 2/2 is added the new article 2/3, which defines the criteria to determining preventive measures. Differently from law 9284, dated 30.09.2004, the bill exacts that preventive measures are applied to the possessions of the suspected individuals (in rem) and to the individuals (in personam). This division intends to ease the meaning and the application of the law in practice, by means of using civil procedure against these possessions. Civil procedure imposed to possessions has the advantages of the evidence burdening the person having the property and the level of proving the evidence is obviously lower than in the penal procedure. This choice has been accepted in the contemporary doctrine where, civil proceeding for sequestration/confiscation is a penal proceeding in rem, being directed against property (detached and autonomous from the penal proceedings), as compared to the penal proceeding against the individual which is judicial proceeding in personam. In the latter proceeding, sequestration/confiscation is investigative actions and result of the decision of the proceeding authority on declaring the individual guilty for criminal offense. This judicial proceeding, which is sui generis, will proceed, at any case, by basing on the principles for a fair judicial procedure and the fundamental human rights and freedoms.
- Article 3 was improved by changing its title, which has become “Field of implementation” and by removing the condition “based on evidence” in compliance with the implementation aim of this law, which is against property and not against the person. Two more bullets have been added to this article, letters “d” and “dh” which supplement the circle of penal offenses including the unjustified living standards as the basis for verifying proceedings to begin in compliance with this law. In addition, this article has been supplemented with a new paragraph, containing the timely application of this law, so resolving the deadlock created from the unifying decision of the High Court.
- Another supplement is law 3/1, which re-emphasizes that the verification procedure acts against the possessions and extends the law’s scope of activity, extending it to the heirs of the illegal property as well. This provision established the concept of relationships, including even the relatives. Therefore, this provision helps to understand easily the other specific provisions related to the family circle of these individuals.
- In article 4 of the bill, object of investigations are the trade activities, too, in addition to the economic activities. In addition, this provision has been supplemented with the right of verification to the properties gained in an unlawful way. The term ‘administrative’, which associated the civil procedure has been removed both from this provision and in the others, in order to precise that this bill establishes a “sui generis” procedure, which does
which foresees cases when the Court decides the admission of the request for the confiscation of properties.

In addition to article 25 was added a new article, 25/1 entitled; “Admission of the request for confiscation” to which, the Court can postpone the announcement of its argued decision to 10 days.

Article 25 was reformed to be harmonized with the two Codes of the Civil and Criminal Procedures, according to the fact that, the Court, by the request of the prosecutor, confiscates even possessions that have been sequestrated in advance. To this aim, and commencing from article 24, the word “sequestered” associating the provision that, the Court, by the request of the prosecutor, confiscates even possessions that have not been sequestrated in advance. This supplement counts on the fact that often these individuals, who apparently seem to possess immense property, which they also might have declared, render a lifestyle of high costs which cannot justify their living standards in rapport with the property they posses in appearance, (e.g. luxury costs suchlike buying expensive cars, flats, villas, clothes, other expensive items, etc.)

In article 13 of the law was restructured for clarity effects as well as for determining the unjustified living standards as a cause for establishing the preventive measure of “sequestration”. This supplement counts on the fact that often these individuals, who apparently seem to possess immense property, which they also might have declared, render a lifestyle of high costs which cannot justify their living standards in rapport with the property they posses in appearance, (e.g. luxury costs suchlike buying expensive cars, flats, villas, clothes, other expensive items, etc.)

Article 14 the existing paragraph was reformed by placing limits to the other actions to be accomplished by the Court, not literally regulated by the law; (1) whether the actions are attained to serve to the resolution of the case law, and (2) these actions do not cede the fundamental human rights and freedoms. In addition, a paragraph has been supplemented in this provision, allowing notifications and admission of evidence in the frame of the international mutual juridical assistance. The applied rules will be dependent on the feature of the procedure, be it civil or penal.

A paragraph was also added to Article 15, the second one, which allows the continuance of the procedure when the individual, whose property is object of this law, is in absentia. In order to resolve this situation the model in the Criminal Procedure Code is adopted, by issuing the in-absentia decision and the continuance of the proceedings in the presence of an appointed or selected defender.

The third paragraph has been added to article 16, according to which, object of verification will also be the properties passed to third parties by means of fictive or stimulated juridical actions, at the same time ascertaining their absolute invalidity. This rule lacked in the law and it intends to suppress property hiding behind these actions.

Article 20 exacts the tasks of the administrator in execution, transferring him the competence of executing the sequestration decided by the Court, after presenting the necessary requests to prosecution authorities, bailiff’s office as well as to other state institutions. Chapter V of the Law has also been reformed by setting the provision that, the Court, by the request of the prosecutor, confiscates even possessions that has not been sequestrated in advance. To this aim, and commencing from article 24, the word “sequestered” associating the word “property” has been removed.

Article 25 was reformed to be harmonized with the two Codes of the Civil and Criminal Procedures, according to which, the Court can postpone the announcement of its argued decision to 10 days.

In addition to article 25 was added a new article, 25/1 entitled; “Admission of the request for confiscation” which foresees cases when the Court decides the admission of the request for the confiscation of the...
suspected individual’s property, whose penal proceeding he was charged with has been dismissed, he has been proclaimed innocent or the juridical qualification of his offence has been altered. Despite the fact that penal proceeding to that individual might have been dismissed or the individual’s sentencing could not be re-imposed in the course of the penal procedure and the qualification of the penal offence has judicially been altered, so not falling within the scope of this law, because of the existence of some conditions predicted in this article, this should not be considered as an obstacle for the sequestration and the confiscation of his property according to what this law foresees. Obviously, the causes for the dismissal of the penal proceeding include the insufficiency of evidence, death of the suspected individual, legal obstacles to take the suspected individual as defendant or sentence him. It is obvious that the bill allows confiscation in suspected cases of certifying penal facts, since confiscation of property is not determined on whether the court/prosecutor decides to dismiss penal proceeding on the hypothesis of certifying that the suspect has not committed the criminal offense.

- Article 27 was reformed functional to the clear separation of the civil procedure from the penal one regarding property confiscation. Despite this separation, it can practically happen that for the same property two types of proceedings are opened, civil and penal proceedings. The new article 27 assumes to regulate precisely this situation by giving priority to penal justice while not ceding the autonomous character of the procedure established by this law.

- In this chapter, article 30 established the rule that the confiscated possessions are irreversibly transferred to state property, excluding cases when the High Court decides to suspend the application of the decree absolute decision. The following provisions regulate norms for the constitution and composition of the Advisory Committee for the Preventive Measures which has now been proposed to be at expert level, to convene at the Ministry of Finance and be composed of members from all agencies being involved in the law enforcement processes, having the competence to observe Agency for the Administration of the Sequestered and Confiscated Properties, (AASCP) and to issue recommendations.

3. Recommendations

The fight against organized crime does not end with the incrimination of the criminal organizations. Many European Countries, including our country, have been amending their penal and procedural laws, by consenting with the concept belum justum: by coercing sentencing measures, extending the competences of the police authorities and using special investigation techniques.

1. Some of the fundamental aspects, which should be the focus of the specialized state organs in their fighting against organized crime, are the discovery and suppression of the criminal groups as well as the individualization and concretization of their property;  
2. Issuance and application of more flexible normative acts allowing the sequestration and the confiscation of property of illegal origin would be of a great interest.\(^\text{11}\) 
3. A useful policy would be the one allowing and promoting the effectuation of the nominative payment instruments suchlike cheques and payment orders. If nominative transactions were attained properly, it would be simpler for the fiscal verification of the money spent. 
4. International cooperation to limit the so-called “fiscal paradises” in countries allowing illegal money transit via secret accounts in their local banks\(^\text{12}\). Fiscal paradises are used by criminal organizations in order to be able to disguise their trails, so limiting investigation effectiveness. There have been proposals recently to apply trade sanctions to countries that promote and admit fiscal paradise. The issue is that, in order to be efficient, such sanctions should be supported by many countries and in the general frame of a wide international collaboration.  
5. Increasing the effectiveness, correctness and the preventive nature of legislation and sanctions, which continue to be somewhat limited, as far as they are not entirely specific and sufficient?  
6. Creating an evaluation system to analyze the effectiveness of the legislation.  
7. Further approaching the necessary provisions of the law for the confiscation and sequestration of the revenues from criminal activities with the Western partners, especially regarding their concretization for the executive organs.

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11 Instrumente ligjore dhe teknika të luftës kundër krimit të organizuar transnacional, \(f_q\ 272\) 
12 Po aty,mendimi i gjyqtant Amanildo Lac,\(f_q\ 273\)
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Gender and Citizenship Models: Reflections from Feminist Literature

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Abstract

Prominent literature on citizenship is both gender-neutral and gender-sensitive. Yet, as many feminist scholars have argued, the concept of citizenship itself has been historically framed as quintessentially male, thus excluding women from the equal status of citizenship. Therefore, in order for women to be fully recognized as citizens, feminist scholarship considers the re-articulation of the concept of citizenship as well as its related concepts of public and private. Along these lines, women’s citizenship as a status and practice allows space for women’s agency to be exerted in the civil society sphere as well as within the governmental domain of politics. The most important factor of women’s political citizenship, women’s self-identification as political actors, is crucial in order for them to exercise their political citizenship rights. This paper offers a theoretical insight into the concept of citizenship, citizenship theories and women’s citizenship as political agency. Moreover, the paper presents three models of citizenship that have emerged from the feminists’ attempts to re-gender the concept of citizenship aiming the deconstruction of power relations and attacking the concept of citizenship as being quintessentially male.

Keywords: gender, citizenship, feminist literature, women’s agency, public, private

1. Introduction: What is Citizenship?

Citizenship can be seen as the relationship between a state and a citizen as well as the political relationship between citizens. At present there exist four main modern ideas of citizenship: a communitarian, a civic-republican, a neo-liberal and a social-liberal one (Voet 1998, 9). The most influential scholar of citizenship theory in Britain, T.H. Marshall, has defined citizenship as a “status bestowed on persons who are full members of a community” (Marshall 1950, 14). The key elements in Marshall’s concept of citizenship are membership in a community, equality of the members of that community and rights and obligations that result from membership.

All these elements involve the relationship and regulations between the state and individuals as well as social relationships between different individuals within the state where they live. So, the first and foremost reference to citizenship is related to its meaning as a status, one that people can obtain as they live within a well-defined territory. The status of citizenship, according to Marshall, includes civil, political and social rights and obligations, and all those who possess this status are equal with respect to the rights and duties with which the status is endowed (Marshall 1950, 28-29). This definition of citizenship is gender neutral; therefore it does not specify or distinguish rights or duties as belonging to either sex.

2. General Analysis of Citizenship: Influential Theoretical Views

2.1 Citizenship theory according to T. H. Marshall

The civil, political and social aspects of citizenship as delineated by Marshall are related to specific packages of rights that are supposed to be equally distributed to all holders of the citizenship status. The rights obtained by the civil aspect are rights “necessary for individual freedom – the liberty of the person, freedom of speech, thought and faith, the right to own property and to conclude valid contracts, and the right to justice… [i.e.,] the right to defend and assert all one’s own rights on terms of equality with others and by due process of law” (Marshall 1950, 10).

The political aspect of citizenship as explained by Marshall might also be recognized as including duties apart from rights when referring to political participation as part of citizenship. In this respect, the “right to participate in the exercise of political power, as a member of a body invested with political authority or as an elector of the members of such a body” (Marshall 1950, 10), explicitly states the obligation of citizens to employ their political capacity.
The third citizenship aspect according to Marshall is mostly linked to “the whole range from the right to a modicum of economic welfare and security to a civilized being according to the standards prevailing in the society” (Marshall 1950, 11). So, if the civil element is related to the necessary rights for individual freedom, the political element has to do with the right to participate in the exercise of political power, while the social element involves the rights to welfare.

2.2 Citizenship theory according to other authors

Another definition of citizenship as expressed by Bryan Turner maintains that there exists a typology of citizenship that is based on two dimensions: the active/passive and the public/private. “The first concerns the passive or active nature of citizenship, depending on whether citizenship is developed from above (via the state) or from below (in terms of more local participatory institutions, such as trade unions). The second dimension is the relationship between the public and the private areas within civil society. A conservative view of citizenship (as passive and private) contrasts with a more revolutionary idea of active and public citizenship” (Turner 1990, 209). The active/passive discourse of citizenship that stems from the typology of Bryan Turner conceptualizes citizens either as mere subjects of absolute authority or as active political agents. Although these two dimensions are gender-blind or gender-neutral in their language, they have often been used by other scholars to describe gender differences in general and differences in relation to women’s citizenship in particular (Yuval-Davis 1997, 5). Hence, both Marshall and Turner view citizenship in terms of a relationship between individuals and the state, a relationship that is operationalized either in the form of a status or a practice depending on the particular citizenship context and activity.

Moreover, Thomas Janoski also relates citizenship to rights and obligations, which he classifies as belonging to different levels. “Citizenship rights and obligations exist at the individual, group or societal level… At the micro-level, the individual definition of citizenship focuses on how each person sees the relationship of rights and obligations within a framework of balance or exchange. It traces the development of the “self” in relation to the state as a critical part of citizenship, especially the development of self- or community-oriented attitudes and behaviors” (Janoski 1998, 11). The conceptualization of citizenship as closely related to the state-citizen relationship is unavoidable, especially if connected to the rights and duties discourse. However, as Janoski has pointed out, the set of rights and obligations can be differently applied to citizens depending on whether their relation to the sets of rights and obligations is based on personal or group level. T. H. Marshall’s definition on citizenship makes particular reference to citizenship as an individual rights based discourse where demands are addressed to the legislature and the state.

3. Women and Citizenship

3.1 Women’s Citizenship as Rights and Duties

Within the rights and duties discourse as part of citizenship literature, feminist scholars are particularly concerned with rights in terms of what women are entitled to. As a matter of fact, as Rian Voet states, all citizenship vocabularies relate citizenship to the rights that this status offers to citizens. However, citizenship rights, as she points out, “are not all the rights one can possibly think of, because there remains a key distinction between human rights and citizenship rights. Human rights may be defined in international resolutions, but citizenship rights are those rights that a particular state guarantees its citizens by law (Voet 1998, 60)”.

Citizenship rights are also divided into formal and substantive rights of citizenship, where formal rights include civil and political rights and substantive rights consist of social and economic citizenship rights. Yet, as Einhorn maintains, “gender-based constraints tend to make it difficult for women to implement their formal rights or to transform their formal rights into substantive rights, particularly within the currently dominant neo-liberal paradigm which emphasizes the responsibilities rather than the rights of citizenship (Einhorn 2001, 107)”.

From the perspective of the feminist scholar, Ruth Lister also explains citizenship’s relation with rights and duties as a dynamic process in which the two dimensions of status and practice interact with each other, linked through human agency (Lister 1997, 8). So, according to Lister, citizenship is both a status that primarily involves rights that are accorded to individuals and also a practice that involves responsibilities in relation to the wider society. To Lister, “citizenship as participation can be understood as an expression of human agency in the political arena, broadly defined; citizenship as rights enables people to exercise their agency as citizens” (Lister 2003, 4).

Yuval-Davis claims that a holistic definition of citizenship exceeds formal rights such as the right to carry a particular passport (Yuval-Davis 1999, 5). Moreover, rights are seen by Rian Voet as a means to achieve citizenship and according to her women should exercise their rights, especially in the political sphere, if they want to develop women’s
citizenship to what she refers to as “active and sex-equal citizenship” (Voet 1998, 11).

So, the rights discourse constitutes a solid ground for discussing women’s opportunities, achievements or failures to attain their social, political and economic status as citizens. Yet, as Einhorn points out in the quote above, the rights discourse disregards intervening factors that limit women’s potential of exercising their rights. For example, even though women are eligible by law to exercise their rights in the political sphere, their result is affected by the existent power structures where women’s access is restricted.

3.2 Women’s Citizenship as Political Agency: to be or to act?

As Phillips, another feminist, states, “the value of citizenship lies in the way it restates the importance of political activity” (Phillips 1993, 87). Also, Ursula Vogel associates citizenship with engagement in political actions, and according to her, “in its most general meaning ‘citizenship’ refers to an individual’s status as a full member of a particular political community” (Vogel 1991, 62). The major importance of citizenship lies in the recognition of the strong political potential it possesses, whose appropriate exertion can be particularly positive for women. Basically, through citizenship all men and women are entitled to the right of participation and involvement either as representatives or as the electors of their representatives, even though, at present, women’s participation in politics is disadvantaged.

Evidence shows that in most countries there exists a considerable gender gap between men and women’s political activity, which varies from voting to other more active forms of political participation. However, as Lister maintains, the fact that many women manage to overcome numerous constraints means that they are either consciously or unconsciously committed to the ideals of political citizenship (Lister 1997, 147). Still, in order to be fully part of the political citizenship aspect, women have to engage with the formal and informal political system (Lister 1997, 155).

So, citizenship’s political potential does not lie only within the concept of direct representation in the decision-making bodies. Citizenship is also the means of entitling citizens to having access to issues of importance for their daily life and changing the existing situation by providing alternative choices. As Keith Faulks puts it, “…citizenship provides a framework for the interaction between individuals within civil society” (Faulks 2000, 107). The consideration of citizenship as the generator of either individual or community action links active citizenship to civil society and creates an alternative way of exerting political influence without being incorporated into the existent political decision-making bodies. The importance of women’s engagement as active citizens, either within the governmental structures or in the civil society domain lies not only in the fact that through their active participation they address women’s issues, but, most importantly, in the fact that they identify and position themselves as political actors that can have an influence on their lives, those of other women as well as men’s lives.

This paper argues that the discursive shift from citizenship as entitlement of rights and duties, to citizenship as enabler of agency through participation and engagement in local or broader issues puts emphasis on the individual citizens, which in their turn risk to be identified as a greater homogenous group. So, as Phillips has pointed out, the call to act as citizens first, implies action in individual terms instead of action undertaken as “women or men, black or white, manual worker or professional, home owner or council tenant” (Phillips 1993, 81). Moreover, the performed action as primarily addressed to individual citizens can sum up to the “greater collectivity” (Phillips 1993, 81), thus attributing agency only to citizens as such. In these terms, women’s agency as women is not recognized.

What is worse, as Pateman rightly denounces, [w]omen’s “contribution” is not seen as part of, or as relevant to, their citizenship, but as a necessary part of the private tasks proper to their sex (Pateman 1998, 10). This denial of women’s recognition of their political citizenship leads to the need of promoting women’s equality as citizens but pointing out, at the same time, their open recognition as women, which to Pateman is crucial for women’s political citizenship.

Clearly, not all citizens who are entitled to the status of citizenship are, at the same time, able or willing to be committed to problems whose solution they can foster through their personal engagement. In these lines, the status and practice of citizenship as used in Lister’s work are useful in making the distinction between citizens and active citizens, where Lister uses different verbs in order to distinguish between the two. So, according to Lister, “to be a citizen, in the legal and sociological sense, means the enjoyment of the rights of citizenship necessary for agency and social and political participation. To act as a citizen involves fulfilling the full potential of the status. Those who do not fulfill that potential do not cease to be citizens” (Lister 2003: 5).

The same differentiation between active and non-active citizens is present in Rian Voet’s term “full citizen”. It further describes the meaning of active citizenship as related to participation in legislation or decision-making in public affairs as well as cooperation between citizens, which includes the reflection upon common goods, the bearing of responsibility and the ability to judge and decide (Voet 1998, 7). Moreover, Voet’s concept of active citizenship is fragmented into different types of activities, revealing in this way the wide and inclusive nature of active citizenship.
activities. So, as she puts it, “being an active citizen need no longer be a an 80-hour-a-week profession for a few during their whole working life, but a capacity in which many more people are involved at some stage in their life: in public office or other decision-making bodies, paid or voluntarily, elected or nominated (Voet 1998, 141). However, the common thread between all types of citizenship activities is that at some point they all engage the capacity of decision-making and fostering some change, thus acquiring the potential of becoming “political”.

Voet’s view on what she calls full citizenship also extends the concept of “being political” beyond decision-making bodies, recognizing in this way the broad meaning that can be applied to the political aspect of citizenship. “Full citizenship does not only consist of participation in decision-making, but also of having a political subjectivity, knowing how to play political roles, and being capable of political judgment. It means showing in your actions that you are not a subject, but a citizen; that you are not an obedient slave but someone who is capable of determining, together with others, the future of public affairs (Voet 1998, 138).”

4. The Public Private Debate

Framed as a dichotomy that associates a particular sex and its subsequent characteristics, specificities and performativities with a particular domain, the concept of the public-private division implies mainly patriarchal power relations and therefore is greatly criticized by many feminist scholars. Most literature on citizenship is criticized as being gender blind portraying citizenship as a “quintessentially male practice and ideal” (Hobson and Lister 2002). The historical portrayal of men as the norm for citizenship inclusion has automatically excluded women as not belonging to the citizen category.

Women’s positioning as second class citizens goes back to their exclusion not only from the full citizenship status and practice but also to their isolation in activities belonging to the private sphere. As Ruth Lister puts it, “nowhere was this more obvious than in classical Greece where the active participation of male citizens in the public sphere was predicated on women’s labor in the ‘private’ domestic sphere which rendered them as unfit for citizenship” (Lister 2003).

In addition, Yuval-Davis and Werbner affirm, while referring to other feminist scholars as well, “...that the exclusion of women from citizenship was an intrinsic feature of their naturalization as embodiments of the private, the familial and the emotional. It was thus essential to the construction of the public sphere as masculine, rational, responsible and respectable. Women became the ‘property’ that allowed married men, even the working classes, the right to be active citizens in the public sphere (Yuval-Davis and Werbner 1999, 6)”.

Therefore, as many feminist scholars have pointed out, it is evident that men’s full recognition and inclusion as citizens in the public sphere is supported by the private sphere where women were historically transferred based on the claim that they were unable to develop the “male” superiority and features of citizenship. This is the reason why feminists argue for a re-articulation of the public and private, aiming in this way to challenge the clear distinction between what is considered public and what is considered as the private sphere.

The process of challenging the distinction between the two spheres, as Vogel points out, is connected to other issues that can in no way be ignored, especially as we take into account the historically inherited inequalities between men and women. So, in order to: “challenge the traditional distinctions between the public and private, political and non-political spheres as they have affected women will lead us to a question of wider implications – whether the spatial categories in which we tend to convey the meanings of citizenship are still adequate. Similarly, the prerequisites of women’s participation refer to the obstruction of citizen equality by the unequal access to the resources of participation – money, knowledge, work patterns and, most pertinently, time (Vogel 1991, 78-79)”. The issues here pointed out by Vogel are crucial when it comes to women’s real life experiences and their daily activities as citizens.

In other words, as Ruth Lister states, it is exactly the ideological construction of the public private divide that is “pivotal to the feminist reinterpretation of citizenship” (Lister 1991, 120). Yet, feminist scholars have different views in relation to the public private boundary. For example, Carol Pateman and Ursula Vogel challenge the association of the public sphere to the political and the private sphere to the family domain. Moreover, other feminists use the slogan “the personal is political” in attempts to blur the clear-cut division between what is considered public and what private. Jean Bethke Elshtain opposes this slogan and is for the separation of the two spheres requiring the autonomy of the private realm of the family and its intimate relationships rather than the encroachment of the political (Elshtain 1981). In solution to the private public debate, Nira Yuval-Davis’ suggests that if we agree that the “private” means the sphere where the individual is autonomous, the same thing can be extended to all social spheres where men and women can act both as part of social structures and collectivities with all the constraints provided by them, as well as autonomous individual agents, whether it is in the family, civil or political domain (Yuval-Davis 1997, 13).
5. Re-gendering Citizenship

Within the framework of theory on gender and citizenship, there exist three models of citizenship that have emerged from the feminists’ attempts to re-gender the concept of citizenship aiming the deconstruction of power relations and attacking the concept of citizenship as being quintessentially male. The first model, which is centered on the allocation and exercise of rights and obligations, corresponds to the gender-neutral citizen, therefore making the gender of the citizen irrelevant (Voet, 1998). The key to the inclusion of the gender-neutral citizen, though, has been located in the public sphere. The priority of this model is that it might enable women to compete on equal terms with men in the political sphere and the labor market (Hobson and Lister, 2002, 37).

Two main exponents of the gender-neutral citizenship, Susan Moller Okin and Anne Phillips, recognize the importance for citizenship change in the private sphere, particularly in the gendered division of labor (Hobson and Lister, 2002, 37). Okin envisions a ‘genderless’ family and society (Okin, 1989), while Phillips concentrates on the division of domestic labor as one that can provide the context where “the notion of the citizen could begin to assume its full meaning, and people could participate as equals in deciding their common goals” (Phillips, 1991, 7).

The second model of the feminist attempts to re-gender the concept of citizenship is gender-differentiated citizenship, which appeals to “difference” rather than “equality” and puts great emphasis on women’s experiences. The difference in women’s experience according to this model is motherhood; therefore political motherhood is used as basis for promoting women’s claims as social and political citizens (Pateman, 1992; Elshtain, 1981). This model of gendering citizenship, as Pateman points out, has been historically promoted through maternalist arguments in order to equate motherhood to the male civic republicanism, which is rooted in active political participation and the ability to bear arms (Pateman, 1992).

Gender-pluralist citizenship, the third model, that is founded on group differentiated citizenship was first proposed by Mouffe and criticized by Young and others (Mouffe, 1992; Young, 1990). The gender pluralist approach to the regendering of citizenship allows for the accommodation of social divisions such as sexuality, class, race, religion and age, which all intersect with gender to shape men’s or women’s citizenship. What is more, they also help the diffusion of the gender binary at the center of the equality vs. difference dichotomy (Hobson and Lister, 2002, 38).

6. Conclusions

By recognizing the political capacity in all citizens that act as such in the benefit of their lives and those of other citizens, feminists place agency in the heart of citizenship, this way transforming the citizenship status into an active practice as citizens. So, what is vital to stress with regards to women’s engagement in formal and informal politics is women’s agency, which as Birte Slim claims, lies at the heart of the theorization and politics of women’s citizenship (Slim, 2000). Through agency, women are positioned as actors instead of mere subjects, and as feminist theory on citizenship maintains, through the exertion of their agency, women are not positioned and framed as victims of “discriminatory and oppressive male-dominated political, economic and social institutions” (Lister, 1997, 6). Yet, as Voet states, women cannot be active citizens and agents in their communities or beyond if they do not first of all identify themselves as political actors (Voet, 1998, 142). The self-identification as a political actor is very crucial in women’s involvement in active citizenship activities because they can not undertake any kind of action for change unless they believe in their capacities to achieve certain goals.

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Workers’ Protests in Northern Portugal in the Transition from the Monarchy to the I Republic

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Abstract

The working class begins to be expressed in Portuguese society in the late nineteenth century, with the development of industrial capitalism and the consequent increase of workers in the industry. But it is in the early twentieth century that strengthens trade unionism and, with him, the statement of the labor movement. From here the working class associations distance themselves from the Socialist Party and betting in the labor union movement as a privileged vehicle of action, rescuing from the strike as a means of social demands. The Republic (1910) is in response to changing desires felt by the working class, watching up, from 1911, to a change in the structure and conduct of the union movement, which resulted in a series of strikes and completely destabilized the republican regime.

Keywords: Working class, protest, portuguese, monarchy, republic

1. Introduction

The industrialization process in Portugal occurred slowly throughout the nineteenth century, preventing the formation of a large and cohesive working class. In fact, before the industrialization, the word "class" was used as a reference to a group of workers, such as the craftsmen, artisans, artists, who, having acquired artistic knowledge and skills, enjoyed a certain social distinction (Mónica, 1986: 9). The concept of working class was born within the industrial era.

At the beginning, the factory workers were not highly qualified and only performed simple tasks. They came from rural areas near Lisbon and Porto and daily commuted to these cities to go to work, but, at the end of the day, they would return to their homes in the countryside (Fonseca, 2º vol. : 19). This context prevented the manufacturing workers from having the notion of class consciousness and a sense of union. Actually, a long path would have to be followed before this class awareness became a reality.

The first trade unions were associations of crafts, reminiscent of the ancient brotherhoods of crafts, and shared objectives of cultural nature and mutual support (Cabral, 1988: 19), such as the assistance in disease states and death situations. Within a legal context, it could not be otherwise, since the associations of crafts had been banned in 1834 and their existence would only be permitted in 1891. However, the mutual associations proliferated in the two largest cities of the country between 1852 and 1856. In Porto, there were some associations of major importance: the associations of the weavers, tailors, carpenters, dyers, and printers. They all defended their crafts, but there wasn’t a unifying center as there was in Lisbon. In fact, in 1853, the Centre for the Promotion of the Working Classes Improvement was formed in Lisbon; it was more structured and had the objective of promoting the association of the working class in Lisbon.

The mutual associations would have a new spirit in the 70s, inspired by the socialist ideology that was spreading in Europe. In 1871, Anselmo Lorenzo, Gonzalez Morago and Francisco Mora, three Spanish workers, members of the International Association of Workers (IAW), contacted Joseph Fontana and Antero de Quental, elements of the Centre for the Promotion of the Working Classes Improvement, in order to integrate the Portuguese working class in the international labour movement, which led to a new organization and new forms of action (Mónica, 1984: 36).

In 1872, and as a result of this approach by the IAW, the association Workers Fraternity was created. It was autonomous from the bourgeois framework and its statutes were influenced by the socialist ideology (Cabral, 1988: 20). A large number of workers with various trades joined the association and, in the same year, the fraternity opened a branch in Porto. However, the association was only successful during its first year of existence; in a few months the number of members decreased from 3,000 to 300 (Cabral, 1988: 46-47). In 1873, the outbreak of strikes showed that the dispersion still remained within the labour movement, with several associations competing against each other. Two of these associations merged as a consequence of this competition: the Associação Protectora do Trabalho Nacional (Protective
Association of the National Labour) and the Fratemedade Operária (Workers Fraternity) became the Associação dos Trabalhadores da Região Portuguesa (Association of Workers of the Portuguese Region), with a federalist and trade union character (Monica 1984: 45).

In 1875, the Socialist Party was formed, presenting itself as a political force able to educate the working class, fostering its participation in the electoral games (Santos, 1994: 330). By that time, there were two parties in the Portuguese political scenario, the Restorative and the Progressive, which represented the forces of capital and industry. A year later the Republicans organized themselves as a political party and tried to link the labour movement to their ideals, using the protests of the workers to do so.

In 1903, through their newspapers O Norte and O Mundo, the Republicans made sure that the strike of the weavers in Porto was known across the nation. The Republicans had already exceeded the Socialists at the polls (in 1890 they had elected six members) and they aimed at leading the street protests.

The right of association, which was decreed in 1891, strengthened the union within the labour movement, though the working class was still not properly associated, even with the socialist party framework, as reported by Porto newspapers at the time. Actually, the socialist party failed to change the traditional electoral alienation of the working class, and even lost the influence it had in the labour movement, which was gained by the anarchists in the early twentieth century (Santos, 1994: 316. 317). In 1914, the creation of the União Operária Nacional (National Workers Union) at the Congress of Tomar marked the split between Socialists and Anarchists and the consequent collapse of the socialist workers' reformism, simultaneously affirming the union's autonomy from political parties (Cabra, 1988: 133).

In 1919, the Confederação Geral do Trabalho (General Confederation of Labour) was founded and the “crafts' unionism” gave way to a single union of labour activists, fighting for an ideal of social emancipation (Freire, 1992: 131).

In this article we will analyze the process of workers' protest in Northern Portugal by acquiring rights, through the information that is recorded in the newspapers of the time, in the second half of the 19th century and early 20th century.

2. The Workers' Protests

In the 1870s, the workers in Northern Portugal started expressing their discontent through public protests. In Porto, in 1871, there were strikes organized by the milliners, tailors, dyers, butchers, and stampers. These workers were demanding higher wages and the reduction of the working hours. The wave of strikes continued in the following years and reached its peak in 1877 with the strike of the milliners.

The protests were a consequence of the introduction of machinery and the restructuring of the service that henceforth would be introduced in the Real Fábrica Social. The strike lasted a few days and the employers had to make some concessions: apprentices would only be admitted when it was necessary and the machines would be stopped if the excess of production jeopardized the workers' jobs (O Protesto, 3-1877). This protest clearly demonstrated the importance of the milliners' corporative past and their privileged status, as if they belonged to the "workers' aristocracy".

In November, there was a new strike organized by the milliners at the factory Costa Braga, because of the regulation of the factories' entrances and exits. This was a difficult fight to keep, but with the help of the milliners' class from Lisbon the fight was won (O Protesto, 11-1877). In December, in Braga, at the factory Taxa and Faria, the milliners protested against the replacement of officials by apprentices (O Protesto, 12-1877).

The strength and power shown by the milliners was not extended to the other workers, as there was lack of unity among these latter. In the newspaper O Operário, created in 1878, by socialists from Porto, there were constant appeals to the Association of Workers, as a means of claiming better working conditions and salaries and as a way of fighting against the “injustice” and the “unrighteous” regulations which were imposed to the workers in the factories (07/13/1879).

In the eighties there were more strikes. This time it was the workers from the textile industry who organized a demonstration. In the North, in mid 1850s, there were strikes at the textile factories in Vizela and Crestuma and at Fiação Portuense. In the mid-1870s there were other factories involved, due to the low price of the cotton. In Guimarães two factories with more than 100 workers were set up. The decrease in the cost of raw materials led to an expansion of the textile industry, leading some manufacturers to mechanize their weavings (Mónica, 1986: 156). In Porto, the introduction of the machines was a problem for the weavers (O Operário, 07. 13. 1879); the weaving industry was responsible for the subsistence of whole families, as referred to by Oliveira Martins (minister) in the 1881 Industrial Survey, therefore, the lack of work was dramatic for these families. Perhaps for this reason the meetings of the weavers became more frequent.

1887 was marked by the workers' constant meetings in the North (attended by workers of both sexes). In February (1887), more than two thousand workers gathered at the Association of Porto. The workers proposed the creation of a committee to negotiate the rise and unification of salaries with the factory owners. They also asked for representation before the Parliament, the creation of trade union councils and the regulation of women and children labour. At the end of...
the meeting there was an appeal to the Association, as it was considered the only "powerful bulwark in the fight against capitalist exploitation" (O Protesto Operário, 06. 02. 1887). The textile industry employed many women and children, once they were cheap labour and usually did not belong to any type of organization or association. Despite these conditions, there are some references to the participation of women in the meetings organized by the Association. In the same year, at a meeting of weavers, one of the few women workers in the Workers Association, the name Rosa da Conceição, intervened and asked all workers to remain united, otherwise "the bourgeois would squeeze them as if they were bagasse" (Idem, 05. 08. 1887).

The 1890 crisis led to more strikes. In 1889, the milliners of Porto organized a general strike, which gathered about 1500 milliners, with the support of the milliners in the cities of Lisbon and Braga. They were demanding a raise, which they got after five months of fighting (Mónica, 1986: 46-47). In 1893, the workers of the factory Costa Braga went on strike for better wages, a reduction of their working hours to ten and a new Regulation for apprentices (Mónica, 1986: 48). Employers and workers did not come to an agreement and the situation dragged on and sharpened. There were clashes and arrests. This time, the weavers lost the battle and began to lose their claim force (Mónica, 1986: 49).

The turn of the century was particularly tragic for the working classes and their living conditions were progressively degrading. The political and economic crisis, which the country was not able to solve, was reflected in all productive sectors. In 1903, the weavers of Porto went on strike. It was the biggest strike ever and it was widely discussed in the newspapers and the Parliament. For the first time in the labour history, 30,000 workers were on strike, with the support of all textile industry workers (Mónica, 1986: 177). They were asking for a salary raise, the decrease of the working hours, the abolition of fines, the measurement of the fabrics in front of the workers and the concession of priority to the weavers in recruitment processes at the factories (Mónica, 1986: 177). After three months of hard struggle, hunger, and misery, negotiations, intervention of the Government, and clashes with the police, the workers finally got a positive response to their claims: a salary raise, 10 hours of work per day, and the measurement of the fabrics in front of them; the payment of fines was not abolished, but the money concerning those payments was kept in an assistance box.

According to the Portuguese historian Maria Filomena Mónica, this strike was "one of the first genuinely proletarian mass movements of the Portuguese history" (1986: 185) and it may have influenced other movements in the North, as the protest of the textile workers of Santo Tirso. In July 1910, the workers of the largest factory in Negrolos, in the region of the Ave, went on strike. Their claims were similar to the ones in Porto; they were asking for better working conditions and a salary raise, since they earned half the wages of their fellows in Porto (Mónica, 1986: 187). The strikes were spreading to other factories, but the employers were not giving a positive response to their workers’ claims. Non-governmental party forces also failed at giving voice to these claims and demands.

3. The Strikes in the Republic

At the beginning of the twentieth century there were many strikes in Portugal, similarly to what was happening in Europe, namely in England, France and Germany, where there were clashes between employers and workers. The establishment of the Republic (October 1910) did not soothe the workers; on the contrary, it was the opportunity for them to ask the Republicans to pay the promises they had made when their party was in the opposition.

In 1910 there was still discontent among the working classes. The cost of living was increasingly higher and the wages and working conditions clearly worse. In the North, the wages ranged between 400 and 600 reis per day, which, according to Jornal de Notícias (JN), was not even enough for a family of 4 to pay half month’s expenses concerning commodity prices, bread, cereals, fish, meat, cod, olive oil and sugar (JN, 22/10/1910).

In October, the Federation of Labour presented their protest against the high prices to the Civil Governor of Porto. The Civil Governor guaranteed that the "government of the Republic" intended "to facilitate as much as possible the welfare of their workers and their economic life." The same Governor asked the workers not to raise difficulties to a "new regime that needed to be consolidated" (JN 27/10/1910). His request was not complied with and the demonstrations and strikes soon began.

A month later, the employees of the Gas Company also presented their complaint to the Civil Governor. Their main claim was a salary raise. The Company was facing a difficult financial situation and was powerless to increase the workers’ salary. In December, the workers went on strike. The strike was spreading to other workers, as the smelters of the factory Company Aliança, and entailed serious damage to other industries (JN, 7 -12-1910); the intervention of the City Council helped to quickly resolve the situation.

The Republic raised the workers’ expectations and they considered their interests protected by this political regime, but they soon felt disappointed and frustrated. The first disappointment was related to the tenancy law. As housing was one of the serious problems of the working class, the Republicans announced a law to regulate the relations between
landlords and tenants, but when the new law came out there was a profound disillusionment. The law did not establish protective conditions for the poor tenants and maintained the conditions imposed by Franco’s law, allowing the quick eviction of houses (JN, 11/19/1910).

The second disappointment was related to the decree concerning strikes. The right to go on strike was proclaimed by the Republic, but the Provisional Government considered that the Parliament should be responsible for its regulation. As the working class soon began to make use of this prerogative, the government had to legislate. The Minister Brito Camacho, through the Decree of 6th December, imposed severe regulation as far as the right to go on strike was concerned. The decree legislated on coalitions in general, on the ones of public interest and on those which could eventually be prepared by state employees, establishing the ways in which they could be carried out. According to the decree, strikes could not bring disrespect and violence against those who wanted to work (Comércio do Porto, 12/09/1910).

The regulation of the working hours was the third disappointment. The working class had long fought for alterations in the law concerning the weekly rest and working hours. The republican government’s promise to alter the law had been kept, but the new legislation did not satisfy the workers. According to Jornal de Notícias, the law “not only was not regulating working hours, as it was promised, but also made worse the chaotic regime of the weekly rest” (JN, 14/01/1911).

The reaction to the new legislation was almost immediate. The milliners’ class Association stated that they were poorly impressed with the “repressive strike law and the law concerning labour regulation and intended to protest” (JN, 01/17/1911). This class was suspicious about the republican regime for its bourgeois character and during the first Republic their suspicion was confirmed once they lost their vindicating power (Mónica, 1986: 58).

The other classes also became disillusioned and the first two years of the Republic were marked by 247 strikes, involving various industries, throughout the country (Cabral, 1988: 235). In the North, there were strikes in the textile, metallurgic, gas and transport industries. The workers’ movement began diverging from the Socialist Party, as the latter only supported the general strike as a “last resource” and criticized the general strikes of 1912 (Cabral, 1988: 197). This party considered that the power obtained through elections was the proper way for the workers to achieve their demands. In 1913, taking advantage of the persecution that the democratic government of Afonso Costa was making to the trade union movement and in order to control trade unionism, the socialists convened a congress in Tomar. Nevertheless, the trade union movement was strengthened and the National Workers Union was formed, autonomously from the parties.

The strike was the extreme form of reaction of the working class against the capitalist employers, since other forms of protest, such as rallies and conferences, widely used by professional associations, were not really effective, though they gathered large numbers of workers.

From 1870 to 1910, the strikes aimed at increasing the wages, reducing the working hours and preventing fires in the plants; the strike represented the struggle of a group of workers against their employers. After the implementation of the 1st Republic, the strikes, once spontaneous movements, became organized ones, prepared and validated by trade unions.

The most obvious motivation for a strike is material, but to define the true motivations of workers we have to reconstruct the history of the working class from the beginning, as Edward Thompson stated (1968), seeking explanations beyond the words of its leaders.

After World War I, the voice of the workers changed its tone. The workers’ action was no longer confined to the factory or to the place where there was confrontation between employers and employees and acquired the sense of class struggle. The social injustices were widely discussed, surpassing the workers’ issues, and were projected onto other spheres of society, including the political power, bringing into light the republican system’s own contradictions.

The claims of the working classes became visible and were felt throughout society, since the general strikes affected the normal functioning of institutions and even endangered the state itself. Trade unions, gathering most workers, guided this struggle (Freire, 1992: 130), fostered negotiation, and tried to solve the conflicts.

4. Conclusion

In the monarchical period, the workers could not associate with, much less to strike, making difficult the worker’s union and the struggle for their rights.

The workers’ protests became more relevant during the I Republic, as the vindicating process had been gaining strength since the beginning of the twentieth century and the workers had acquired class consciousness. The republican parties repressed the working class, suppressing constitutional guarantees, pursuing trade unionists and answering some of their protests with violence. The call for direct action was increasingly widespread by the Revolutionary Unionism and
the labour movement, after the I War, exhibited a more ideological and political nature.

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Analyses and Review of the Impact of Social Networking

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Abstract

Research study has focused on investigating: the ways in which people are engaging online using social networking to learn, inform and teach others, express themselves, challenge and create views on society and their place within it requires recognition that their online practices?, the benefits of SNS use are dependent on good internet and media literacy: having the skills to critically understand, analyse and create media content?, what are the range of risks and opportunities associated with the practices of social networking that must be understood and addressed by young people, policy makers and the community? The study focused primarily on investigating the benefits and falls-down of social networking services-SNS and trying to illuminate the ways in which the „online“ and „offline“ worlds are mutually constituted, potential opportunities to extend and improve. Maximizing the benefits of social networking and promoting internet and media literacy may help protect young people from many of the risks of online interaction, such as cyber-bullying, privacy breaches and predation. The research study is primarily trying to answer these research questions. Findings and recommendations are provided.

Keywords: Social networking, social media, impact of social media on the web, benefits of social networking

1. Introduction

The use of Social Networking Services (SNS) such as Facebook.com, Twitter.com, Google+plus, LinkedIn and many others – has become a popular and integral part of everyday communication currently. Social networking according to (NMC’s official Horizon Project, 2007) “is seen as a key opportunity to engage students more deeply into their course activities since these tools offer possibilities of contributing, sharing, communicating, and collaborating. “

Research in this area is an emerging field and studies identifying the negative impacts have tended to dominate the popular media and much policy development. However, there is substantial evidence of the benefits associated with SNS use, which has been largely neglected in public debate. The review report from (Beer, Dr David., 2008) summarises current evidence concerning the enabling effects of SNS in the context of young people’s everyday lives. Drawing on a range of sources this summary encompasses a variety of disciplines including education, sociology, political science, cultural studies and health. Policy currently focuses primarily on regulating the negative effects of SNS and social media, frequently framing digital citizenship within an online risk-management paradigm. This report finds that the benefits of social networking are largely associated with the participatory nature of the contemporary digital environment. Yet participation in creative content production, dissemination and consumption is largely overlooked in cyber safety frameworks. The emphasis on the risks of SNS use is exacerbated by limited intergenerational understanding of young people’s ability to navigate online environments and narrow definitions of youth citizenship. Reconceptualising these
challenges in terms of expanding young people’s digital citizenship opens up the potential to maximise the wide range of substantive benefits associated with online communicative practices.

Strategies for maximizing the benefits of SNS use must be created and guided having in mind the evidences from the best practices. More targeted research needs to be undertaken to ensure specific emerging practices are properly understood so the positive effects of SNS can be leveraged. Given young people are often proficient users of online and networked technologies, this report finds that strategies which promote dialogue and position young people as experts may help to open up new spaces for policy making, program development and, ultimately, safe and respectful online practices by young and old alike.

2. Analyses and Review of Social Networking

According to (Beer, Dr David, 2008) Social networking services (SNS) include services such as Facebook.com, MySpace.com and Bebo.com which have many millions of members each. It also includes services, such as Elftown.com (for fans of fantasy and science fiction) and Ravelry.com (for fans of knitting!) with small numbers of members, often connected by a specific common interest. Furthermore, many services created for media sharing (e.g. Flickr for photo sharing, Last.fm for music listening habits and YouTube for video sharing) have incorporated profile and networking features and may be thought of as part of this wider conceptualisation of SNS themselves (Beer, Dr David, 2008).

Indeed, SNS in a Web 2.0 environment have transformed processes of communication and social interaction particularly with the increasing integration of social media functionality to these services.

Social media is generally used to describe collaborative media creation and sharing on a fairly large scale (that can include SNS but also other participatory media activities such as news blogs) but can be extended to include smaller user-generated content networks or micro-communities (i.e. the ‘small media’ aspect of the current media environment), and things that sometimes fall outside SNS such as blogs/vlogs, podcasts, wikis, game modding.

The rapid uptake of both social media and SNS practices by young people signifies an important shift in young peoples’ use of the net primarily for information and entertainment to one of communication. Young people are consuming, producing, sharing and remixing media. This has led to the claim that today’s young people are “produsers” they actively produce and consume media (Bruns 2008). This participatory media environment enables young people to engage in creative content production, empowering them with new means of creating and sustaining connections with others. It has also opened up new debates on how to conceptualise and promote what has come to be termed cyber citizenship (Matthew O. Jackson, 2008).

Drawing on articles and reports by academics, industry, non-government and government researchers, this summary encompasses a range of disciplines including education, sociology, political science, cultural studies and health. Whilst the report draws upon an international literature, the focus is on the Australian context.

Almost all young Australians are online with 90% of 16 – 29 years olds using the internet daily (Nielsen 2010a: 139). They spend more time online (an average of 22 hours per week) than any other age group (Nielsen 2015). Many young people are able to access quality internet at home: 67% of households have internet access with 78% connected through broadband (ABS 2010). They are also early adopters in the mobile phone market with 97 per cent owning a mobile phone of which 64% are internet capable (Nielsen 2010a: 50). Young people are increasingly using their mobile phones to access the internet (54% of 16-29 years olds), making it the fifth most common use of mobile phones in that age group (Nielsen 2010a: 51). In addition to downloading content, looking up information and emailing, mobile engagement with SNS is rapidly gaining popularity: 39% of SNS users access these services via their mobile devices (Nielsen 2010a: 63).

The importance of SNS in young people’s everyday lives is indisputable: 90% of 12 to 17 year olds, and 97% of 16 to 17 year olds, use SNS (ACMA 2009a: 8). SNS use is the number one online activity for 16 to 29 year olds with 83% reporting they use them on a regular basis (Nielsen 2010a: 136). SNS allow users to communicate with others in many forms. The most frequently used forms of communication include: updating one’s own profile; commenting on photos or other posts; posting public messages to others or “wall” style messages; social network based instant messaging (Nielsen 2010a: 169). While the reading and writing of blogs remains in the top ten online activities carried out by young people, its popularity is decreasing particularly with the rise of micro-blogging practices, for example via Twitter and the Facebook’s “status” function, both of which are further enabled by the use of SNS via mobile phones (Sariola, J. 2003).

In addition to communication, SNS facilitate the creation and sharing of various forms of content including blogs, video, photos and more. In general, Australians are the world’s most prolific users of social media, and young people under 25 are the most active group when it comes to creating, updating and viewing social media (Nielsen 2010c).

In the following sections of this report, we outline a range of risks and opportunities associated with the practices of
social networking that must be understood and addressed by young people, policy makers and the community. In doing so, we emphasise that SNS in and of themselves do not yield particular risks or benefits. Rather, it is the sets of communicative and creative practices in which SNS are embedded that lead to positive or negative impacts. We firstly outline the risks that must be managed, and then describe the diverse range of positive effects - at both the level of the individual and the community - arising from social networking practices. It is crucial to highlight that the risks and opportunities associated with social networking practices are interdependent. That is, promoting the positive impacts of social networking depends in large part on developing young people’s strategies and skills for managing online risks. Simultaneously though, as we discuss below, emerging research shows that fostering the positive social, cultural and educational impacts of social networking practices can work to effectively mitigate the potential risks.

The focus on risk and protecting children and young people from harm is often based on concerns that young people lack awareness of the public nature of the internet (Sariola, J. 2003). In addition to the threat of abuse, some fear that young people’s use of SNS can compromise the development and maintenance of supportive friendships and involvement in institutions traditionally understood as the embodiment of “communities”, namely school, sports clubs, families etc (Boase, J., Horrigan, J. B., Wellman, B. & Raine L. 2006). These concerns have dominated both public debate and policy-making in recent years.

There is some evidence that young people are aware of potential privacy threats online and many proactively take steps to minimise potential risks (Ball et al 2012). Research has indicated that online risks “are not radically different in nature or scope than the risks minors have long faced offline, and minors who are most at risk in the offline world continue to be most at risk online” (Sariola, J. 2003). Although the risks are real and the consequences can be extremely serious, experts emphasise that it is important not to overstate fears or underestimate the complexity of the challenge (Boase, J., Horrigan, J. B., Wellman, B. & Raine L. 2006). Further, given that social networking practices are a routine part of many young people’s lives, we need to seek ways to promote the positive impacts of these. Limited intergenerational understanding of young people’s ability to navigate online environments can contribute to a disproportionate emphasis on the risks of SNS use (ACMA 2009c). Young people are often proficient users of online and networked technologies. Harnessing, expanding and promoting their skills and understandings of SNS may hold the key for overcoming the issues of concern.

The role of media literacy for digital literacy and cybersafety has been well established, although policy and practice has been slow to respond to new ways of thinking about media literacy in a digital world. Traditionally media literacy has been understood and taught in relation to mass media, addressing issues of media ownership, censorship and advertising. However, today’s online and networked media environment requires a more complex digital or web literacy that is often not explicitly taught in school. This environment requires that young people develop new skills to participate and stay safe in the new digital media environment. Consequently, there are a number of components to online media literacy (Jie Tang, Jimeng Sun, Chi Wang, Zi Yang, 2009), including:

- Technical literacy – for example, the knowledge and skills required to use a computer, web browser or particular software program or application;
- Critical content literacy – the ability to effectively use search engines and understand how they „order” information; who or what organisations created or sponsor the information; where the information comes from and its credibility and/or nature;
- Communicative and social networking literacy – an understanding of the many different spaces of communication on the web; the formal and informal rules that govern or guide what is appropriate behaviour; level of privacy (and therefore level of safe self-disclosure for each); and how to deal with unwanted or inappropriate communication through them;
- Creative content and visual literacy – in addition to the skills to create and upload image and video content this includes understanding how online visual content is edited and „constructed”, what kind of content is appropriate and how copyright applies to their activities;
- Mobile media literacy – familiarity with the skills and forms of communication specific to mobile phones (eg: text messaging); mobile web literacy, and an understanding of mobile phone etiquettes.

Research indicates that the use of social networking services can support the development of media literacy. The creation and sharing of content on services such as MySpace has been seen to increase both young people’s „technical literacy”, as they learn to use code to create their profiles, and „creative content and visual literacy” as they draw from and re-use media in appropriate ways for communication and self-expression (Sariola, J. 2003). Given written text, photos, animation, sounds, music, video clips are core components of SNS, young people develop a deeper understanding of the production, nature and use of various forms of content, which is otherwise missing from school curricula (Sariola, J. 2003).
There is much interest from schools, TAFE and Universities in the potential of public SNS and social media such as blogs to leverage or complement formal educational activities and enhance learning outcomes (Hermann, H. & Burns, J. M. 2010). Whilst e-learning frameworks are now integrated into most educational settings, the use of SNS is less comprehensively utilised. Access to SNS varies according to state and educational level with some states banning access to SNS and social media services altogether (Hermann, H. & Burns, J. M. 2010). Consequently there is a dearth of evidence on the impact of SNS on young people’s formal education (Anderson 2007). Nevertheless, pilot projects and research are being rolled out which highlight both the potential and the need for social software, services and practices to be integrated into school and higher education frameworks (eg. Fitzgerald & Steele 2008). SNS is also being used to extend opportunities for formal learning across geographical contexts. For example, within the Linking Latitudes program established by Tasmania’s Sacred Heart School and Pularumpi School on Melville Island, learners from both schools use instant messaging and Skype to share information about their cultures and work collaboratively. Using SNS, young people from the two schools interact with learners from over forty other schools (DEECD 2010). Additionally, SNS use between teachers and students can improve rapport and motivation and engagement with education (Mazer, Murphy & Simonds 2007). Studies conducted in the workplace on the role of ICT in learning and development find:

- As a setting for sharing content & creating/maintaining relationships, Web 2.0 functionality facilitates peer-based & self-directed learning;
- Young people in particular value social & interactive opportunities for learning;
- Handheld technology is a particularly useful tool for workplace learning due to „regular accessibility” (D. J. Watts, P. S. Dodds, and M. E. Newman 2012);
- Access to virtual or online communities is more important than the physical education environment (education.au 2009);
- Online forums and SNS can support the continuation and extension of learning and discussion outside formal classroom setting (education.au 2009c);
- Peer based learning is a key characteristic of the way in which young people direct their own learning outside school & formal organisations. This is characterised by a context of reciprocity, where participants feel they can both produce and evaluate knowledge & culture (A. Gionis, E. Terzi, and P. Tsaparas. 2013); and,
- Young people expect interactivity “the Net Generation has been described as experiential, engaged, and constantly connected, with a strong need for immediacy” (A. Gionis, E. Terzi, and P. Tsaparas. 2013)

Evaluations of e-learning strategies have found SNS platforms allow for the extension of learning discussion outside the formal classroom setting, therefore promoting deeper learning as young people not only engage with the material for longer but are more likely to relate to it and incorporate it into their everyday lives (e. g. education.au 2009 & Hermann, H. & Burns, J. M. 2009). Finally, studies conducted on the use of hand held devices to deliver workplace learning demonstrated that „regular accessibility” means young people can access resources in a way that is both convenient and relevant to them. This in turn translates into increased levels of implementation into work practice (R. S. Burt 2001).

It is important to note that the educational benefits of SNS are not experienced equally by all young people. Certain groups of learners, such as Indigenous young people, those from low socio-economic backgrounds and those living in remote areas, face persistent challenges of internet access and literacy (ACMA 2009b). Maximising the benefits of SNS for these groups specifically requires addressing access and digital literacy. Yet, where access and skills are promoted, SNS and social media can enhance the interactions of marginalised young people with their teacher and increase their confidence in educational activities (Boyd, 2006)). Utilising different formats – for example, attaching a multi-media file or attaching clip art – enables individuals to articulate and explain themselves when faced with cultural, social, language or learning barriers (Z. Lovrekovic, T., 2012).

Regarding Informal knowledge and skills SNS can facilitate learning and skill development outside formal learning environments by supporting peer-to-peer learning of knowledge and skills, collaboration, diverse cultural expression, the development of skills valued in the modern workplace, and a more empowered conception of citizenship (Ito, et. al., 2006; Jenkins, 2007: 3). Furthermore, because of the high level of agency and personalisation involved, SNS can be particularly important learning spaces for young people who struggle in traditional educational settings (Fetaji et. al. 2007). Beyond substantial educational benefits studies have shown that SNS support informal learning interests and needs such as online marketing, advanced IT and creative content production as well as parenting methods for young parents (Hermann, H. & Burns, J. M., 2009: 1220). Such studies show that SNS constitute new avenues for engaging young people in learning activities. When sharing content and creating/maintaining relationships young people engage in peer-based, self-directed and interactive learning (accessible from outside the classroom), essential for engagement and deep learning (Fetaji et al 2007). Furthermore, the knowledge and skills young people are learning through SNS are directly
relevant to the „participatory web” in which „user generated content is now integral in a rapidly developing online business model that capitalises on the social networks, creativity and knowledge of its users”, and this means that new business models are expected to emerge (see OECD 2007). This has led some to claim that the learning enabled via SNS and social media will have a direct bearing on their economic futures (Hermann, H. & Burns, J. M., 2009).

There remain important questions about the extent to which informal learning enabled by SNS impacts upon formal learning. Although it cannot be presumed that daily use of technology outside of formal educational contexts translates into meaningful use for learning (Fetaji et al 2007) SNS will provide the most benefit in terms of learning when there is integration of young people’s SNS use in educational settings and their everyday lives.

Rapid uptake of digital technologies have opened up unprecedented possibilities for amateur users to create and distribute content (D. J. Watts, P. S. Dodds, and M. E. Newman. 2002) such that media „users” have become „produsers” (Bruns, 2008). User-generated content describes both the generation of „original” creative content and „remixed” content that creatively reworks or repurposes existing content. The interrelationship between SNS and social media has provided a key impetus (via platforms such as youtube. com and flickr. com) for the sharing of this self-generated content with broader networks. Young people in particular are more immersed in this participatory media environment than any other age-group. They now create and share their own ‘small media’ in their everyday communicative, creative and social activities.

Creative content sharing practices (such as blogs, animations, videos, photos and digital collages) form an increasingly integral part of young people’s communicative exchange and play a significant role in young people’s developing sense of identity and community. Creative content production and sharing empowers individual young people through the following demonstrated benefits:

- fostering the development of literacy and technical skills (D. J. Watts, P. S. Dodds, and M. E. Newman, 2002);
- developing a sense of aspiration, personal achievement and self-worth, and fostering further creativity and self-expression (Hermann, H. & Burns, J. M. and Tacchi, 2005) – all of which are key predictors of wellbeing;
- encouraging exploration and experimentation with new or different aspects of their identity (Boyd & Ellison, 2008); and,
- reinforcing aspects of identity, such as ethnicity or cultural background (Boyd & Ellison, 2008).

The production and exchange of creative content also has demonstrated community-building effects. It can enhance the sense of community, belonging and connection that comes from a „shared history” of exchanging creative content (Boyd & Ellison, 2008). Collaborative creative production, in turn, gives rise to a stronger sense of connection with others and the formation of strong communities. These communities may be enduring or more ephemeral in nature. However, evidence suggests that, either way, they have positive impacts on participants’ sense of community and connection (Richardson, Third and MacColl, 2009).

Young people’s use of SNS is important for the strengthening and development of social relationships, particularly as the online and offline worlds converge.

Strengthening existing relationships Having positive interpersonal relationships is an important predictor of wellbeing (Boyd & Ellison, 2008) and can buffer individuals from many of the key stressors that characterise the transition from childhood to adulthood (Boyd & Ellison, 2008). Internet use, generally, has been found to strengthen young people’s existing interpersonal relationships (Boyd & Ellison, 2008). Email, instant messaging and social networking can address new barriers young people may face to forming and maintaining positive social relationships. These barriers can include lack of safe, accessible and welcoming public places to gather, limited transport to get there, and time free of structured activities such as school and sport. SNS challenge these barriers because they are accessible 24/7, from different physical locations and via different technologies (eg. computer, mobile device) (boyd 2006). Furthermore, SNS play a critical role in overcoming the impact that high levels of mobility and complexity can have on long-term relationships. For example, studies have found that SNS helps young people who have recently transitioned from high-school to university to develop new relationships while maintaining their high-school friendships. In particular, those students with lower levels of satisfaction with university life and lower levels of self-esteem benefited the most from active use of Facebook (Boyd & Ellison, 2008). Indeed, some forms of online social networking, such as instant messaging, usually involve much smaller groups of participants (often one-to-one communication) and are primarily used to maintain existing friendship networks (Boyd & Ellison, 2008). SNS also play an important role in young people’s development and exploration of intimate relationships (boyd 2007). Once contact between young people in an intimate relationship outside of school hours usually occurred on the family phone which was shared and regulated by parents. Now SNS, along with the mobile phone, have provided a space in which this communication can occur (Boyd & Ellison, 2008).
3. Analyses of the Impact of Social Networking

Most research has focused on the role SNS play in the maintaining and strengthening of existing offline relationships. This research often suggests that those relationships which occur solely online, while important, are „weaker“ (Boyd & Ellison, 2008). However, for some young people, particularly those who are marginalised or otherwise socially isolated, online relationships provided a significant, and sometimes the only, opportunity for such socialisation. As a study of SNS for young people who suffer chronic illness and/or disability demonstrates, not only did it provide the opportunity to develop such friendships but participants described these friendships as „true friends“ that were amongst their most dependable and enduring (Jie Tang, Jimeng Sun, Chi Wang, Zi Yang, 2009). This ability to connect with others with shared values, views, needs or experiences, can assist young people experiencing marginalisation to identify potential supportive connections in their local community. Another study demonstrated how Facebook helped young people with lower levels of social skills develop friendships online that then translated offline (V. Arnaboldi, A. Guazzini, and A. Passarella 2013). SNS play a significant role in the formation of new forms of „collective identity“. For example, studies have found that SNS can help young people who are sexually and gender diverse to meet people and learn from each other, creating the sense of belonging to a broader community (Jie Tang, Jimeng Sun, Chi Wang, Zi Yang, 2009). This sense of belonging and acceptance can mean that young people who may be more vulnerable to isolation – such as those with chronic illness or a disability – often remain members of an online community long after their initial impetus is gone (V. Arnaboldi, A. Guazzini, and A. Passarella 2013).

Content sharing plays a major role in cultivating belonging and a sense of collective identity. Sharing written, visual or audio content on SNS that represents or portrays an individual or community experience invites others to engage and relate. Ito and Okabe (2005) use the term „ambient co-presence“ to explain this phenomenon: an ongoing visual access to a small-scale communication cluster (or 'community') via spontaneous and everyday images uploaded to a collaborative media space. Such a mode of 'sharing' and 'connection' does not require text-based or real-time communication and can also mitigate feelings of social isolation (V. Arnaboldi, A. Guazzini, and A. Passarella 2013).

While research specifically on SNS use needs to be conducted, it has been argued that SNS functionality has a key role to play in strengthening social connectedness, self-efficacy, general knowledge and/or life skills and is critical for the promotion of young people’s overall mental health and wellbeing (Boyd & Ellison, 2008). The personalisation of SNS profiles is not only important to young people’s relationship with others but is positively associated with the individual’s sense of self-efficacy or personal agency (Hermann, H. & Burns, J. M. & Tachhi, 2005). Young person’s sense of ownership over the online space also enhances their sense of empowerment and accomplishment which reinforces the sense of belonging and attachment to community (V. Arnaboldi, A. Guazzini, and A. Passarella 2013). There is a demonstrated positive relationship between young people’s use of social networking services and self-esteem (Boyd & Ellison, 2008). It is also argued that a sense of community and belonging has the potential to promote young people’s resilience, giving them the ability to successfully adapt to change and stressful events (V. Arnaboldi, A. Guazzini, and A. Passarella 2013) This is an area that requires more large-scale research, particularly considering the over-emphasis within the public realm on the negative psychological effects of SNS and social media. However, overall, it appears that the social connections developed and fostered through SNS play an important role in promoting young people’s wellbeing (Boyd & Ellison, 2008).

4. Conclusions

This study attempted to resolve some of the definitional and methodological difficulties encountered by previous researchers. It involved review and comparative analyses of Social Networking.

Contemporary learning theory suggests that individual learners differ in the way they learn and that learning must be tailored to the individual learner. Consequently, learning environments must have the flexibility to adapt themselves for the individual learner.

This review finds that there are a number of significant benefits associated with the use of SNS including: delivering educational outcomes; facilitating supportive relationships; identity formation; and, promoting a sense of belonging and self-esteem. Furthermore, the strong sense of community and belonging fostered by SNS has the potential to promote resilience, which helps young people to successfully adapt to change and stressful events. Importantly, the benefits of SNS use are dependent on good internet and media literacy: having the skills to critically understand, analyse and create media content. Maximising the benefits of SNS and promoting internet and media literacy may help protect young people from many of the risks of online interaction, such as cyber-bullying, privacy breaches and predation.
example, understanding how to produce creative content and manage the distribution of this content supports fully informed decision making and assessment of one’s own, and others’ privacy.

The debate over whether SNS only foster existing relationships or whether they are an important facilitator of new relationships is based on an assumed distinction between face-to-face and online communication. There is increasing evidence that young people experience “online” and “offline” social worlds as “mutually constituted” (Boyd & Ellison, 2008) and flexibly combine a number of modes of techno-social interaction (Third and Richardson, 2010). Mobile and advanced technologies enable exchanging knowledge and skills that make learning collaborative and adaptive process of knowledge acquisition (Fetaji et al 2007). Another advantage of m-learning is the possibility of attending a video conference wireless from a classroom with no physical location and cable connections constraints.

Social Networking Services (SNS) are significant players in the Web 2.0 environment, transforming communication practices, opening new spaces and processes of socialisation and impacting upon traditional social structures. These effects are particularly relevant for the most frequent users of SNS – young people. This new environment poses certain challenges and, like any setting for social interaction, has some inherent risks. However, this review suggests that these challenges and risks have been over-emphasised in recent years both in popular media and social research. Through increased internet and media literacy – ensuring all young people develop the skills to critically understand, analyse and create media content – these challenges can be overcome and risks mitigated in a way that ensures the many benefits of SNS can be realised. In other words, by maximising the benefits of SNS, whether it be their role in delivering educational outcomes, or facilitating supportive relationships, identity formation, or a sense of belonging and resiliency, many of the risks of online interaction, such as cyber-bullying, privacy breaches and predation, can be minimised. Strategies to this end must be underpinned by best practice evidence and more research should be undertaken to ensure that emerging practices and effects of SNS are understood and responded to.

This review of the benefits of SNS also points to some potential opportunities to extend and improve conceptualisations of “cybercitizenship” in policy and practice. Firstly, the concept of cybercitizenship, and its associated policies and programs, are almost exclusively focused on children and young people and therefore speak to what young people should “become” rather than what they already “are”. It implies deficiency and fails to recognise that young people (and indeed children) are often more engaged, knowledgeable and proactive when it comes to safe and responsible online practices. Cybercitizenship, therefore, is a concept that would more usefully be applied to the community as a whole, rather than as a set of policies that target young people as requiring protecting - or protection from – in a digital landscape. Indeed, the Australian Communications and Media Authority has recognised that cybercitizenship policy should address a broader audience – acknowledging that adults would benefit from initiatives in online safety that have previously targeted children and young people (ACMA, 2009).

The second insight is that the positioning of cybercitizenship within an online risk-management paradigm (particularly within policy) is inherently limiting given the substantial range and substantive benefits associated with online practices. This paper finds that the benefits of social networking are largely associated with the participatory nature of the contemporary digital environment, yet participation in creative content production, dissemination and consumption is largely overlooked in cybercitizenship frameworks. Incorporating academic work on cybercitizenship and thus broadening the notion of cybercitizenship to encompass the ways in which people are engaging online to express themselves, challenge and create views on society and their place within it requires recognition that their online practices may challenge commonly held notions about childhood, youth, gender, ethnicity and so on. Importantly, these considerations should be informed by young people’s own experiences and perspectives. It may also present the need to incorporate new kinds of ethical and legal information relating to „citizen“ rights and responsibilities.

Finally, the analyses of the benefits of SNS illuminates the ways in which the „online“ and „offline“ worlds are mutually constituted. However, cybercitizenship as a concept has a tendency to reinforce notions that there is a distinction between computer and web-mediated communication on the one hand and all other modes of communication on the other. If it is to retain relevance and deliver benefits to the community, our understanding of cybercitizenship must be more holistic, to fully encompass and resonate across all of the settings in which we live our lives - be that home, school, work, our local communities or our communities of interest.

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their social networks and provide pathways to help when people face big decisions, Pew Internet & American Life Project, Washington.


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Diversity Management in the Campania Region (Italy): A Case Study

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Abstract

This contribution revolves around the main topics regarding the impact of gender on the culture of organization. The specific objective is exploring the organizational context and the working conditions within good examples of Diversity Management. The research, in fact, aims at developing a model of knowledge that is useful to re-think the existing forms of flexicurity with the purpose of increasing female occupation and promoting sustainable territory development. All of this thought in the perspective of spreading the culture of Diversity Management and having an effect on social and working inclusion of women and young graduates, especially in the field of cooperative enterprises. For such a purpose, a case study on Diversity Management is shown with the goal of analyzing organizational models including young female entrepreneurs as protagonists that are active in Campania, a region of southern Italy in which the University of Salerno operates.

Keywords: Diversity Management, Campania Region, female occupation, promoting sustainable territory development

1. Introduction

This paper presents the first results of an extensive research on diversity management, which includes case studies, finalized to analyze virtuous models of female entrepreneurship that are present in particular in the territory of Campania, the region of southern Italy in which the University of Salerno is located.

As a starting point, we have launched a first survey on a company having educational purposes, “Crescere Insieme”, working in Mercato San Severino (SA). It has been founded by two young women, Alfonsina and Rosa, who have both graduated in Educational Sciences at the University of Salerno.

For simpler reading, information related to the company are summarized in the grid below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>General information</th>
<th>Crescere Insieme</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Company name</td>
<td>Crescere Insieme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Address</td>
<td>via Trieste 49, 84085 Mercato San Severino (SA)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tel.</td>
<td>089 890441</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cell.</td>
<td>3331640306</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Website</td>
<td><a href="http://www.aslionidocrescereinsieme.it">www.aslionidocrescereinsieme.it</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Founder members and managers</td>
<td>Alfonsina Della Rocca, Rosa Santoro</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age at the start of company activities</td>
<td>both 26.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qualifications: Degree in Educational Sciences for both.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Start of activities</td>
<td>First opening 8th of July 2011; Start of activities 11th of July 2011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hours open to the public</td>
<td>Monday: 7:40 – 18:30</td>
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<tr>
<td>Number of users (male and female children)</td>
<td>700</td>
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<td>Educational services offered</td>
<td></td>
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<td>Nursery</td>
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<td>Maternal school</td>
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<td>Playroom</td>
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<td>Parties and animation</td>
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<td>Mess hall</td>
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<td>Afterschool activities</td>
<td>For children attending primary school and first level secondary school</td>
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<td>Laboratories</td>
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<tr>
<td>English courses for children</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Baby parking</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Summer camp</td>
<td>In June, July and August, Monday to Friday from 8.00am to 5.00pm.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pediatric guidance</td>
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<td>Psychopedagogy guidance</td>
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<tr>
<td>Coach service</td>
<td>For children attending the nursery and maternal school, as well as users of the mess hall and afterschool activities.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
2. From Idea to Project

Alfonsina’s tale of the various steps which have led to the birth of the Educational Centre offers food for thought. From the very way in which the project was conceived interesting elements emerge about the *modus operandi* of the young entrepreneur:

“This idea was born a bit before my degree […], my friend and I thought we would create something of our own, so to set up a kindergarten, a kindergarten because in our area, we evaluated, there were no such facilities so we thought we would start a business of our own. […] We noticed that the facilities already working [in our area] were simply playrooms […] there were no kindergartens in our area and so we thought […] we would start this business, I mean, because there was a demand”.

The idea to start a business of their own, which matured before the end of their education, has then evolved into a project. Such a project was developed joining market demands and personal aspirations. This last aspect was the prevailing factor for motivation. In fact, this initiative sprouted from the personal desire shared by both of them to work in children education:

“We like the kindergarten branch, the maternal school branch, of course we have only evaluated this branch, I mean, because since we’re studying Educational Sciences, that is since we study in this very field, by going in various traineeships we realized it is what we wanted to do and so we did surveys related to this branch.”

To overcome the lack of experience, the two young entrepreneurs gathered information from experts of various fields, from public institutions to private subjects, in order to draw a clear picture of how to get ahead and make their project a reality. Their statements reveal an active approach, a strong will but also the openmindedness to confront other people and acquire knowledge on all aspects of their business:

“In the beginning we talked about it with competent people then […] with people already having such a facility, of course not in this area, but in others, then we talked about it with our mayor, with some of the members of his council, with the ASL (Local Health Companies) and other people like our accountant, some lawyers, to get a rough idea of how to create this facility and get some directions […] then anyway, since we didn’t have great economic resources to do this thing, we tried to understand how to get some help, some funding to start this business.”

3. The Courage to Get in the Game

Good intentions aside, economic resources were needed to sustain the investment. For this reason, the two girls decided to ask for a loan of 70,000 euros to Invitalia, the National Agency for Attracting Investments and Company Development. They did not succeed at first try. Nevertheless, Alfonsina and Rosa were not brought down by that and improved their project then reapplied the following year:

“The first time it was rejected, the second time it was accepted. Of course, we had an interview and after this interview we were answered positively. […] We showed our whole project again, starting from what facility we wanted to create, what personnel to employ in this facility, so all the activities we wanted to do and why we had chosen this thing. […] After an evaluation Invitalia called us for an interview and during this interview it asked us a lot of questions on this project of ours. […] After the interview they replied after a couple months. After this we basically came back there to put our signatures on everything, the contract and all that and then we started to build up I mean we started going to suppliers to do invoices, to call the company which took care of refurbishments, we structured the premises, to fill in the due forms at the town hall of Mercato San Severino (SA) and then little by little it came out…”.

Once the red tape had been dealt with, the premises had to be rented and restructured, furniture had to be put in and everything necessary had to be done. The loan of 70,000 euros, half lump sum and half to be given back in 5 years with an interest of 1% - so not 35,000 but 41,000 euros – was supplied in various instalments.

“They give you the money when you have a payment, a check, a money transfer which proves the existence of the payment to the suppliers, generally. […] They wouldn’t give you this money right away. They basically gave them in various instalments. We had to pay in advance for everything and later we were reimbursed. […] Then they came to the premises to control whether all we had declared had been done or not. […] In the end we are going to pay back 41 thousand euros, because it’s half of it plus interest, but in five years so until 2018, in tri-monthly investments.”
4. The Family Support

An element not to be underestimated in this story is family support, be it material or moral. Alfonsina stresses that the loan Invitalia agreed on was supplied in investments that could only reimburse expenses that had already been made. Therefore, notwithstanding the funding, a starting capital was needed.

“Family was always there, always agreeing, I mean they had faith in what we were going to create […] friends too, but sometimes they didn’t even realize all that we were doing, so, in the end, when we opened […] they congratulated us for this thing. […] Family supported us economically for starters, because other than the funding we had to spend some of our own money because the sum we had applied for wasn’t enough to get the job done anyway, to create all of this facility. So they gave us a big hand economically for starters, then they stayed close to us, they helped us economically throughout our journey. They (also) did hands-on work where cleaning was needed […] during the opening […] they are still there today and help us with this thing.”

5. Youth and Gender between Prejudice and Stereotypes

Alfonsina says that throughout the various steps that eventually led to the birth of their company, her partner and her met an ambivalent attitude in the various characters they have met since 2011 to present day.

About the specific purpose of their activity, children’s education, nobody argued with them: in fact, being women they were believed to have an actual advantage in the field of education.

For what regards, instead, their young age, this was seen as a setback by the various characters the young entrepreneurs had to deal with. First, bureaucratic institutions tried to undermine the initiative by making known that they saw youth as a limit. More specifically, the ASL (Local Health Company – regional public entity embodying National Health Service) personnel in charge of verifying the required documentation attesting that the health norms had been respected tried to convince the girls to give up on realizing such a complex activity from the very start.

“Because we were women […] anyway it’s an activity we […] as women can carry out well enough, so they had no problems with that; about our young age somebody doubted that we could manage a company like this, a facility hosting 100 children so somebody was a bit doubtful. In the beginning of our project some people even said: - you are taking a risk, you are creating a very big project, what about maybe doing something simpler, don’t throw yourself blindly in this important thing -. Some people, as we asked them information or guidance on this thing, they said: - you shouldn’t be doing that, don’t do this thing, do something smaller, something more limited-

I’m talking about people […] at the ASL. Regarding the town hall, the mayor has always given us freedom, has never limited us in anything, has always given us freedom to do this thing […], he has always believed in in this thing and always believed in us, in short, he has never been an obstacle”.

The effort required for such an activity, according to the prejudice the girls met, would be out of reach for two girls this young. The advice they were given was to give up on such an ambitious and complex project, to start from something simpler. These attempts, by the way, did not discourage the two educators-entrepreneurs, but were instead interpreted as incentive, as a challenge to prove how relevant passion and vocation can be. These two last aspects are the strong points by which external pressures were endured. It was thanks to hard work and achieved results that the two young girls have managed to prove even their harshest critics wrong. What Alfonsina and Rosa are proud to have demonstrated is that youth is not a limit but a resource that, if adequately used, can give the strength to make one’s wishes come true.

The same skepticism about the managing abilities of the two young entrepreneurs was expressed even by some user-mothers, who entering the facility with the intention of signing their children up were perplexed by the owners’ young age. Such doubts were made openly known with questions such as: “you’re so young, are you sure you can manage all these children?”, or “you know there is work to come, you’re so young and still you already want to work every day, for all this time?”, and also “do you know that dealing with parents is by all means a hard thing to do?”

Notwithstanding this external pressure, not only did Alfonsina and Rosa fulfil their ambition, but with years they also extended the range of services offered and enlarged the very premises, to face an increasing demand.

“At the start we started with 15 children, today we have […] (about) 80-100 children […] (and) our services let’s say have been extended. I mean we tried to offer new things also. For example […] the first year we were a private maternal school (childhood school) then we asked to get the status of comprehensive and now we are a comprehensive maternal school (childhood school). Then other than this we have extended our range of services, meaning that as of today we also have a coach service […]. We bought a coach last year and we have offered coach service since January. For children coming from the province of Avellino, that is from Montoro [Inferiore (SA)] and so in the morning they come with us, we go to their homes and pick them up […] and also children coming to our kindergarten from home […] and also we
pick up children as soon as they come out of school, elementary school (primary school) and first level secondary school, and who come to us for our mess hall and afterschool services. In addition to that, we organize birthday parties, by the way our services have extended because the demand has risen. Actually, we have also made our premises larger to face all the requests we were having. We have extended its surface by other 100 m² square meters. It currently covers 600 m²."

Age was a weakness to suppliers too, who were unfair in inflating their prices trying to take advantage of the alleged inexperience of the two young women. However, thanks to the guidance of experts, the two owners were able to avoid various attempts to fraud them.

6. Female Gender as a Guarantee in Education

The children’s fathers, as opposed to mothers, have showed trust in the educational qualities of Alfonsina and Rosa right from the start. We can assume that some known stereotypes regarding female gender according to which childcare and education are natural tasks of women had a final say in it.

Another type of prejudice we can notice in the critical attitude of mothers, who felt challenged as mothers and as elder women, and as such more expert in childcare and education.

Nevertheless, this initial element of competition did not make for an invincible obstacle.

Against such prejudice, the two young educators have managed to reassure the worried mothers by answering their critics with the efficacy of their effort. In such a way they have proven that passion, goodwill to improve, experience acquired in traineeships and a course of study in the pedagogic field are strong points that can make them apt and able to manage the delicate and difficult activity they had chosen to take forward.

"The (our) reply was […] that for starters age does not matter, passport age at least, meaning that experience as well as willingness to do, to learn and work, those do count I mean, and by the way we are confident about what we have learned, want to do and do, so in the end this activity does not scare us.

About the fathers […] they complimented us, the mothers instead many times […] they believe we are too young for this thing, but then […] after a positive feedback […] in the end they changed their mind and today they respect us. […] On the other hand there’s another group of mothers who […] believe [our young age] to be a selling point because we have the energy to work, because being young means we have different perspectives, different projects than those an elder person would have."

7. An Organizational Model Based on Assertiveness, Cooperation and Flexibility

The business model adopted within “Crescere Insieme” was not the product of a rigid pre-existing idea the two aspiring entrepreneurs had, but matured following actual experience on the field, other than the willingness to learn, through educational models of cooperation and work.

"Before the opening, my partner went on traineeships also to understand how to run a business like this. Then little by little we were helped by accountants, lawyers, work consultants who walk us through these things. A selling point is also that I, aside from a degree in Educational Sciences, also have a diploma in accounting and as such I’m able to manage the bureaucratic part of the company. On the other hand, my partner [Rosa] is also a major in Educational Sciences and having under our belts traineeships we have managed to sort it all out… the bureaucratic part on my shoulders mainly, the managing part regarding children class management, parents management and personnel management on hers instead. Of course a big help has come from these people guiding us, walking us through. What also helped was experience: after four years of experience we are able to better manage the situations we are presented”.

The willingness to get better and openness to criticism did not run out in the initial phase, since as of now the girls are continuing to ask various professionals for advice. The pilot survey and the internship in similar companies have been useful as a way to approach the field. Yet, the organizational model only matured afterwards following the different personal and professional skills.

In fact, the organizational formula the two owners adopted consists of a role division based on personal resources and professional background of each of them. Alfonsina copes with bureaucratic matters, while Rosa deals with the public relations with personnel, parents and children. Nevertheless, their work is not done after the general coordination and administrative tasks have been carried out, but is also made of fieldwork: manager responsibilities do not stop them from working as educators themselves. Even in this sense, a further division of roles ensues: Alfonsina is in charge of the nursery, hosting children from 0 to 3 years of age, while Rosa cares for childhood education for children from 3 to 5
years.

Regarding relationship and communication model, the basic ideology behind “Crescere Insieme” is about perceiving themselves as “a family”. This is especially true in relations with the personnel working in education: among the members of this family, owners included, there are no hierarchies, let alone an authoritative principle marking the relationship. The secret sauce to get better at one’s job, according to the way Alfonsina sees it, is being open to constructive discussion and speak to each other with sincerity and serenity.

Speaking about relations with the children’s parents, in this sense also the main idea is adopting a not-too-detached or professional-looking attitude. Dialog is built on some ingredients that are considered essential: loyalty and sincerity. As soon as a problem or situation requiring special attention shows up, i. e. a child showing disruptive behavior or the arisen suspicion of a learning impairment or other psycho-somatic deficiency, a professional opinion is given to parents, but all is done in the general climate of mutual cooperation, in order not to burden the family with a final diagnosis or a rigid solution.

“If we speak about wrong attitude […] in class […] we immediately report to parents because we believe that school and family must collaborate and cooperate anyway, so in the end we think a parent should be informed of such things. We simply tell him […] we always get in these terms, I mean we inform the parents of their child’s attitude in class and of what we may think about that, then of course we don’t take decisions, it’s the parent’s responsibility to decide the course of action.

[Then again] it depends on situation, it depends on what happened, it depends on the parents you are dealing with because for each parents you have to adopt a different methodology […]. Still we always try to get on their level […] we try to inform them in a very relaxed way. […] We look for cooperation, that’s it, so inform them in order to find a solution together. It depends then because staying in contact with parents means you are able to understand each parent and for each you select a different approach”.

According to Alfonsina’s point of view, flexibility and the ability to adapt to people and context is a key point for a correct educational intervention. The parents’ situation must be taken into consideration depending on who you deal with, after which you try to negotiate a possible common educational strategy. In this sense, you try to stimulate the family into being more and more capable to make self-analysis.

This horizontal and cooperative relationship model also encompasses relations with personnel, which in turn are based on giving value to each one’s skills and on constructive confrontation.

For every problem that arises you try to discuss together to find the best solution depending on case. Because of that, internal hierarchies regulating interactions among employers and employees do not exist. From the moment they are employed, all educators are told:

“we’re a family here. […] We have never said: - we’re the bosses and you’re the employees -, or things such as: - we’re the owners. We always get on equal level, we have never said: - I’m the owner and you will do what I say – or similar things. Hierarchies do not exist here, we’re all the same, in the same way. [Although there were] arguments which might have brought to an educator or teachers leaving, […] most of our discussions [are aimed at] improving ourselves […] constructive criticism is done”.

8. From Kindergarten to Kindergarten: A Tale of Friendship

The cornerstone the whole project has been built on is the strong bonds of friendship joining the two co-founders together, a relationship going back to the times when they attended kindergarten together.

The idea of creating this facility came from the desire to make something together, before they finished their University studies, which were another shared experience.

“Aside from the fact that it’s a bond going strong since our childhood, so in the end today we’re both 29 and we’ve known each other for 29 years. It’s obvious that as in any company, in any relationship discussions have to be had, but they’re discussions we have in order to find a solution together, not discussions leading to arguments or damage, absolutely not. When the end comes, everything is just the way it used to be, a good solution for both is found and that is that. […] We have separate [roles], each of us deals with a branch, I deal with the nursery, she [Rosa] deals with maternal school (childhood school), then in the end let’s say we discuss, then each deals with her own branch. Then perhaps for what regards choosing how to handle an even, on how to manage personnel, work hours, various things in short, we might have different ideas on something, then we discuss it and get to a solution that meets the needs of both. In the end we almost always agree on 90% of things, I mean we almost always think the same way, so finding a solution is always easy, so we have never found it difficult to solve anything”.

The strong harmony between them has made company management clear of critical conflict, as of today. There
have never been times of misunderstanding or resentment between the two. Every confrontation has been made with the aim of doing what is right and to the benefit of the educational company, putting selfishness and personal claims aside.

“In the end it’s a delicate relationship meaning you always have to keep the balance and so if you can keep the balance then you go forward and work well, otherwise, no, I mean […] you always have to keep in mind you can’t be the only one to decide, you always have to confront to another person and you must be open to thoughts, opinions that other person has, you can’t do everything by yourself, yes so you have to discuss […] about anything. I know having a company is difficult, a work relationship in this sense, yet as we speak we have never had these difficulties because there is just this sincerity-based relationship, this trust-based relationship coming from both of us and I also think the important thing is that we have a shared goal”.

9. Some Thoughts

This first part of our observation on “Crescere Insieme” showed virtuous aspects on various levels. On the level of approach, the stereotype implying lack of assertiveness in women has been defeated. On the contrary, all the various phases that have led to the realization of the project, and to its more than positive development, have been handled with rationality, determination and a professional approach.

Human resources, in the sense of personality-driven factors, coming from willpower and personal vocation, have constituted the funding element. The way in which to carry out the chosen mission has been chosen considering personal skills. The ability to form relationships has been extended to relations with all the players, vertically as well as horizontally. In building rapport with parents as well as with employers and between partners, symmetric communicative exchanges are preferred which are based on sincerity, loyalty, the right amount of emotional involvement and the ability to communicate in an effective way.

The role and task division sprouting from such a model shows itself able to employ everyone’s resources in the best way possible. The follow-up to this research will furtherly investigate this model in order to better analyze not only its strong points and weaknesses but above all discover the factors that make it a model characterized by gender, as stated in our starting hypothesis.

For what regards the overcoming of prejudice and stereotypes connected to gender and age, we have covered that already, but this aspect will also be furtherly and more closely analyzed with a focus on relationships with families and the surrounding environment.

Qualitative interviews will be had with a significative number of subjects involved, and participating observation will be done as well.

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Irony in the Prose of Faik Konica

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Abstract

Irony in literature is a figure of speech (trope) from Greek language “erioneia” and means hidden mockery, pretension. It involves incongruity between what is expected and what occurs. The trope is used intentionally to mean the opposite. Faik Konica is one of the Albanian writers who used irony wittily and skillfully. For Konica the artistic prose offers an aesthetic taste which is related to a new way of thinking and calls for perfection of style and language. The author uses irony with the aim of putting emphasis on the word and the situation. He had his humor inspired not by his personal discontent but by the national ideal, by the humanity and emancipation of the individual. His style is a mixture of elements of satire and light melody of the lyric, but only as part of irony against the mediocrity and absurdity of Albanian society. In his work Konica confronts two contrary cultures: the Western European culture to which he belonged with the grotesque backwardness of his people, with caricature characters sunk into ignorance and into the oriental mire of moral, economic and cultural vegetation. These are the problems that the author ironies, which make the object of our work.

Keywords: Needle Doctor, irony, national ideal, humanity, orientalism

1. The Theoretical Concept of Irony

Irony is a rhetorical figure related to tropes; it is a way of communication that conveys different and usually contrary meanings to what is said or declared. Irony is a similar figure of speech with metonymy. Based on the meaning it expresses, irony is a fine mockery through words which has a laudatory character. Irony is a poetic figure which is related to the critical attitude of the writer toward the object being ironized, for example:

"Ka ndenjur si nje ka
Po ha edhe po ha,
Shembet me pilaf,
Fruhet me hoshaf;
S`ka kohë të flasë
Faik Konica; “Anadollaku në mësallë” (1901).

There are many types of irony, but they can be reduced in two main categories: situational and linguistic. Each irony depends by its success to analyze and diminish the distance between words and events. Irony can be classified also as comical and tragically. Irony is the art of transverse and close spawning by supporting it’s functioning in such techniques as, unrevealed/open expression, paradox, word-games and other clever forms of expression and inconsistencies.

There is an elementary irony which is confused with recognition, and which as an art, is the “daughter” of entertainment. Of course, irony is too moral to be a real artistic figure and too cruel to be really comic. Nevertheless, there is a feature which drives them closer: art, comical and irony are made possible only where the vital hustle of expression.

...
danger.

The figure of irony is known for particular intonation of the word as a speech, which completes the meaning of the figure. As an expanded figure of speech it can give full creations, where the ironic tone prevails. When irony takes over a bitter, attacking character, when it expresses hate and deep contempt is called sarcasm. This powerful tool is used often by poets in satirical acts or orators in their speeches when they want to expose and batter hard their opponents, the vices and flaws of a society, class differentiations, different parasites etc. Irony is used more in humoristic literature, whereas sarcasm in the satirical literature. Famous writers like Konica, Çajupi, Fishta, Noli, Migjeni, N. Bulka, D. Agolli, etc have used irony and sarcasm masterfully.

2. Konica, Master of Irony

One of the greatest writers of the Albanian literature, who has used irony masterfully, is Faik Konica. This highly educated person, considered a wandering encyclopedia, brilliant essayist, perfect stylist, theoretical and practical founder of the Albanian literary critic, political actor oriented by the west, brought a new model in the Albanian mentality. From the mind and hand of Konica emerge only needles that eventually pinch your mind in the moment you start reading something written by his hand. Konica knows no withdrawal. He, in the same way that wants to win over mentality, asks for perfection in style and art.

Konica was equipped with rare intelligence and in the parish of humor, in England; he further developed his sense of irony. In America he finds the appropriate terrain to develop both. Faik Konica had the philological-esthetic culture, the taste for art and the sharpness of judgment. Irony for Konice was a divine gift. His humor was inspired not only by narrow desairs but by national ideals. In his stile are mixed the harsh sound of satire and a light melody of the lyric, but only passingly because what comes after are only irony and despair against mediocrity which made it draw the sword of deep sarcasm and blow a lightening; only he could hit the nail in the head.

In the multipage text it has been written the mega history of Albania which Konica describes with profound shading. On one side Konica is presented with a wide European culture, part of the most famous aristocracy, whereas from the other part are presented his people, drowned in grotesque backwardness, with caricature characters smeared in oriental slum. Faik tried to get back in its feet, his people and his country, to shake it hard by hitting with the stinging scourge of his satire, rather than pondering it. Cynical, sarcastic and merciless with mediocrity and ignorance, he tried to show Albanians that they were Europeans and should see beyond the veil of ignorance and turncoateness.

Scholar Arshi Pipa writes: “Faik warded off tradition… deflected from the meaning of those strong and healthy roots which had been the vitality of the Albanian during centuries”

Arshi Pipa has built the portrait of Konica and when he draws his lips he describes them neither thick nor thin, but fine. Pipa says that you can catch a phrase which is hard to decipher as sweet joy or irony. Nevertheless, if you have read any row from “Doktor gjilpëra”, you could understand its irony.

“All that intelligence which glows from the eyes of Konica is revealed by those two swingy lips, naturally for mockery. Intelligence has turned into “humor”: it has recognized me”.

Arshi Pipa affirms that Faik Konica even in the prose entitled “The Writer” uttered in a radio of Washington, on 31 March 1931, formulates with irony a prayer for the writers; apparently bothered by the mediocre and worthless literature he directs to the Almighty to give us the strength to keep our mouth shut when we have nothing to say; to give us patience to think something through before writing upon it; to inspire us with a sense of justice; not only to talk with equity but also to act on that behalf! Save us from the pitfalls of grammar, from the distortions of language and the aberrations of the press. So be it! - ends with irony the prayer of the great Faik.

3. Irony in “Doktor Gjilpëra” as a Tool to Criticize the Orient and Affirm Western Europe

The most important literary work of Konica is the long satirical prose “Doctor Needle reveals the roots of Mamurras drama”. "Doctor Gjilpëra" was written and published in the newspaper "The Sun" in 1924. It was the time when the June revolution had triumphed and the Albanian society was going through a bitter political struggle. Society had in front of itself vital issues to resolve, as choosing the type of the regime, the agrarian reform, the democratization and
modernization of the state apparatus, national cultural emancipation etc. Konica work is the "offspring" of the socio-historical turning that was starting in the live of our people. The author got inspired by the murder of two American citizens in Mamurras, who organized the feudal reaction. Konica wouldn’t see the Mamurras crime like an isolated event, but as an event with broader social sense, where the interests of certain circles goals intermingled and exhibited the political struggle of the time. This event would awaken freedom-loving ideals, enlightenment and emancipation of the writer and would inspire the creation of a work that would shed light and generalize the contemporary Albanian reality.

The hero of the work is Doctor Needle, a young Albanian intellectual who conducted studies in medicine in Russia and Sweden and stands before the alternative: to stay abroad where a full prospect career awaited him or return home and help its countries recovery, especially in improving the health of people. He decided to return to Albania; patriotism triumphed over personal interests.

Returning to Albania puts doctor Needle in front of a shocking reality and hence to his problems involving various topics of Albanian life. Within a short time, he is credited with the distress of the people, the injustice that is done at their expense, the state apparatus, predominance, arbitrariness, corruption, drama, intrigue, ignorant and ridiculous clerics. In this tragic-comic state, the opposition is comprised of people who have nothing in common with the law and morality.

The principal place in this work is occupied by the relations that Doctor Needle sets with different categories of the Albanian society, with their most typical representatives. In these relations, the social-psychological discovery that makes the author, is on reverse; from one side the character and worldview of Doctor Needle is more clearly delineated; the ideal of a European man, patriotism and humanism of an emancipated man; while on the other side, are drawn different figures of the intellectual circles elite. In particular, the figure of Dr. Needle appears quite clearly in front of two of his colleagues, dr. Embrullah and dr. Protogor Dhalla.

Doctor Needle is a man of modern medicine, partisan of nature, who thinks nature is man's first doctor, whereas the two other doctors appear anachronistic, the epitome of medical dogma alienated from the life and principles of science. The old world in this work consists not only of two doctors, but also of other negative figures. Such is the Minister Salemoza, typical representative of anti-nationalistic backward forces, ridiculous tyrant type, the wily schemer, wakeful and agile. While the environment and oriental mindset of the capital's elite find their expression in tyrans aghas figures such as the Zylfikar Muhejin Agha.

In the stark and heavy atmosphere of the Albanian life the author faces with people who inspire sympathy and reverence. Remain unforgettable in the readers’ mind two peasant girls, the old martaneshas man, customs police, Arifeja and Ali Bibi. Despite a kind of skepticism that is felt in their appearance, they come in a warm light, true human values, the beauty of spiritual purity and noble habits. The writer's opinion is that people, being ignorant and crude, need to train the soul and mind. "Doctor Needle" is a powerful satirical work. Given the reality of the Albanian heavy, anachronistic mentality and backwardness of life, the author opposes them, banter and strikes them without mercy. The denying idea-affective attitude makes you feel mockery and irony, satire and sarcasm in the written pages the work. They are shown strongly embodied in artistic force, in scenes and characters, situations and incredibly striking portraits. Masterful use of detail, plasticity of language and nuances of the word, make the satire of Konica original and natural.

Sharp social themes and issues, the negative flow of some social phenomena and powerful satirical notes make "Doctor Needle" a work with outstanding realistic features and representative of modern literature.

Konica wants to plow human minds and to inject novelty. Dr. Needle is the messenger of fate and knowledge, to inject in the blood of people, the concrete time. It’s ridiculous even in the edge of death, that compatriots understand his language, but do not want to hear its meaning. Therefore Konica in reality and in art is, and becomes the injection of this society, which surprisingly does not give signs of desired recovery.

"The holder of such a war against the corrupted society and against backwardness is young doctor Dr. Needle, who was educated in the West and has a European-wide culture and an ideal Albanian heart"3

That's why Konica calls to "Hush, civilize, join, do not trust the reports that say good things about us, and maybe one day we will come out as adults in the eyes of the world. The path that leads to honor, freedom and salvation is not paved with flowers but with thorns; he who reaches the roof reaches there torn, bloody, sweat, tired; and roses, laurels, the cold water, lawns where good and smooth you lie, are all found on the top only, and up there you often can’t enjoy it because you may fall dead from the weary, but with the awareness that you opened a new path for people. We, brothers, are poor negers, without any importance at all … No meetings, the pickaxe. No missions, but the pickaxe. But enough

This is the comprehensive message of the Konician prose, of Konica himself. It is this, his potential power as an artist, to predict the adequate future and to show the direction in which we should move; to be what it needs, and not a prey of vice, of conceit, of self-appraisal, but fairly reasonable beings, the face of the nation virtue, through work and knowledge. Faik Konica penetrates in the psychological analysis of the Albanian race which is done to face the miserable reality and irony that accompanies reluctance to change, therefore, this showdown deals, is done and understood as criticism.

"… his compatriots … were extremely poor reflections of the human race … people annoyed by the world and themselves, who do not see…"5

These lines clearly show the irony that uses Konica to his compatriots, who did not want to see nor change. By defining people as such: "… who do not see", presupposes symbolically and ironically, that his compatriots didn’t have their sense of "seeing", as imitative reflection of the human race model; this thing psychologically "doesn’t make any service to them" as social beings. The reluctance to have this sense disallowed compatriots to search, to be at least not the miserable imitation, but normal beings who want to see. At this point in the psychology of race, fellows search only the wrong version of everything. Parable of their dismal compared to other human races, stimulates anger and revolt in Konica, seeing them satisfied and convinced up to absurdity, not to see themselves, not realizing their existence as beings outside of time. In "their heads", they did not accept the eyes of thought inside it, as every rational being. Instinctive stubbornness had made them choose to stay as they were, biological beings without eyes, as an exception to the rule of human wholeness.

"…Essential change!…" This right, as a request, as a change feature is essentially an aggressive feature, but its positivity in relation to what Konica sought for his compatriots with the immediate necessity to overcome the paradox of Albanian time, the paradox of the being "without eyes".

It takes more importance, when the final verdict of an "elite", "Camorrist" mentality, that didn’t allow change, less than fundamental change, was the absolute controversy to novelty in principle and concept. This contradiction was expressed by a single word of this "elite": "Meazallah!"

Radical is the novelty, which wants to be introduced by Konica, but equally absolute, is the controversy it faces in relation to society. This kind of paradox, has affected the speech convention simply in Albanian. Irony is the controversy it faces, and paradoxes from it arise successively.

"Dr. Protagoras speaks half Greek; Dr. Emrullahu speaks half Turkish, only Dr.Needle speaks clear Albanian".

According to researcher Sabri Hamiti even the meaning of names is ironic and oriental - Salep and Boza is the union of two oriental drinks names, Abd-al Katl, which in Albanian would be something like Rob Caterpillars, or Ibn-el-Kalb, which would mean son of riffraff...". Konica, achieves to functionalize the name, which selects, as meaning a reality as painful and ridiculous. Names like Salem Boza, Abd-El -Katli, Dr.Habibullah, Dr. Emrullahu, Dr. Protagoras Dhalla, Denizulu Serpa, Zulu, Zgiebo etc are deliberately selected by Konica, to have an immediate effect firstly, aesthetic, in the auditive taste of readers. The wonder, which is transmitted by these types of names and ugliness, accompanying them in shape, sound, provoke to understand something beyond the linguistic form. Konica encourages us to search the hidden "why" of the ironic meaning of their tragic message. He creates immediate reaction and instead forces you to see its purpose, to destroy with the typical sarcasm that ridiculous tradition worn from time, stuck up even in names. Konica was so destructive because the ridiculous spiritual taste and nutrition of his compatriots made him suffer; whose governing brain and leaders of the future fate of his fellows stood on the tracks of the past. Everything of them was mastication, as the process of nostalgic ruminating of the past.

The framework and rules of the game, in the Albanian time, for which Konica speaks, were: "Camorrist corruption!" Ironically only he was found appropriate, suitable, and perfect to be Albanian. Konica revealed without fear the archetype Albanian of that time. This model had remained outside of the real time of the human normality and what he would have

4 Konica, Faik, Prose Doctor Needle..., Tirana, 1983.
5 Ibid
6 Konica, F. Works, Tirana, 1983.
wanted for them. Konica observed, identified and confirmed as no one before. For such impression, that gives its land
and its people, he became the Needle. He pins without shrinkage to the bone, to give us the effect on the brain.
Contemporarily he had its own novelty in concept, from zero to one and so on. So Konica also, requires, with the absurd
in the brain and in the mentality, to be toppled; with the need to make the first step in the emancipation of society.

Sabri Hamiti makes a review of Konica saying: "With Dr. Needle, Faik Konica introduces in the Albanian prose for
the first time successfully the western Albanian man who, by learning knowledge is not bewildered nationally...." 8

Sharp social themes and issues, denying flows of some social phenomena and powerful satirical notes make
"Doctor Needle" a work with outstanding realistic and modern features. Being aristocrat Konica didn’t feel near the
people, so he made its anatomy. Religion was ignored. "This was the great Konica and his work: rarely the famous
phrase: “Let c’est l’home style meme” finds such an embodiment more appropriate than in Konica; because he was all
style. He recognized the secrets of style, with all the turns. His style was essentially satirical. The whole ranges of satire
he proved, from the sweetest irony to sarcasm, from humor to lampoon. But he also was awake and sweet, when he
wanted to ... Style in art is the main thing. There is no real literature without style”9.

Konica had only one ethic ideal- the motherland. The feature of Konica that distinguishes him from others is the
fact that he served the motherland by criticizing it, by pointing out the flaws and weaknesses. His work is so complex and
with such high quality that if in other authors you have to depart from the text to reach the author, in Konica you should
start from the poet himself to reach his text; text that represents the burden of a society’s judgment process that was
rotting from century-old oriental rule.

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Comparing 2011 General Election and 2014 Presidency Election in Turkey with Regard to Political Marketing

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Abstract

Leaders and political parties which are one of the products of political marketing are the political products. Social issues and the requirements that are the result of these issues determine the route map of leaders and the party programme. It is hard for a party and for a leader that do not embrace neither their grassroots nor the needers of the grassroots of other parties, to protect their position. Social media being used as an instrument of political marketing plays a crucial role in especially affecting young electorate at the present time. This instrument have been begun to be used by politicians actively in Turkey recently. Till the enact of the Law No. 5678 which made an amendment in 1982 Constitution in 2007, the President of Turkey had been elected by the votes of the parliamentarians in Turkish Grand National Assembly. As a result of the amendment in 1982 Constitution in 2007, Turkish citizens have become enable in electing the President of Turkey via referendum. From a different point of view, this amendment also, hereinafter, enables candidates to make their own propaganda in order to increase their votes. In this paper, 2014 Presidency Election in Turkey in which there were three candidates Recep Tayyip ERDOĞAN, Ekmeleddin Mehmet İHSANOĞLU and Selahattin DEMİRTAŞ, is considered in terms of using social media. The aim of the paper is to present the differences of the propaganda instruments of the candidates that they used in election process, and how these instruments affected the results of the elections. It is also sought that how the usage of social media and number of followers affect the results of the elections.

Keywords: Leader, Propaganda, Elections, Political Marketing, Social Media

1. Introduction

Although the political sciences and marketing sciences are apart areas from each other, both areas benefit from certain techniques such as target group or market, the techniques related to target group or market, picking and fragmentation of target group or market, and of which the elements of marketing mix could be used. Since for years in west of the world but yet the recent years in developing countries, it is beholden that marketing instruments have begun to be run in political campaigns as an instrument of propaganda being conducted by political candidates.

The concept of ‘marketing’ can be defined in several ways. Some of the scholars define the concept as “an exchange operation towards to meeting basic needs and desires of people” …. “to give some valuable things (commodity, facility or idea) to the opposite side in order to meet their each own needs between two or more sides, and to gain other valuable things (money, receivable, loan etc. )” (Mucuk, 1999: 3), whereas some defines it as “…the whole activities managing the products and services from producer to customer in order to satisfy customers and -at the same time- to reach the goals of company…” (Mc Carty, 1975: 19).
Prior to presenting the definition of political marketing, making the definition of ‘politics’ is crucial. Politics can be defined as “the science of behaviours taking a role in the formation of institutions related to political authority and in their operating” and it is asserted that the politics is constituted to respond a certain requirement of all structures and of all institutions in a society (Kıślalı, 1987: 4-14). In this perspective, politics is—itself—such an instrument by which the social needs are expected to be met. Supporting this assessment, political marketing is defined as “all kinds of activities regarding promoting and introducing people—who are candidate to meet voters needs and desires,—or parties and their programmes to voters” (Özkan, 2004: 21). In political marketing, thus, leaders of political parties, parliamentarians, mayors and such people, and political parties, political propagandas and similar activities can be deemed as political products. Companies, however, use the marketing activity to create a competition advantage. As for in companies, political parties, leaders and programmes are also in a competition. In order to affect floating votes, political parties and leaders conduct their campaigns intensively via marketing activities (Okumuş, 2007: 156).

Some scholars simulate arguments of politics and arguments of marketing as the following (Divanoğlu, 2008: 106):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Arguments of politics</th>
<th>Argument of marketing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Leader, party programme and candidates</td>
<td>Product</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Going to polls, voting, membership fees, grants, subsidies</td>
<td>Price</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mass communication devices, volunteer or paid labor, provincial and subprovincial organizations, social activities and meetings held</td>
<td>Distribution</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advertisement, public relations, personal propaganda, publicity, newsworthy programmes, and vote-rising other activities</td>
<td>Promoting</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The differences between commercial and political marketing are customer-wise manner – citizen-wise manner (the description of need, the description of target group, differentiated goods and services, strategies of superiorities), customer or social satisfaction – voters’ satisfaction, integrated market – integrated marketing (Üste et al., 2007: 216).

The political parties whose organizational culture is based on volunteerism achieve, recently, their runnings by the help of liaising with political consultancy companies without leaving volunteerism. These companies have integrated the elements of marketing mix into the political process and thus the concept of political marketing has become evident. While determining the place of the person in the political life, political consultancy companies researches initially to what extent the society contributes to the manner and behaviours of the person and with which processes, and to what extent a person has a freedom of action and election.

Political marketing has three customer group and these are “the ones would be member of parties, partisans and sympathizers of parties, the ones who have no other option though being not a partisan” (Limanlar, 1991: 35). Political marketing, here, should call out these three different groups. The two aims of the political marketing are to peg the ideas of party members, potential members and voting people, and to change the ideas of voters not voting the party. Some of the aims of the party and its leader, however, should be to intensify the positive manner of the members of, the partisans of and the voters of party, to change the manner of floating votes on behalf of party, and to change manner of people from negative to –at least– floating. At this point, the main event is not the injustice in or among the level of income but the disparities between the level of income and their expectations (Kıślalı, 1987: 67). Political leaders are successful to the extent that they could respond these expectations. The leader should be able to use his characteristics of self-reliance, steady character, honesty, vigor, creative intelligence, common sense and understanding (Yıldırım, 2011: 882).

The method taking party or leader to success is propaganda which is an instrument of political marketing. The definition of propaganda made by several scholars. Qualter’s definition on propaganda is “the deliberate attempt by the few to influence the attitudes and behavior of the many by the manipulation of symbolic communication” (Qualter, 1985: 124). Domenach explains it as “an undertaking of attracting the view and behavior of society so as to provide to internalize a certain view or behavior of people” (Domenach, 2003: 17). “The intentional control, manipulation and communication of information and imagery in order to achieve certain political objectives” is another definition of propaganda (Rutherford, 2000: 279).

Not completely denying the usage of internet or similar techniques, among some scholars there seems to be a consensus that it cannot replace face-to-face communication or etc (Johansen, 2012: 92). Some scholars, also, assert that with the arrival of new media such as internet, web TV or e-mail, the distribution function of political marketing will increase in complexity (Henneberg, 2002: 119). Similarly, Jackson infers from his research, in which he studies the members of parliament in United Kingdom in 2002, that email so far has not stimulated a relationship marketing approach (Jackson, 2005: 105). In addition to these studies, some directly work on new social media instruments. In their study, Bode & Dalymple suggested that Twitter contains a unique audience for political elites to target. These users extremely
interested in politics, very likely to turn out at the polls, and wealthy enough to contribute to campaigns. The important finding of this study is that as politicians, pundits, and politically interested citizens continue to turn to Twitter as a source of information and a form of political expression (Bode & Dalymple, 2014: 22). Miller studied both Twitter and Facebook and called them new media in modern political campaigns. In his research he concludes that what makes new media attractive is cheapness, opportunity to enhance the images of candidates. But the shortcoming of this new media is its failure to reach a vast majority of voters (Miller, 2013: 342). Towner and Dulio, other scholars using the term new media for Twitter and Facebook –and also Youtube–, find new media likely “a futile proposition” and suggest that the rapid changes in new media require scholars to update the design and direction of future research (Towner and Dulio, 2012: 112).

In the light of all considerations above, in this paper it is, in brief, endeavoured to make an assessment of 2014 Presidency Election in Turkey, within the scope of Twitter and Facebook which are some of the instruments of new social media. The aim of the paper is to suggest the difference of the propaganda instruments used by three candidates competing in 2014 Presidency Election, Recep Tayyip ERDOĞAN, Ekmeleddin Mehmet İHSANOĞLU and Selahattin DEMİRTAŞ, and how these instruments affected the votes. Besides, it is also studied how the usage of social media and the number of followers affect the votes. The instruments of propaganda and usage of social media in number are left out of the scope for 2011 General Election as social media was not used effectively by the leaders in the Election. Therefore, a comparison between the two elections is done and a determination of the power of effect of the social media is tried to be done by through assuming the effects of other factors as equal.

Thus, the main assumption of the paper is set as “political marketing has a positive affect on votes”. In this regard either political marketing techniques (social media and meetings) used by the candidates in the running process or the 2014 Presidency Election itself are also considered. In this context, the paper seeks to answer the following key questions:

- What are the differences between the candidates in terms of methods and instruments used by them?
- How did these methods and instruments affect the votes?
- Did the candidates increase their vote rate in 2014 Presidency Election if compared with 2011 General Election?

2. Analysis

2.1 Comparing the Candidates in Terms of Their Usage of Social Media

Social media and social communication are new propaganda instruments drawing its strength from people, carrying the people from passive to active following, consisting of people from all strata, to which politicians appeal for help in their campaigns, and about what they -on occasion- complain. The users who don’t read or watch although preferring journals, magazines and television can share their thoughts in social media. The conventional methods of propaganda which can not respond to instant developments countrywide, such as visiting electoral area, are going useless, but one sentence shared in social media can be followed from all these areas. As stated in the previous chapter, in this paper Facebook and Twitter are regarded as social media or new media instruments, and analyzed.

Turkey is the 6th in the World ranking while it is 1st in Europe ranking in terms of the number of users of Facebook, with 31, 247, 120 users according to 2012 data which indicates that over the 40% of population of Turkey use Facebook. If this data is compared with the number of users of internet, it indicates that each nine of ten individuals has a Facebook account. At the 18 – 24 age range, there are over 10 million users with a share of approximately 34% of total, whereas at the 25 – 34 range 28% and 35 – 44 range 12% (Sabah, 2014). The number of users of Twitter, however, reached a number over 11 million by the year 2014, which means that each 4 of 10 individuals using internet use Twitter.

These data indicate that the number of using internet, Facebook and Twitter is growing rapidly in Turkey. Following and taking into consideration this reality, it is obvious that the candidates of 2014 Turkish Presidency Election have to prefer to use the social media actively.

Selahattin DEMİRTAŞ had rather use his Twitter account actively than his Facebook account. The number of his followers in Facebook is 1, 197, 739. The most of his followers are situated in Istanbul and he is followed mostly by the age range 18 – 24. He had 106 sharing in total, 17 of which are short film, 82 of which are messages and photos taken in campaign running, and 7 of which are advertisements. Although he has two Twitter accounts, he had rather use @DegisiminAdayi account and run his campaign. In this account which has over 15, 000 followers, he released 1, 530 sharing, 172 of which are short film and the rest is 1, 222 messages. In addition to these accounts, he has also another web page www. selahattindemirtas.net over which he presented his next events. According to data released on his web
page, he raised totally 1. 213. 000 TL donation from 7. 119 donors. ¹ He spent 1. 095. 000 TL of the total amount for promotion materials, transportation and audio system. (http://www.selahattindemirtas.net/, 2014). His site was created not only in Turkish but also in English and Kurdish.

Ekmeleddin Mehmet İHSANOĞLU used his Facebook account actively which was created in 2014, 24th of June and the number of his followers is 361. 097. The most of his followers are situated in Istanbul and he is followed mostly by the age range 18 – 24. He had 134 sharing in total, 50 of which are short film, 69 of which are messages and photos taken in campaign running, and 15 of which are advertisements. In his Twitter account “@profdrihsanoglu”, he has 344. 551 followers and he released 357 sharing in total, 15 of which are short film, 311 of which are messages and 21 of which are advertisements. If his Facebook account is compared to his Twitter account, it is inferred that he used his Twitter account actively rather than Facebook in order to share message, and that the number of followers in his Twitter account is more than the number in Facebook. In addition to these accounts, he has also another web page ihsanoglu.com over which he presented his next events and made a call for raise donation. He raised totally 8. 500. 000 TL donation from an undeclared number of donors (http://www.sozcu.com.tr/2014/gundem/iste-erdogana-yapilan-secim-bagisi-573957/). His web page was created only in Turkish Language.

Recep Tayyip ERDOĞAN has 6. 390. 605 followers in Facebook. He has the most followers in Istanbul, and most followed by the age range 18 – 24. He had 98 sharing in total, 53 of which are message, 23 of which are campaign photos and 12 of which are advertisement. In his Twitter account “@RT_Erdogan”, he has 4. 625. 669 followers. In his account from which he released 180 sharing, he had 6 short films, 17 advertisements and 157 messages. It is seen that he used his Twitter account more active rather than Facebook. Recep Tayyip ERDOĞAN who presented his running events from his personal web page www.rte.com.tr, raised 55. 260. 778 TL donation from 1. 350. 796 donors (http://www.trtturk.com/haber/cumhurbaskani-adaylari-ne-kadar-bagis-topladi.html, 27. 08. 2014; http://www.rte.com.tr/, 16. 08. 2014).

Candidates reached their voters also from Instagram and Youtube, but this lies outside the scope of the paper.

An increase occurred in Recep Tayyip ERDOĞAN’s “@RT_Erdogan” Twitter account by the start of the election campaign and the number of followers increased by 98. 606 followers. However, his Facebook account increased in number with 97. 506 followers. Selahattin DEMİRTAŞ’s “@DegisiminAdayi” Twitter account followed by 15. 664 new followers, whereas his Facebook account followed by 21. 406 new followers. The effect of start of election was more in Ekmeleddin Mehmet İHSANOĞLU’s social media accounts than in other candidates. Thanks to the election, he created new accounts in Twitter and Facebook. His Facebook account and Twitter account were followed by 361. 097 and 344. 551 new followers respectively. The ratio of followers commented on candidates are as follows: on Recep Tayyip ERDOĞAN 49,60%, on Ekmeleddin Mehmet İHSANOĞLU 39,82% and on Selahattin DEMİRTAŞ 10,28%.

Table 1 indicates the change in number of followers of candidates in Twitter from 9th July to 8th August.

Table 1: The Number of Twitter Followers of Candidates Between The Days of 9th July- 8th August 2014

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Candidate</th>
<th>Increase in Followers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Recep Tayyip ERDOĞAN</td>
<td>98.606</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ekmeleddin Mehmet İHSANOĞLU</td>
<td>15.664</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Selahattin DEMİRTAŞ</td>
<td>21.406</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1 indicates the change in number of followers of candidates in Twitter from 9th July to 8th August.


¹ According to Law No. 6271, candidates can raise donation from individuals or companies except individuals that are non-citizen of Turkey and foreign companies.
Table 2: The Provinces in Which the Candidates Are the First

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Province</th>
<th>Number of Metropolitan</th>
<th>Number of Province</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>İstanbul</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bursa</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Şırnak</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3: The Candidates’ Vote Numbers, The Comparison of Provinces and Metropolitans

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Candidate</th>
<th>The Number of Metropolitan Voted</th>
<th>The Number of Province Voted</th>
<th>Vote Rate</th>
<th>The Vote Number of President Elections</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Recep Tayyip Erdoğan</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>51.79</td>
<td>21,000,143</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ekmeleddin İhsanoğlu</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>38.44</td>
<td>15,587,720</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Selahattin Demirtaş</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>9.76</td>
<td>3,958,048</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2.2 Comparing the Candidates in Terms of Their Meetings Held


He gained his votes most in Şırnak, Hakkari and Diyarbakır with the ratios 83.13%, 81.27% and 64.10% respectively, whereas least in Bayburt, Yozgat and Çankırı with the ratios 0.75%, 1.00% and 1.00% respectively. His ranking in Şırnak, Hakkari, Diyarbakır, Ağrı, Muş, Van, Sırt and Tunceli, the provinces where he visited during his running, is 1st, whereas in Bitlis, Bingöl and Şırnak is 2nd and in other provinces is 3rd.

Table 4: Selahattin Demirtaş’s Vote Density in Turkey
Table 5: Selahattin Demirtaş’s Election Success in Provinces Run Campaign, The Comparison Analysis of President Election (2014) and General Election (2011)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The Campaign Success Ranking Among Provinces</th>
<th>Province</th>
<th>Vote Rate %</th>
<th>His Ranking of Success</th>
<th>President Election Vote Count</th>
<th>2011 General Election Vote Count</th>
<th>The Increase Number of Vote</th>
<th>Increase Rate %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Şırnak</td>
<td>82.94</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>185869</td>
<td>125225</td>
<td>33644</td>
<td>26.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Hakkâri</td>
<td>81.85</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>102346</td>
<td>94580</td>
<td>7762</td>
<td>8.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Diyarbakır</td>
<td>64.23</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>409681</td>
<td>340598</td>
<td>69083</td>
<td>20.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Ağrı</td>
<td>61.94</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>106346</td>
<td>75689</td>
<td>30657</td>
<td>38.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Mardin</td>
<td>60.89</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>198346</td>
<td>195041</td>
<td>3304</td>
<td>1.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Batman</td>
<td>59.95</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>134268</td>
<td>113132</td>
<td>21136</td>
<td>16.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Van</td>
<td>54.49</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>222670</td>
<td>210332</td>
<td>23342</td>
<td>5.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Şırnak</td>
<td>54.03</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>65373</td>
<td>51483</td>
<td>13890</td>
<td>26.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Mardin</td>
<td>50.89</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>198346</td>
<td>195041</td>
<td>3304</td>
<td>1.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Batman</td>
<td>50.89</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>134268</td>
<td>113132</td>
<td>21136</td>
<td>16.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Van</td>
<td>54.49</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>222670</td>
<td>210332</td>
<td>23342</td>
<td>5.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Şırnak</td>
<td>54.03</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>65373</td>
<td>51483</td>
<td>13890</td>
<td>26.96</td>
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He gained his votes most in Bayburt, Rize and Gümüşhane with the ratios 80.24%, 78.90% and 75.09% respectively, whereas least in Tunceli, Şırnak and Hakkari with the ratios 14.67%, 14.83% and 16.63% respectively. He did not prefer to make any running visit to the provinces where he was voted most, in contrast to his opponents who made the reverse. His ranking in Konya, Kahramanmaraş, Malatya, Sakarya, Erzurum, Şanlıurfa, Ordu, Kayseri, Samsun, Yozgat, Tokat, Gaziantep, Kocaeli, Bursa, Ankara, Bilecik, İstanbul, the provinces where he visited during his running, is 1st, whereas he is 2nd in Balıkesir, Denizli, Manisa, Eskişehir, Hatay, Van, Antalya, Adana, Tekirdağ, Mardin, Aydın, Ağrı, Diyarbakır, İzmir, Muğla, Mersin.

2 The yellow-based rows indicates the provinces that the candidate visited during his running.
Table 6: Recep Tayyip Erdoğan’s Vote Density in Turkey

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<tr>
<th>Province</th>
<th>Vote Rate %</th>
<th>His Ranking of Success</th>
<th>President Election Vote Count</th>
<th>2011 General Election Vote Count</th>
<th>The Increase Number of Vote</th>
<th>Increase Rate %</th>
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Ekmeleddin Mehmet İHSANOĞLU started his campaign by visiting, initially, Mausoleum of Atatürk and Mausoleum of Haci Bayram Veli in Turkey. After, he went to Yozgat, his birthplace, and Nevşehir to visit Mausoleum of Haci Bektasi Veli. In order to run his campaign, he visited Trabzon in 4th July, Sakarya in 5th July, Aydın in 7th July, İstanbul in 8th, 9th, and 10th July, Erzurum in 11th July, Bursa in 12th July, Edirne, Kırklareli and Tekirdağ in 13th July, Gaziantep in 16th July, and 18th July.

3 The yellow-based rows indicates the provinces that the candidate visited during his running.
Konya in 17th July, Kocaeli in 19th July, İzmir in 22nd July, İstanbul in 23rd July, Kayseri in 24th July, Diyarbakır in 25th July, Antalya in 26th July, İstanbul in 27th and 28th July, Sivas in 31st July, Adana and Mersin in 1st August, Hatay in 2nd August, İstanbul in 3rd August, Ankara in 4th August, Eskişehir in 5th August, Bilecik in 6th August, Samsun in 7th August, Balıkesir and Manisa in 8th August. He had rather meet NGOs and his voters face to face than hold a meeting in contrast to his opponents, wherever he visited.

Being as a joint candidate of the two opposition parties, he gained his votes most in Kırklareli, Edirne and Muğla with the ratios 68.08%, 64.91% and 63.96% respectively, whereas least in Batman, Şırnak and Hakkari with the ratios 1.98%, 2.04% and 2.11% respectively. Diyarbakır is the only province where he could not gain votes. His ranking in Kırklareli, Edirne, Muğla, İzmir, Tekirdağ, Aydın, Mersin, Antalya, Eskişehir, Hatay, Adana, Balıkesir, Manisa is 1st, whereas in Bilecik, Ankara, Kocaeli, Nevşehir, Yozgat, Samsun, Kayseri, Gaziantep, Sivas, Trabzon, Sakarya, Konya and Samsun he is 2nd. He could not stop the decrease of his votes although he visited the provinces from where he gained his votes most, with respect to his opponents.

Table 8: Ekmeleddin İhsanoğlu’s Vote Density in Turkey

Table 9: Ekmeleddin İhsanoğlu’s Election Success in Provinces Run Campaign, The Comparison Analysis of President Election (2014) and General Election (2011)

<table>
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<th>The Campaign Success Ranking Among Provinces</th>
<th>Province</th>
<th>Vote Rate %</th>
<th>His Ranking of Success</th>
<th>President Election Vote Count</th>
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<td>366585</td>
<td>-46189</td>
<td>-12.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Nevşehir</td>
<td>34.18</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-30.24</td>
<td>55286</td>
<td>62299</td>
<td>-7013</td>
<td>-11.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>Yozgat</td>
<td>33.21</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-32.57</td>
<td>78514</td>
<td>80353</td>
<td>-1839</td>
<td>-2.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>Samsun</td>
<td>32.78</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-33.10</td>
<td>225387</td>
<td>264382</td>
<td>-41995</td>
<td>-15.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>Kayseri</td>
<td>32.00</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-34.16</td>
<td>228627</td>
<td>239712</td>
<td>-10985</td>
<td>-3.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>Gaziantep</td>
<td>23.00</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-31.46</td>
<td>227087</td>
<td>235787</td>
<td>-25820</td>
<td>-10.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>Sivas</td>
<td>28.80</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-41.19</td>
<td>101527</td>
<td>108539</td>
<td>-7012</td>
<td>-6.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>Trabzon</td>
<td>28.72</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-41.39</td>
<td>112274</td>
<td>161215</td>
<td>-48941</td>
<td>-30.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>Sakarya</td>
<td>28.64</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-40.45</td>
<td>144756</td>
<td>177841</td>
<td>-33085</td>
<td>-18.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>Konya</td>
<td>22.33</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-52.29</td>
<td>247340</td>
<td>296679</td>
<td>-49339</td>
<td>-16.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>Erzurum</td>
<td>18.20</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-50.72</td>
<td>66115</td>
<td>81984</td>
<td>-15869</td>
<td>-19.34</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4 The yellow-based rows indicates the provinces that the candidate visited during his running.
To sum up, Recep Tayyip ERDOĞAN finished the ‘rivalry’ first in 56 of the 81 provinces, whereas second in 23 and third in 2. Selahattin DEMİRTAŞ had finished first in 10, second in 5 and third in 66 of the 81 provinces. Ekmeleddin Mehmet İHSANOĞLU was first in 15 provinces, 12 of where are the provinces he visited in his campaign. He was second in 53 provinces, 13 of where are the provinces he visited. He, lastly, was third in the rest of the 13 provinces.

3. Conclusions

When the total number of followers of the candidates in social media are compared, it is clear that Ekmeleddin Mehmet İHSANOĞLU reached a number of followers more than his opponents. He, however, couldn’t increase his votes as much as his opponents. Another weakness of him is that his personal web page was created only in Turkish. Though it is a


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Internet References


Social media accounts of the candidates, both in Twitter and Facebook.
How Sensitive are Indonesian Customers to Sexual Appeal Advertising?  
(A Study of the Axe TV Commercial, “Heaven on Earth”)  

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Abstract  
Previous studies have shown somewhat of a contradiction in the effect of sexual appeal advertising on purchase intention. This research aims to examine from an Indonesian perspective the consumer response to sexual appeal advertising and the subsequent purchase intention toward the products advertised. Through advertising, companies seek to be seen as the providers of creative and innovative products. Therefore company success increasingly relies on advertising appeal. One of these appeals is sexual advertising that is considered to be uniquely able to attract the attention of consumers and strengthen the brand with favorable associations. Such appeal eventually influences purchase decisions and stimulates purchase intention. This research uses quantitative methods through a consumer survey and simple regression analysis. Samples included 120 heterosexual men in the 15-24 year age group who reside in Indonesia’s third largest city, Bandung. Results show that the consumer response to sexual appeal advertising of AXE is positive and consumer purchase intention of AXE products after watching the “Heaven on Earth” advertisements series is strongly positive. Sexual appeal advertising is shown to have a statistically significant positive effect on Indonesian consumers’ purchase intentions.  

Keywords: Advertising, Sexual Appeal Advertising, Purchase Intention  

1. Introduction  
Appropriate advertising plays an increasingly significant role in the marketing activities of companies facing industry competition. Advertising has been considered one of the most effective means of providing information on company products and in the attraction of new customers to the firm. To win against industry competition and capture market share, companies cannot operate in an environment of half-hearted advertising spending. Nielsen Advertising Information Services (2013) indicated that Indonesian media spending reached Rp 51.2 trillion in the first half of 2013. This showed a 25% increase in the national media spending in the first half of 2013 compared to the same period in the previous year, and a 130% increase over the same period in 2009.  

One effective advertising medium in conveying a message and affecting consumers is television. Nielsen Advertising Information Services (2013) calculated that in the first half of 2013, television media advertising contributed approximately 68% of total ad spend. Kotler and Keller (2012: 670) state that the television advertising has a significant advantage in that it has a broad range that combines image, sound, and motion to stimulate the senses and heighten attention. Television advertising has grown from just display images and communication about the product. It now relies on a wider range of appeal to attract attention. According to Belch and Belch (2009: 283), advertising now contains a kind of fascination that includes informational/rational appeal, but also emotional appeal expressed in fear, humor, or sex.  

A significant appeal often used by advertisers is sexual. ‘Sex sells’ is a trusted philosophy used by several marketers in the pursuit of marketing their products. Sexual appeal advertising is thus one application of the philosophy of
"sex sells". The assumption is that consumers are motivated by advertising using sexual and provocative imagery. Furthermore, some marketers will blend sexual appeal with other elements of Belch and Belch's (2009) analysis with often subtle blends of humor or fear. Sexual appeal advertising seeks to attract the attention of consumers and strengthen brand associations. Advertising seeks to attract consumer attention and ultimately influence buying behavior. Buying intention can measure the likelihood of a consumer to buy a product. The higher the consumer interest in a product, the higher will be the consumer desire to buy that product.

In 1983, 15% of advertisements used sex as a selling point. That number increased to 27% in 2003. Out of 18 categories of products, the most frequent use of sexual imagery in advertising was in health and hygiene products at 38%, beauty 36%, drugs and medicines 29%, clothing 27%, travel 23%, and entertainment 21% (Reichert, businessnewsdaily. com : 2012). One company that extensively uses sexual appeal in advertising is PT. Unilever Indonesia Tbk (Unilever). In particular, and for the purposes of this research, Unilever uses sexual appeal advertising for the promotion of its AXE range of products.

AXE is a male grooming product first launched in 1983 in France. The AXE brand has now become one of the leaders of male grooming products in more than 60 countries. In Indonesia AXE occupies market leadership winning Indonesia’s Favorite Youth Brand 2013 in the perfume/ body spray/ body mist (male) product category. AXE advertisements regularly attract attention. AXE has won the Cannes Lions Advertising Awards more than ten times. One of the series of Indonesian AXE advertisements that have attracted the most attention is the series, "Heaven on Earth". This series follows the AXE message promoted by bikini-clad women in our countries that using AXE products prompts sexual attraction. The series of Indonesian advertisements illustrate that by using AXE products men can captivate an angel to fall from heaven.

The main advertisement begins with a scene whereby a young Indonesian man applies AXE products before going to bed. After falling asleep, the man is woken by a beautiful female winged-angel seductively pulling back his bed sheet and lying next to him. Further angels appear that playfully engage with the man and each other. The angels massage the man’s head and shoulders, mix drinks for him and entice him with a soapy and alluring sponge-wash. The advertisement ends with a display of AXE products and a message printed across the screen that states that AXE products have a sexy fragrance.

By using the AXE “Heaven on Earth” series of advertisements, this study seeks to determine the effect of sexual advertising on Indonesian consumers.

2. Literature Review

According to Kotler and Keller (2012: 478), advertisements are any paid form of non-personal presentations and promotion of ideas, goods, or services by an identified sponsor. Advertisements have the capacity to reach consumers who are geographically dispersed (Kotler and Keller, 2012: 490). Advertising can build image in the long term for a product or trigger quick sales. Certain forms of advertising, such as TV advertising, require large budgets, while other forms of advertising such as newspapers do not. The mere presence of an advertisement can have an effect on sales. Consumers trust brands extensively advertised. Television is generally recognized as the most powerful advertising medium and reaches a broad spectrum of consumers with low cost per unit exposure. TV advertisement properly designed and implemented can be a powerful marketing tool that can increase brand equity and positively impact on sales and profits.

The appeal of advertising and execution typically rely on one another, so that a certain appeal can be exercised through a variety of ways and can be applied to a particular execution in a wide range of appeal advertisements (Belch and Belch, 2009: 283). Belch and Belch (2009: 283) classify the types of advertising appeal as informational/rational appeal; and emotional appeal which also includes the appeals of fear, humor and sex. Sexual advertising appeal can be described as sexuality in the form of nudity, sexual imagery and innuendo used as an advertising tool for a wide range of products. Formally sexual appeal advertising was defined as mediated message (i. e. in commercial TV ads and magazine ads) containing sexual information with the goal of persuasive selling of branded goods. Sexual information itself is content with sexual meaning that is considered as the source (Reichert, 2002: 243).

Lin (1998: 467-468) reveals that the advertising power of sexual attraction consists of three dimensions, namely the physical characteristics, sexually oriented conduct, and the model's sex appeal.

1. Physical Characteristics: the characteristics or elements such as approximate age, physical shape and the clothing revealed by the model;
2. Sexually Oriented Conduct: behavior consisting of three elements, namely physical innuendo, verbal innuendo and physical contact;
3. The Model's Sex Appeal: The sexual attractiveness of the model him/herself, consisting of three elements, namely physical attractiveness, sexiness and sexual objects involved.

In addition to creating an emotional connection with consumers through sexual appeal advertising, marketers seek the onset of behavioral responses. These responses are sought in behavior that ultimately leads to the purchase of advertised products. The ultimate goal then of advertising is to influence consumers to buy the advertised product and increase company sales.

Schiffman, Kanuk, & Wisenbilt (2010: 497) researched the purchase intention, or the desire/intention of consumers to buy a particular product. Buying intention can be measured by the likelihood of a consumer to buy the product. The higher the consumer interest in the purchase, the higher will be the consumer desire to buy that product. In consumer behavior, buying intention is very often associated with a conative component. Kotler, Armstrong, Harker, and Brennan (2009: 475) through the AIDA models describe the stages through which consumers ultimately determine the attitude of a product.

3. Research Hypothesis

Based on the empirical and theoretical review, a research hypothesis of this study is: there is a significant effect of the variable Sexual Advertising Appeal on consumers’ intention to buy AXE products.

4. Method

The scale used in this study was an ordinal five-point Likert scale with a one shot or cross-sectional method. Usable 120 questionnaires were used. The primary data collection was achieved by distributing questionnaires to the respondents through an online survey. Before completing the questionnaire, respondents were asked to watch via You Tube the AXE television commercial "Heaven on Earth". The link to the ads were given. The study consisted of two variables, namely one independent variable and one dependent variable. The independent variable (X), is sexual advertising appeal consists of three sub variables: Physical Characteristics (X1), Sexually - Oriented Conduct (X2), Model's Sex Appeal (X3). The Dependent variable (Y), i.e. buying intention consists of four sub variables: Attention (Y1), Interest (Y2), Desire (Y3) and Action (Y4).

5. Results and Discussion

The results show that the variable of the advertising's sexual appeal has a very strong result with an average index of 4.24 (see Table 1.)

Table 1. Advertising’s Sexual Appeal Scores

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimension</th>
<th>Indicator</th>
<th>Index</th>
<th>Category</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Physical Characteristics</td>
<td>The suitability of the age of the models for the advertisement</td>
<td>4.25</td>
<td>Very suitable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The interest in physical shape of the models</td>
<td>4.43</td>
<td>Very interested</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Appropriate clothing revelation</td>
<td>3.97</td>
<td>Appropriate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sexually-Oriented Conduct</td>
<td>Sexuality of physical activity</td>
<td>4.29</td>
<td>Very sexy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sexuality of voice and textual expression</td>
<td>3.99</td>
<td>Sexy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sexuality of physical contact</td>
<td>4.09</td>
<td>Sexy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Model’s Sex Appeal</td>
<td>Physical beauty of models</td>
<td>4.41</td>
<td>Very beautiful</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sexiness of models</td>
<td>4.49</td>
<td>Very sexy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Status as a sex object</td>
<td>4.28</td>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>38.2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Data used for this research

The results summary indicates some diversity of sexual advertising appeal for each indicator. The highest score from the indicators of 4.49 was obtained from the sexiness of the models indicator that formed part of the model's sex appeal dimension. This dimension also had a very high score for the two other indicators, namely the physical beauty of the
model and their status as sex objects. Therefore it can be concluded that the higher the sexual attractiveness of the models, the higher will be the potential to attract the attention of the targeted audience.

The lowest score obtained of 3.97 was from the clothing revealment indicator. Whilst a score of 3.97 is still relatively high, it also indicates that the audience exhibited a tendency to oppose clothing that was too blatant or overt. Therefore, in Indonesia some evidence can be given that if female models within advertisements have too revealing clothing, then the advertisement may not be able to perform the intended function of creating positive desires, preferences, beliefs and purchase intention for the advertised product or service.

The study result may further indicate that Indonesians still hold their eastern culture tightly. That is, that there is still some behavior that is considered too inappropriate to be seen. Perhaps understandably the way Indonesians dress is still heavily influenced by Muslim culture, where women are required to wear modest clothing.

Table 2. indicates the summary of scores for each indicator variable that make up purchase intention. Overall, purchase intention is seen to be quite high with an average index of 3.275.

Table 2. Purchase Intention Score

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimension</th>
<th>Indicators</th>
<th>Index</th>
<th>Category</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Attention</td>
<td>Interested in the way information is given</td>
<td>3.81</td>
<td>Interested</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Believe in the benefit of the product</td>
<td>3.22</td>
<td>Quite believe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interest</td>
<td>Interested to buy product</td>
<td>3.44</td>
<td>Interested</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Desire</td>
<td>Willingness to try the product</td>
<td>3.41</td>
<td>Willing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Action</td>
<td>Tend to buy the product</td>
<td>3.07</td>
<td>Tend to</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sure to buy the product</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>Quite sure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>19.65</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>3.28</td>
<td>Quite good</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Data used for this research

The purchase intention scores indicate some diversity in each indicator. The highest score obtained was 3.81 from the indicator interested in the way information is given. This score could indicate the strong advertising power of sexual attraction. The Attention dimension is further supported by a relatively strong score for belief in the benefit of the product.

The lowest score obtained from indicators was sure to purchase the product (2.7). This is understandable as strong interest will not always directly equate with exactly the same equally strong intention to buy. There could also be the possibility that the audience feels that an alternative to AXE products may exist.

Table 3. Coefficient of Determination

<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>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>.386*</td>
<td>.149</td>
<td>.140</td>
<td>3.63613</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Predictors: (Constant), sexual appeal advertising

From statistical calculations in table 3 it can be seen that the correlation coefficient (R) between the variables of sexual advertising appeal and the purchase interest is 0.386. The positive correlation indicates that the relationship is unidirectional, whereby the higher the sexual appeal of advertising; the higher will be the buying intention. According to Taylor (2010: 37) a value of 0.386 (within the range interval 0.36 - 0.67) indicates that there is a strong relationship between sexual appeal advertising (X) and buying intention (Y).

Results further indicate that the coefficient of determination (R²) was 14.9%. This indicates that the variable of sexual advertising appeal contributes 14.9% to buying intention. The remaining 85.1% is influenced by other factors not included in the model, which may include product quality, price, consumer lifestyle, etc.
Table 1.4. Regression results

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficients</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>Std. Error</td>
<td>Beta</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>9.668</td>
<td>3.158</td>
<td>3.061</td>
<td>.003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TX</td>
<td>.305</td>
<td>.074</td>
<td>.386</td>
<td>4.139</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1.4 indicates a beta coefficient of 0.386. This shows that there is a positive relationship between sexual appeal advertising (X) and buying intention (Y).

It can also be seen that:
- The t stat was 4.139
- df = 98 and α = 0.05 level of significance level of the test is two-way:
- Table: -1.984467 and 1.984467 t stat: 4.139. From the calculation, it can be seen that 4.139 > 1.98 or t stat > t table. So it can therefore be concluded that hypothesis H1 is supported. That is, there is a significant effect of the variable Sexual Advertising Appeal on consumers’ intention to buy AXE products.

6. Conclusions and Future Research

The consumer response to AXE’s products through the “Heaven on Earth” advertising commercial is very strong. This is indicated by the average index of 4.24. Male Indonesian consumers in the age of 15-24 responded very positively to AXE products’ sexual appeal in advertising measured via physical characteristics, sexually oriented behavior, and sexually attractive female models. This points out that Unilever succeeded in forming a powerful advertising message through sexual attraction that evoked an emotional response in the form of attention.

The potential for consumers to buy the product after seeing an AXE advertisement from the series "Heaven on Earth" is quite strong. This is shown by the average index achieved of 3.28. Consumers responded well to paying attention and learning the value of the product. Respondents indicated a willingness and desire to try and buy the product. However, respondents were not ascertain to purchase or use the product.

Sexual advertising conducted by Unilever indicate a significant positive influence on consumer buying intention of AXE products, with a t value: 4139 > t table: 1.98. The study resulted in the regression equation Y = 9.668 + 0.386 X, where each increase in sexual advertising appeal (X) should correlate to buying intention (Y) increasing by 0.386. Sexual advertising appeal influenced buying intention by 14.9%. The remaining 85.1% can be understood as the influence of other factors that are not incorporated into the model.

Of the three dimensions of sexual appeal advertising (Physical Characteristics, Sexually-Oriented Conduct and the models’ sexual appeal), it can be seen that the models’ sexual attraction is the most powerful in Indonesian advertising. In pursuing a path of sexual appeal in advertising, advertisers must therefore be highly selective in choosing advertising models that can represent and evoke sexual attraction. In order to achieve this, advertisers can conduct a sample survey of potential target-profiled customers to ensure that the model is selected according to the preferences of consumers. This will help to minimize an unfavorable image of the brand and the products offered. The selected model should not only have high sex appeal, but also a good reputation so as to improve the image of the brand and the products offered.

The survey results through the clothing revealment indicator show that respondents are sensitive to the appropriateness of clothing. Therefore, Indonesian companies need to establish clear boundaries of acceptable aspects of nudity so that these dimensions do not attract negative attention from consumers who could easily form negative associations and reactions to the brand and the products offered. Sexual attraction only explains a small portion of the commercial appeal of advertising. To maximize the advertising power of sexual attraction, companies must be able to create advertisements that are not only attractive, but also convincing and able to convey to customers the value of the products offered. Furthermore, companies may be able to support the advertising power of sexual attraction by conducting integrated marketing communication such as the bundling promotions to encourage consumers to buy.

It is suggested that future researchers could conduct advanced research related to sexual appeal advertising effect models and consumers buying intention. Researchers could also develop this study by using other respondents such as females and those from other age groups. Furthermore, sexual advertising appeal in the print and radio mediums could be explored.
References

Elections and Implementation of the Law of Elections in Albania
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Abstract

After the overthrow of the dictatorial system as in Albania in the year 1990, elections are the only legitimate way for the creation of government. In the new political system pluralist democratic governance based only on general elections, free, equal, and periodicals. It became necessary a series of constitutional and legal regulations for elections and election rights. With new laws were arranged particularly and completely realization of this right. The main legal obstacle to democratic elections was the socialist constitution of 1976. Step immediate legislative, that was taken, socialist constitution was abrogated, in force since 1976 in Albania, and adopted a new basic law, with temporary power, until the adoption of a new constitution, which will be the basis of a new political system which was decided in our country after 1990. The main legal acts arranged elections and election law in the new political system are: first, constitutional normative acts, such include law for "Major constitutional provisions" adopted in 1991, constitutional amendment " On rights and freedoms of man", adopted in 1993 and constitution, adopted in 1998. Second, laws, in the which belong the laws on elections and electoral code adopted in 2000. Thirdly are other normative legal acts that governing the conduct of elections and the exercise of the right of election in the our country. The paper treats the elections as the only way to govern, governments that do not come from elections are considered unconstitutional and not legal. The paper treats the constitutional guarantees for elections and election law. The right of election is considered political fundamental constitutional right, This right is guaranteed by the constitution, is the backup of the constitution and can not be limited or denied to any other normative act. The paper treats the the right adjustments election to election law (Election Code). The Constitution orders that the exercise of the right of election, as constitutional political right be regulated by a special law. The paper treats the provisions of the electoral code to ensure the exercise of this right policy. The paper also deals with the regulation and protection of the right of election from other legal acts, primarily criminal legislation and administrative. In criminal law prescribes a number criminal offenses that directly protect elections and election law. Place on paper has the jurisprudence of the Constitutional Court and the ordinary courts about the elections and election law.

Keywords: electoral code, the constitution. the right of election, election freedom constitutional justice.

1. Elections and Governance

With the political changes in Albania the only way for government ee election. Has no other way tool and to achieve governance New democratic system determines a representative government non government of a class, just like in western democratic systems european and american. In Western Europe and in America governments are representative and realized only through elections. Citizens elect representatives who will govern by voting. In representative government electionstransformed in a necessary element of governance. Legitimation the governance provided only by elections. "Organization and development the regular elections and free is extremely important moment for the constitution and legitimization of political power. Only through this election becomes possible to broadcast directly political will of the people in the state. For these reasons, the elections are more important and sacred for democracy ". 1

For this reason it was urgent abrogation of socialist constitution, in which the government based not on elections, and represented the dictatorship of the working class. 2 In the new political system, governance is representative of the citizens. It was needed a new constitution to regulate governance. For consistency with urgency was adopted in 1991Law on "Major Constitutional Provisions" which determined that governing bodies in the country derive from the elections,

1 Xh.Zaganjori "Democracy and the rule of law" Tirana, 2002 p. 28-29
ranging from assembly which is elected by democratic elections. However, a detailed arrangement of the elections and the right of the elections, became the law “On the rights and freedoms” adopted in 1993.

Finally, the role of elections and elections to the government report, in our country, was arranged by the fundamental law of the state, the constitution of 1998. The constitution establishes the elections as the only means political who ensures and guarantees the democratic governance of the country. Legitimate constitutional government based in elections, realized only through freedom equal, general and periodic elections. In this sense, the elections are the only means political for changed the governments in our country. Provision of the Constitution, which regulates election report is with governance, excludes all other means and any other way for the formation of the government in Albania. Government comes only from the elections and there is no other political alternative. The Constitution prohibits any alternative for formation of government and considered unconstitutional any government that does not come from elections. But analyzing this provision conclude that there are not enough for the government to come out of the elections, but only by elections who are freedom. Elections freedom, according to the constitution, means freedom to participate in elections and freedom to choose the most liked alternative governance. With this provision, institution in way formal legal guaranteeing freedom, elections and prohibits the approval / extraction of legal norms that infringe freedom elections, considering them as unconstitutional. However, the relevant provision foresees that the elections should be equal and prohibits, considering unconstitutional, legal norms that violate equality of citizens in elections. Constitution, with this provision, forcing election laws to guarantee and ensure equal elections, equal value of vote and equal number of votes, for all citizens without exception. Another aspect that sets this provision, means that government comes only from the general election and not by elections partial. General election, with the participation of all citizens with voting rights, and on the entire territory of the country, are the condition that determines provision of the Constitution to form a government. This means that partial elections not constitute reason for the collapse and formation of government in our country. The relevant provision makes and another adjustment for election as a tool of governance. This provision stipulates that government elections must be periodic. And the constitution provides that government elections held in our country every four years, when representative body, the assembly, the mandate ends. So, the constitution obliges our state every four years to hold elections for representative body. The state has a constitutional legal obligation that derives directly from the Constitution, prepare periodically every four years, the holding of elections. With this provision the Constitution does not define a passive position of the state for the elections. Constitution goes in the same direction with the European Convention on Human Rights. The constitutional provision is in accordance with Article 3 of Protocol 1 of the Convention, that legally obliges states Parties to develop elections in reasonable period, determining the Contracting States obligations of positive character to create institutional infrastructures, purpose the realization of the right to vote and the right to be elected to the legislative body. One such obligation / liability is provided by the European Court of Human Rights in the case of Mathieu-Mohin & Clerfayt v Belgium: “. . . First obligation in the relevant field is not simply an abstention or non-intervention, as in most of the rights with political and civil character, but the obligation to take measures with positive character for "holding" of "democratic elections". In command of the constitution, election law, the election code provides that "Elections are periodic". Like the constitution and electoral code goes in full compliance with Article 3 of Protocol 1 that the election must be made in reasonable intervals. "The High Contracting Parties undertake to organize at reasonable intervals elections . . . ". It should be noted that Convention organs not defined and have not fixed this reasonable time interval. But, nevertheless, it is accepted by these bodies to the convention that reasonable time limits can be between five or six years. Another aspect that provision of the Constitution has determined is that the elections for the formation of the governing bodies of the state, should be democratic. With this that provides this provision of the constitution conforms to the standards that define for elections the European Convention and Article 3 of Protocol 1, where determined that "Parties . . . undertake to organize . . . freedom elections by secret ballot, under conditions which will ensure the free expression of the opinion of the

3 Law 7941 dated 29.04.1991 “On the main constitutional provisions” Article 3 pg 3 “Representative bodies are elected by freedom, general, equal, direct and secret vote”.
4 The law “On the rights and freedoms” dated 31.03.1993.
5 RA Constitution Article 1/3 Governance is based on a system of elections that are freedom, equal, general and periodic.
6 RA Constitution Article 85/1
8 Electoral Code 2008 Article 3/1
9 Protocol 1 ECHR Article 3. “The High Contracting Parties undertake to hold freedom elections at intervals reasonable by secret ballot, under conditions which ensure the free expression of the opinion of the people in the choice the legislature”.
10 Constitution Article 1/3
functions. Based on what is provided for in the constitution, it follows that restrictions of right of election that overcome the right to vote for the election of representatives and also includes the right to elected in functions public and state citizens and have reached eighteen years, including on election day. Our constitution the right to elect is defined as a general right, as the right of all citizens, that fulfilled two conditions are met. The European Convention on Human Rights only in this provision clearly involves only basic political right. In this direction in our Constitution Article 45/1 “Every citizen has the right to elect and be elected. “11 Protocol 1, Article 3 not only considers the right of voters a fundamental political right, but is among the few provisions which establish a positive obligation for the state. However, the European Convention on Human Rights only in this provision clearly involves only basic political right. In this direction in our constitution the right to elect is defined as a general right, as the right of all citizens, that fulfilled two conditions are citizens and have reached eighteen years, including on election day. The right to elect and be elected has every citizen. But defining the right election as a general political right of citizens our Constitution places a restriction on the electoral rights age limit, eighteen years. Constitution considers reserve of the constitution determining the terms of the possession of the right to vote, citizenship and adulthood. However, the constitution considers constitutional reserve the prediction of cases that restrict or prohibit the development and implementation of the right of election. The Constitution has provided only two cases of prohibition or restriction on the right to vote (mental incapacity declared by a court decision final) pg 2; and removal of personal freedom, imprisonment (persons deprived of their liberty and are suffering sentence of imprisonment who, according to the constitution, in this provision, owning only the right to vote, pg 3). Even in this aspect the constitution is approximated with the European Convention on Human Rights. Restrictions of this type are provided and permitted and under this Convention. The European Convention provides that states have the space to set conditions for the exercise of this fundamental political right of citizens. In this direction, the European Court of Human Rights, in its decisions, has accepted limitations of the election right. The Court has recognized that states parties have wide margin of appreciation in this field. However, it should be noted, however, that the European Court has not adopted a closed list, to limit or derogate from this right subjective. In the spirit of the Convention and the decisions of the European Court and of the constitution, the Electoral Code provides that, “All albanian citizen who has turned 18 years old on election day and that meets the necessary requirements in this code has the right to vote in elections for parliament and local government bodies “16 The right, the citizens to elect and to be elected, is a fundamental political right of citizens double. It includes the right to vote for the election of representatives and also includes the right to elected in functions public and state functions. Based on what is provided for in the constitution, it follows that restrictions of right of election that overcome the limitations provided for in the constitution considered unconstitutional. Restrictions, over constitutional reserve, become the subject of constitutional adjudication by the Constitutional Court and abolished. Election laws and all other normative acts for elections must guarantee the right of election in two aspects: in terms of the right to vote and in terms of the right to elected. Because restriction of the right of election are the reserve of the constitution, and the constitution is the highest normative act in the legal hierarchy, the constitution has provided cases of violation of this or restricting the right of election. So, the right to elect is a fundamental right political constitutional of individual. This right can not be violated by law and for consistency no individual is excluded from the possession of right to vote. However, the Constitutional Court of Albania and the European judicial practice acknowledged and considered justified the imposition

2. Right of Election is a Constitutional Right

Based on the provisions of the constitution electoral rights, includes in its content both right; the right to vote and the right to be elected to representative bodies and government. In the specific provisions in the constitution are directly regulating the right to vote and be elected. Moreover, the constitution defines the right of election as a fundamental political right of every citizen, which provided and protected by the constitution. The Constitution contains provisions that oblige the state and state bodies to respect the constitutional right of election. These provisions oblige the state and state bodies approve acts and oblige them to act to ensure the realization of this right by the citizens. In this sense, the state has a positive legal obligation not only to respect the right of citizens, but also the obligation to adopt laws that regulate and protect the realization of this right. The right to vote is a right “... to which public power authorities in fulfilling their duties, must respect ... and to contribute to its realization” Protocol 1, Article 3.12 In this aspect the constitution is approximated with the European Convention on Human Rights. Restrictions of this type are provided and permitted and under this Convention. The European Convention provides that states have the space to set conditions for the exercise of this fundamental political right of citizens. In this direction, the European Court of Human Rights, in its decisions, has accepted limitations of the election right. The Court has recognized that states parties have wide margin of appreciation in this field. However, it should be noted, however, that the European Court has not adopted a closed list, to limit or derogate from this right subjective. In the spirit of the Convention and the decisions of the European Court and of the constitution, the Electoral Code provides that, “All albanian citizen who has turned 18 years old on election day and that meets the necessary requirements in this code has the right to vote in elections for parliament and local government bodies.” The right, the citizens to elect and to be elected, is a fundamental political right of citizens double. It includes the right to vote for the election of representatives and also includes the right to elected in functions public and state functions. Based on what is provided for in the constitution, it follows that restrictions of right of election that overcome the limitations provided for in the constitution considered unconstitutional. Restrictions, over constitutional reserve, become the subject of constitutional adjudication by the Constitutional Court and abolished. Election laws and all other normative acts for elections must guarantee the right of election in two aspects: in terms of the right to vote and in terms of the right to elected. Because restriction of the right of election are the reserve of the constitution, and the constitution is the highest normative act in the legal hierarchy, the constitution has provided cases of violation of this or restricting the right of election. So, the right to elect is a fundamental right political constitutional of individual. This right can not be violated by law and for consistency no individual is excluded from the possession of right to vote. However, the Constitutional Court of Albania and the European judicial practice acknowledged and considered justified the imposition

11 Protocol 1 “ of ECHR, Article 3
12 Kushtetuta neni 45/1
14 Report on the study approach legislation with the ECHR “Tirana 2003 f..56
15 RA Constitution Article 45/1
16 Report on the study approach legislation with the ECHR “Tirana 2003 f..57
17 Report on the study approach legislation with the ECHR “Tirana 2003 f..56.
18 Electoral Code 2008 Article 3.1
19 RA Constitution Article 45/1 “Every citizen ... has the right to elect and be elected. “

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of restrictions on the realization of the right of election, such as age, place of residence and registration on election lists. This means that citizens to realize the right to vote, to vote in elections is not enough to be eighteen years old, but must be registered in voter lists and to vote in person at their residence stable.

3. The Implementation of the Right of Election

Albania has adopted legislation comprehensive and democratic, in level standards prescribed and delivered in Europe and in other democratic countries, which constitutes the legal basis necessary for recognition of the right to vote to all citizens and regulating the legal side, so a detailed and the realization of the right of election as the main political rights. Normative legal base to ensure legally vote, election rights, are kuahetuta, electoral code and laws and other acts. Moreover, in international reports on the elections held in our country during the period 1991-2015 election normative basis is identified from internationalists as an aspect of the achievements made by Albania towards approximation its legislation in the field of elections with international law in general and in particular with the European legislation. By underlined this aspect reporters OSCE / ODIHR have affirmed that the elections are regulated by a comprehensive legal framework, including mainly the Constitution, amended for the last time in 2008, and the Electoral Code of 2008, amended for the last time in July 2012. This legislation, of European standards, constitutes, in this way, the necessary normative, formal legal for democratic elections. Other laws applicable to elections include the Law on Political Parties, Meetings Law and the Penal Code, the Code of Administrative Procedure and the Code of Civil Procedure, which apply, respectively, in the proceedings of election commissions and courts, and the Law on Gender Equality containing provisions which ensure equal gender representation in election administration bodies and in parliament.

But, however, the implementation of the right to vote in our country has experienced a series of deviations, which has brought as a consequence negation infringement and violation of the right to elect, in both aspects, as the right to be elected to representative bodies and right to vote. The main consequence that is derived from these deviations has been distorting the results of the elections or manipulation of the results of the elections. For these reasons, in many cases, the representative body elected at the conclusion of the election process, not reflected correctly and adequately map, or political geography of the country. Because elections are the way, are the only means constitutional and legal for the coming to power of political forces. The main political issue for parties, since installing the new political order, became and remained elections. For these reasons, the parties have used all legal and political means to acquire them. However, this brought to consequence that elections to be and issue more fragile in new political system. Consequently, political parties, given that they are the main subjects the election, used from the beginning and even today use highly legal and illegal machinations to win the elections. Election Wins is also win of power, government victory. Legal and illegal machinations used by the parties in elections often have been violating election, and, violating the electoral outcome, bringing in governance not real election winners.

4. Violations of Right of Election

Elections was made one coveted issue for all political parties were created in our country after allowing political pluralism. Parties to come to governance should win the elections. Consequently, the political struggle to win elections presented harsh. Furthermore, parties seeking at any cost come to power using any form and means to win elections. Tools and forms, which are used by political parties to manipulate and violated elections in our country are different. But, in the paper treated just some ways, forms the tools more frequent and more identified, violations that have affected more in deviation and violation of this right. One form applied in almost all elections held in our country is not giving citizens in time of identification documents. Without documents of identification citizens, even though they are eighteen years of age and have the right of election, can not exercise their right to vote, so can not vote in elections. Citizens, which for lack of identification documents, can not vote, were not negligible, but have been a significant number that has always influenced the outcome of elections. By highlighting this form of violation of the election, as one of the most visible forms that marred the elections. report of OSCE ODIHR, for 2009 elections in our country, outlined in its content that... most significant

20 Raporti i OSBE / ODIHR 2013 “Për zgjedhjet në Shqipëri”.
21 Megadushku i 2001 zgjedhjeve dhe përdorimi i zgjedhjeve në 2009
22 Raporti pë zgjedhjet e 1996
23 On December 12, 1990 was created the first opposition party in Albania after the full 45 years, the Democratic Party (DP). Creating PD was followed by other parties that were created after the announcement on 15 December 1990 by the decree of the President of the Law "On political pluralism", was established Republican Party (RP), Ecological Party and Omonoia a political organization of minorities in Albania.
debate in the general election of 2009, politically, was connected with delivery of ID cards. Were declared data with numbers, but the inaccuracies in these data prompted the opposition to accuse the government for intentional manipulation. This issue was further complicated because the discretion of the Ministry of Interior, from 729, 020 citizens without a passport, about 160,000 to 260,000 were abroad without valid documents. On election day, were not processed only 3, 321 applications submitted by 1, 402,361; 77, 751 new identity cards were not withdrawn. 256, 792 citizens, who were registered in the database of persons without a valid passport, did not apply for a new identity card. There is a significant discrepancy between male and female citizens, especially among those aged from 21 to 50 years. It is likely that many women who are married and have changed their surname, to remain registered in local registers with their surname of maiden, therefore listed twice . . . . Over 2,000 voters with disabilities who do not have valid passport, could not apply for a new ID card, due to access difficult or impossible in application centers. 24 The conclusion was evident that, in the elections of 2009, a significant percentage of citizens can not vote, because it did not possess a passport or an identity card.

The electoral code provides that the right to vote is personal. Code obliges citizens with voting rights vote personally. Provisions of the electoral code, that regulates the exercise of the right to vote, obliges a citizen to vote himself. According code citizen votes by being personally present at the polling station. But the electoral code provides that voter comes only once in the voting center, and that the elector enters only in the secret booth where he votes. Zgjesësi is obliged to vote in secret, votes liberated from any influence. Based on the election code it's violation open ballot and vote for other people. Election Code provides only one way to exercise the right to vote, the elector must be present to vote at the polling station and voter votes only, " . . . the voter enters only in the secret booth . . . . "25 . . . the voter votes only for himself . . . . "26 To ensure personal vote, Code provides criminal responsibility for members of the Voting Center Commission, if they allow a voter to vote more than once . . . . "27 In international relations for elections are identified many forms that are used and violated directly personal character of the vote, as family voting and voting on behalf of others. . . . International reports, highlighting this aspect, underlined that serious problems are, wide spread of family voting, voting on behalf of others, all cases where the voter lists had seemingly similar firms, the same person who "helps" more than one voter, attempts to influence voters, and pressure on voters or on election officials. . . . "28

Ways more evident with influence direct in election result has been the manipulation of election results during the counting process. In many cases are excluded from the count voting centers, and are not included in the final result with various pretexts. One such case was identified in the 2001 elections. Central Election Commission ordered not included in the final result four polling stations in a electoral zone. This was in violation of the constitution and the electoral code, guaranteeing the right to vote and ensure its exercise and consideration and count each vote. Order of the Body Central Election was appealed to the constitutional court. The Constitutional Court decided the repeal of the order by ordering the counting of votes in these electoral centers. Arguing the decision Constitutional Court notes that the electoral code guarantees count each vote and obliges electoral bodies to counted in determining the election outcome of all votes in each constituency and in every polling station, not allowing these bodies on this aspect to exclude the counting of votes in any polling station. 29 From reporters OSCE / ODIHR, for 2003 local elections, reported a negative evaluation of the counting process in 38 percent of polling stations where the count was observed. While 43 percent of polling stations, where observers were present, were reported significant procedural errors and enough deficiency. 30 Deficiencies in counting and manipulation of results in the counting process was repeated in the general election of 2009. According to the final election report, presented by the OSCE / ODIHR, According to the final election report presented by the OSCE / ODIHR, the ballot counting was rated bad or very bad in 22 places Counting of votes from 66 such that were total of. 31 This was the distortion of election results in the 1/3. According to this data the vote is violated, and the result is 33 percent of manipulate. In this case, the right to vote has been violated clearly. However, although it seems quite strange,

24 Report OSCE - ODIHR 2009
25 Electoral Code 2008 Article 101/1
26 Electoral Code 2008 Article 101/3
27 Electoral Code 2008 Article 101/4
28 Final report of OSCE / ODIHR in 2013 elections.
29 Decisions of the Constitutional Court "Electoral Process 2001" f.161. Decision No. 111/01. With this decision, this court considers unconstitutional decision dated 08.08.01 nr.219 CEC with which he was ordered not to be included. With this decision, this court considers unconstitutional decision dated 08.08.01 nr.219 CEC with which he was ordered not included in the final result table of the area 82, four polling stations. The Constitutional Court found that the CEC is out of power and has violated the constitutional right to vote . . . of voters of these polling stations . . . which speaks to Article 45 of the Constitution.,
30 The OSCE / ODIHR in the 2003 election
31 The OSCE / ODIHR in 2009 elections
elections were considered regular and the result was certified, but only from one side of. The opposition did not accept the results of the general elections of 2009. The election result was rejected as the manipulated throughout legislature. For this reason, the opposition boycotted the proceedings of the representative body to the time limit, set by the constitution, in loss of representation mandates.

Another way of repeatedly of the violation of the right of the vote in elections is a violation of the secrecy in voting, although the Constitution establishes that the vote is secret and citizens enjoy the freedom to vote. Election observers in our country identified several cases of violation of secrecy in voting. Report OSCE / ODIHR in the 2009 elections, found that 9 percent of the centers surveyed, not guaranteed secrecy of the vote provided in Copenhagen Document of the OSCE, mainly because not good space planning, limitations of this space, or the large number of people. At 2 percent of polling stations that were observed, not all voters marked a ballot inside the cabin and in 4 percent of the centers visited, not all voters folded their mark sheet, in order to ensure the secrecy of the vote. Another way of the violating the secrecy of the vote, which was highlighted was the family voting. Report OSCE - ODIHR underlines that family voting was reported by 19 percent of polling stations observed. Other ways that violated the secrecy in voting that were found were: voting on behalf of others (3 percent), attempt to influence voters (4 percent), cases where the same person "helping" more than one voter (4 per cent), pressure on election officials or voters (1 percent), as also similar firms in the list of voters (4 percent). However, the report notes that the election administration bodies made no legal proceedings to remedy these violations. Even political parties did not appeal to the court for the violations occurred. This is explained by the fact that all political parties participating in elections, violate the secrecy of the ballot itself, but also because subjects did not believe that the judicial process can be transparent and non-suggestible by the parties. In connection with this fact, international election reporter revealed that . . . although were identified ways and diverse forms that violated secrecy of the vote, not observed frequent processes and numerous judicial processes to restore this right by all these forms of violating the election law. Not developed with trials necessary adjustments which to respect the secrecy of voting in elections. Form of repeated of violation of the right of the vote that is recorded is falsifying the election results. The reports of the OSCE / ODIHR election, is evidenced by the observers, the falsification of the results of voting in some polling centers or some counting sites. According to the report, in 2009 elections reported level of different of falsification of results in 10 percent of polling stations. So, the outcome of the election was distorted and unrealistic. But, although is falsified, result remained such, because result, was not subject to judicial control. Judicial Review of election results in this case, remains the only legal instrument that finds deformations and has the legal right to correct them. This is in line with European court decisions. The European Court has determined that, far country court to investigate and determine, in each case, infringement and violation of this right. Moreover, the court is the body that decides case by case also the legality of the deprivation and restriction of the right of election.

Other forms of violation of the right of election, even, and most frequently are manipulating national registry of voters and failure to register of citizens in lists of voters. These violations are repeated in all the elections held in our country. Forms used to manipulate voter register are: a- failure to register in the register of persons who have reached voting age, b- duplicate registration of some citizens; c- in the voter exclusion of citizens who enjoy this right; d- not equipping of citizens with identification documents: passport or ID card; e- the relocation of voters from the voter list unit the residence in a list that belongs to another electoral area; f- not announcement the voters for their place in the list of voters and their voting center; g- inclusion in the voter list of individuals that have not identified residence; h- included in the voting list of persons who are not residents of the polling area.

Failure to register the voters in the voter lists, the voter owns this right and the removal of voters from the voter list, when the voter should be in these lists are arbitrary actions not based on law. This violation of election officials, it is...
difficult and very complicated to prove and interpret, but brings a serious legal consequences, removes voters right of the election, which gave voters the constitution and electoral law guarantees. To take this decision the administration of the election officer does not own any discretionary powers. Legal cases for non-registration of voters on election lists and removing voters from voter lists are defined in the law. Electoral officer has no discretion but to make decisions based on determinations made in the law and in the documents, sent by other entities with which he proceeds to prove the loss of the right of election, or not to register on the list. Opportunity to remove voters from the voter lists is when the voter loses citizenship. The other case is when elktorale office takes into consideration documents proving the non-existence of the citizens in civil status register resident citizens, In this case the electoral office did not record the name of the citizens in the lists of voters who are resident in the electoral district. Reason is that election law provides that voters register only on election lists of residence, or the country where they are resident enrolled in the civil registers. In both cases reviewed above is presumed that other offices documentation submitted is correct and true. To protect the exercise of the right of election the violations that affect law of the election, as irregularities in the voting process, voting more than once, pressures during voting, vote buying by candidates or political parties and the sale of the vote by the voters, the election code provides specific provisions that define criminal and administrative punishments.

The right to vote is determined in special constitutional provisions and protected directly from it. It is part of the basic human rights guaranteed by the constitution. This right finds protection in election code, which has provided some offensespunishable, which can be performed by state bodies governing administer elections, election administration and individuals. In a chapter electoral code defines responsibilities and sanctions for persons charged with the administration of elections. Such acts are are: abandoning of duty by members of the election commissions. In the code are also provided administrative sanctions for actions that do not constitute a criminal offense or abuse of power under Article 248 of the penal code, which are defined as administrative violation, where not affect the outcome of elections, and are considered a criminal offense, when these actions affect the outcome of elections. In this case provided imprisonment from 6 months to two years. But the violation of the right to vote is protected not onlywith the provisions of special of the Electoral Code, but also by providing penal code provisions that provide for offenses against elections. The penal code provides criminal acts that violate the election: prohibition to vote; voting more than once; manipulation of election results, obstruction of subjects for elections to representative bodies; falsification of documents and election results; violating the secrecy of voting; giving of rewards and promises; intimidation of the voters and candidates; violation of the right of election. Problem controversial it's case the punishment of individuals with prohibition of the right to exercise the duties as a civil servant or public service. and the removal of the right to practiceprofession or activity. It seems clear that the removal of the right to exercise a profession or activity in the sense of the Article 30 paragraph 5, differentiate from the prohibition constitutes an obstacle to public functions as defined in Article 30 paragraph 1 of the the Criminal Code. Prohibition the possibility to exercise public functions may lead to the removal of the active electoral right. In this case the law may be provided obstruction of citizens to run for election and to exercise the function of legislators or other public functions acquired through elections.

But the election law has not defined anyprohibition for citizens who have besides the main sentence as accessory punishment prohibition of the exercise of public functions that accessed through elections. Just constitution restricts active right election, citizens sentenced to imprisonment by a final decision, who are serving a sentence. In this case, the constitution provides that the implementation of the main sentence prevents directly election of citizens in representative bodies. For this reason it is not envisaged in the Election Code, such a restriction. But in this case, by sending the decision by the court, election administration does not accept the registration of citizens in the lists of candidates. There are states where citizens lose the right election because even moral unworthiness determined by law. These persons are

36 RA Electoral Code Electoral Code Article 168 "... Members of election commissions and employees of the public administration at the service of these commissions hold criminal and administrative liability under the legislation in force for violations of the provisions of this code ".
37 Neni170 Electoral Code "... criminal offense punishable by a fine / imprisonment 6 months to 2 years".
38 Electoral Code Article 171.
39 Electoral Code Article 172.
40 RA Criminal Code Chapter X
41 RA Criminal Code Article 331.
42 RA Criminal Code Article 30, 1.
43 RA Criminal Code Article 30, 5.
excluded from the right to elect. 44

5. Conclusions

By addressing the issue can be concluded that in our country there is proper legislation regarding elections and guaranteeing the right of election, constitution, electoral code, and laws and other legal acts, which constitute the legal basis governing elections. From paper comes out that legislation is in full compliance with international norms for the elections, the European Koneventën Individual Rights and its additional protocols. Another finding indicates that elections in our country have presented many problems. In elections are observed violations of election law and a violation of this right in the way of different forms. For this reason during this period are made constantly attempt to adjustments in the legislation on elections. The most important adjustment for elections was the adoption of the constitution in 1998 and adoption of the Electoral Code in 2000. In elections held in our country are observed significant cases of violation of the right of election, which quite times have brought about the worthlessness of the elections, the case of general elections of 1996 and the distortion of election results. Constantly it's improved election legislation based on the recommendations of international organizations monitoring the elections in Albania, OSCE and ODIHR. But the last election proved the need for other changes to the electoral code, which would guarantee election truly democratic and free elections.

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44 The Constitution of the Italian Republic Article 48. "The right to vote can not be restricted except for civil incapacity or as a consequence of the a criminal decision final and in cases of moral unworthiness established by law".
Exercise Habits of Women 40 Ages and Over

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Abstract

The purpose of the research was to determine of habits about exercise of women of 40 ages and over. Research; December 2013 was made in Antalya province in Turkey. The research sample was consisted of 500 women. The data was taken into consideration; age, height, weight, marital status, number of children, education level, income level, active working life, health problems, treated diseases, hereditary diseases, operational status, prosthetic status in the body, psychological treatment or support, regular exercise habits and physical education lesson consisted questions. In the pre-implementation; The purpose of the research was explained and took verbal consent of the volunteer women. Frequency and percentages used for evaluation of the data. In conclusion; women were not have exercise habits and its reason that they were housewife.

Keywords: 40 ages and over, women, exercise, habit

1. Introduction

The development of technology has led so many daily physical task to do with a good deal of tools. And this resulted in to gain time for spare time activities. Nevertheless so many people prefer to live immobile. Although human body designed to move and make challenging physical activities; yet the exercise is not among the daily efforts of average life style. (1)

It is stated that when human body lives without movements that its needs for a long time it will lose some of its functional capabilities; and these functional capabilities will cause so many diseases.

The diseases are defined as hypokinetic diseases in the end of sedentary life. (1)

The people who do not make regular exercise have very high risk to contract diseases such as coronary heart disease, high blood pressure, high cholesterol, cancer, musculoskeletal disorders and obesity. (1,2)

According to the health risks the most effective types of exercise are such increasing aerobic capacity as walking, jogging, hiking, biking, boating, and swimming. With aerobic exercises high efficiency could obtain to eliminate such diseases which are particularly obesity, cardiovascular disease and deformation of the bones. (3)

Many studies shows that active individuals have lower risk to have heart disease than sedentary people. Recent studies emphasizes that the regular exercises and level of cardiorespiratory fitness are very important to prevention of heart diseases. (4-5)

In the period of middle ages and above physical suitability levels are decreases and thus increases the risk of diseases. The serious diseases which are more frequently observed in this period as heart disease, osteoporosis, obesity, hypertension, cancer and diabetes threatens society as effects adversely individuals.

Obesity is a major risk factor for coronary heart disease. Obesity is characterized by the height of the excess fat and endomorphy rate and inactive, sedentary lifestyle is one of the causes of obesity (6,7).

This study 40 years and older was conducted to investigate the level of knowledge about exercise in women.

2. Materials and Methods

The research sample was consisted of 500 women. Research method is screening model. Percent and frequency are used to evaluating the data. The data taken into consideration; age, height, weight, marital status, number of children, education level, income level, active working life, health problems, treatment finished diseases, hereditary diseases, operation status, prosthetic status in the body, psychological treatment or support, regular exercise habits and physical education consists of questions about the course. December 2013 on the application was made in Antalya province.

Survey prior to application; aim is then discussed and made verbal consent of the volunteer women.
3. Results and Interpretation

Table 1: Percent and Frequency Results.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Answer</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Marital Status</td>
<td>Married</td>
<td>%76.4</td>
<td>382</td>
<td>500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do You Work?</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>%66.6</td>
<td>333</td>
<td>500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Did You Have Working Life?</td>
<td>Never Worked</td>
<td>%61.4</td>
<td>307</td>
<td>500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do You Have Health Problems?</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>%50.6</td>
<td>253</td>
<td>500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do You Have Finished Your Treatment Discomfort?</td>
<td>NO</td>
<td>%79.6</td>
<td>398</td>
<td>500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do You Have Any Hereditary Disease?</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>%79.4</td>
<td>397</td>
<td>500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have You Had Surgery?</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>%58.4</td>
<td>292</td>
<td>500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Is There A Prosthesis?</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>%80.2</td>
<td>401</td>
<td>500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do You Have Any Psychological Treatment?</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>%80.4</td>
<td>402</td>
<td>500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do You Have Regular Exercise?</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>%57.0</td>
<td>285</td>
<td>500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Is Your Exercise Affects Your State Income?</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>%74.4</td>
<td>372</td>
<td>500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What Are The Factors That Affect Your Exercising?</td>
<td>I'm Not Interested</td>
<td>% 6.3</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Losing Weight</td>
<td>% 4.9</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do You Think That Regular Exercise Has An Effect On Health?</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>%95.6</td>
<td>478</td>
<td>500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How Many Years Have You Taken Physical Education Classes?</td>
<td>11 Year</td>
<td>% 25</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have You Exercise A Directed In Physical Education Classes?</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>% 49.8</td>
<td>249</td>
<td>500</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Research group; 48.8 years of age, height 156.8 cm, 69.1 kg of body weight ratio was composed of 500 women with an average volunteer. According to the lady of the data obtained; response options being married the marital status was determined that 30.8% of high school education 76.4% status.

How much is the monthly income? The question; the answer is not the income you 48.2% Work? *No answer to the question 66.6% of the active working life by how many years? 'question was found to give 61.4 reputation no response.

Do you have health problems? Received 50.6% answered yes to the question; What was that about health problems from blood pressure responses received, 10%, 4.5% glucose, thyroid, 3.5%, 3.5% asthma, rheumatism, 2.5%, 2.5% hernia, heart rate is 1.5% respectively.

Do you have finished your treatment discomfort? 79.6% of the question, no, 14.6% yes; If that is what the finished treatment of gynecological diseases and disorders response rate reached 17.5%.

Do you have any hereditary disease? Questions to 79.4% no, 20.6% yes; 28.6% of what disturbed that hereditary blood pressure, 14.3% sugar, reached the value of 8.8% of heart failure.

Have you had surgery? 58.4% to the question, yes, 40.8% no; What are the answers that passed cesarean surgery 25.7%, 12.3%, gynecological diseases, appendicitis, 5.7%, 5.4%, gallbladder, breast 4.2%, 2.3% nose, goiter and 1.9% thyroid, and kidney hemorrhoid 1.5% 1.1% meniscus has been found that eyes and hernia surgery.

Is there a prosthesis? Questions to no 80.2% yes 19.8%; where the response has been reached that the prosthesis in the mouth with 80.8%.

Do you have any psychological treatment? Questions 80.4% no, 17.2% yes; Did you using psychological medicine or did you use? 55.1% 25.5% yes to the question, no answer was given over 19.4% yes, I'm still using.

Do you take regular exercise? Questions to 57.0% of the women with 41.8% yes no life without active exercise greatly; How many days per week do you do sports? 3 day 36.2% of the question, how many hours do you do? Questions to 67.5% for 1 hour, did you or do you do if exercise alone group 'to have reached 55.4% only answer. Does the doctor have been recommended by doctors and 51.3% of the questions that have no incentive to exercise and exercise affect your case for you to exercise your income? If the question has been no 74.4%.

What are the factors that affect your exercising? Questions do not have time to 17.3%, 17.3% gave the answer to be healthy. 15.6% cannot because of my illness, feels lazy 12.9%, 6.3% I'm not interested, I'm due to weakening of 4.9%, 4.4% has been reached, and I do to lose weight to be more healthy response.

Do you think that regular exercise has an effect on health? 95.6% yes to the question; explanation of 17.8% as the response is beneficial to health, health and quality of life was found to give the answer to 12.6%.
How many years have you taken physical education classes? 25% Question 11 years, 5 years, 21.8%, 9.2% for 8 years, 12 years, 8.0%, 4.4% for 6 years and 4.0% 3 years is found to be 2.2% for 15 years. Directed to exercise in physical education classes? Questions to 49.8% no, 41.4% yes, the physical education teacher or your teacher gave information about the benefits of exercise? If yes to Question 51.0% response rate was achieved in 38.0% no.

4. Recommendations

1. Women can exercise by municipalities for days that can be applied in every neighborhood.
2. Training on behalf of the lack of awareness by the experts to do the exercises, you can increase awareness by giving lectures and sayings.
3. Exercise to lose weight by making a measurement of days per month and ensuring that the tightening observed in the concrete can be increased participation in exercise.
4. Athletes during certain times of the day may be asked to exercise participation and bringing women athletes / athletes achieved to see visually.
5. By the State; units can be installed about to have a healthy weight.
6. Weight control, and institutions such as health centers can be done with patient follow-up.
7. Ministry of Education of physical education lessons and work done to create the habit of exercising their applications.
8. Exercise incentive for future weight gain experienced by the Ministry of Youth and Sports, on behalf of failure rate, projects to acquire the habit of doing exercise can be carried out.

References

Identifying the Ethical Issues in Research and the Process of Gaining the Scientific Titles

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Doi:10.5901/mjss.2015.v6n2s5p166

Abstract

Ethical issues in scientific research are very complex, in the same manner as they are delicate. In most of the cases, the researcher needs to collect data from people, in unknown conditions and circumstances with huge social, ethnical, cultural, religious and gender pressure. The issue of ethics in scientific research especially in gaining academic titles is primarily a matter of social practice. We are all witnessing that many research papers are written for scientific titles, and they’re based on second and third hand resources, without any first hand research. 2/3 of Master and Doctoral candidates have gathered data from the projects where they did not participate; they have collected and used data from other known and unknown researchers. In Macedonia, the government has established a mechanism for saving and checking master and doctoral papers from 2012 (www.plagijati.com.m). This presents a good opportunity for checking the integrity and validity of the academic papers. The researcher’s responsibility represents a huge problem. This last decade the government prompted the massive enrollment in the universities as an idea with value, but recently the question whether this is becoming devaluated now is more than questionable? How much the race for profit is influencing the ethical aspect of the scientific and pedagogical research? At this point do the government and the universities thrive to provide quality in the higher education? How much are involved the principles of Salzburg in the third cycle of studies? In Macedonia and neighbor countries there is a huge competition for gaining academic titles. The number of Doctoral holders in Macedonia in 2013 increased for 50.5 % compared to year 2012. By using the method of analyzing the documentation we’ll gather and interpret data related to research ethics and copyrights of the scientific papers.

Keywords: Ethics, Research, Scientific Titles, Plagiarism

1. Introduction

Definition of ethics mostly focuses on the idea that it represents branch of philosophy which deals with moral principles that govern a person’s behavior or conducting of an activity. Very often medical ethics also takes part in this definition. Ethics can also be defined as the branch of knowledge that deals with moral principles. But if we want to define the Research as a process, it has another definition. According to Cambridge Dictionary (2003) research is a detailed study of a subject, especially in order to discover (new) information or reach a (new) understanding. There are many different aspects of research which include: the detailed study of something in order to discover new facts, especially in a university or scientific institution.

Other definitions are based on some points and different authors have different opinions how they view this issue. Some think that the research represents making a rigorous and relevant contribution to knowledge. Others define it as a relationship among point A with point B, and by linking these two one new product-C is created. Some others refer to it as an organized inquiry to provide information for the solution to a problem (Emery & Cooper, 1991). According to Kumar (Kumar, 1996) the research is a careful and systematic investigation in some field of knowledge, undertaken to establish facts or principles. (Jung-Su Kim, 2006, p. 4)

2. Methodology

This paper is collecting factual data from several first and second hand resources as: literature review and statistical analysis of data of scientific titles in Macedonia. Also, the report of plagiarism from the software of the Ministry of Education and Sciences will be interpreted. (http://plagijati.mon.gov.mk)

The data will be interpreted through tables and average percentages.
3. Some History and Actual Debates

Ethical issues in research are as old as humanity. Through time this issues have been defined with legal norms. It is clearly stated which are the processes of copyright, how to save personal and private data, what is called an original work and what is meant by an independent work. Here we have to deal with clarification of what is called our authentic work and how to cite sources used by other authors. Saint Simone and Auguste Compte ended their cooperation, just because of one publication which was not appropriately cited.

At the time of Reich third, the Nazis in the name of scientific research destroyed all ethical borders and tried to use Satanism. The research for genetically modified foods and genetic engineering are very debatable issues, as is the air pollution and those who gain economical benefits by damaging people's health.

The next question tries to find out whether the manipulations done by politicians during the elections can be used in the same way by the scientists as well? At least one minute within a week we need to stop and think about this issue.

All these issues produce many legal and moral norms, ethical codes, councils, committees and associations. But the social practice shows that we have many things to work on. We can check the scientific paper on the software in order to prove how many words or sentences are used from other authors, but we cannot prove whether the interviews are done correctly, whether the collected results of methods are done correctly and how useful they are?

Another question that we need to consider as ethical issue is whether there are any manipulations in the numbers of the collected data and are they influenced by our own believes? All this leads to definition of the data validity, and whether we create them or we are just participants of the project?

Many authors agree that to think for ethics means: to recognize moral and social values which are related to social research, in particular to ask ourselves how do we need to treat the participants. If we refer to Matthews and Ross (Matthews and Ross, 2010, p. 73-81) we need to define in which way we can protect moral standards.

We can conclude that research ethics needs to begin with sincere and precise information, then to add the possible anticipated problems, explain in which way the data will be used, which is your status, validity of data, time needed for participation, copyright etc.

4. Literature Review

The scientific literature for moral issues of the researcher is very broad. A huge number of books and manuals are designed for researchers and students, in order to make them aware and increase the responsibility for data collection, selection and interpretation of facts. Probably this originates with Socrates quote: “know yourself” (Socrates on Know Thyself), and then Descartes with Cogito ergo sum (“I think, therefore I am”), Kant’s categorical imperative etc.

For this paper we have elaborated and used information from the book: Plagiarism in scientific writing: words or ideas? (Hadzibadeh, F., Sashok, K., 2011, p. 576–577).

Plagiarism refers to the act of “appropriation of another person’s ideas, processes, results, or words without giving appropriate credit”. But, at the same time, students cheats in classroom, in exam, homework... Refers to Donald L. McCabe ( McCabe et all, 2001, p. 228) “On many campuses the fundamental element of an academic code honor must be the particularly useful tools for colleges and universities who seek to reduce students cheating.

Most academic researchers reach a consensus that plagiarism is a serious breach of publication ethics. Plagiarism has different forms but can be categorized into two general distinct categories – plagiarism of ideas and plagiarism of text (verbatim). No doubt, plagiarism of ideas is a blatant act of misconduct. Plagiarism of text and recycling of words are also a serious fault in humanities and literature where the essence of work and novelty are wordings and eloquence of the text.

But, what about science where the essence of the work is the originality of the scientific content no matter how eloquent it is presented. (http: //www. ncbi. nlm. nih. gov).

There are some authors who think that schools of ethics in Western Philosophy can be divided, very roughly into three sorts. The first, drawing on the work of Aristotle, holds that the virtues (such as justice, charity, and generosity) are dispositions to act in ways that benefit both the person possessing them and that person’s society. The second, defended particularly by Kant, makes the concept of duty central to morality ( http: //www. oxforddictionaries. com/definition)

Rosycki in his book Plagiarism (2001, p. 7) states that in our everyday life we often do not need to point from where we have taken the information, they just need to follow an interesting story. This differs at schools. Teachers need to know precisely where you got the information and facts, how you interpret them, and most importantly whether they are your or somebody else’s ideas.

Therefore, they need to know the source of the information or the author of the paper, information or idea. This leads toward plagiarism. This is a very serious issue, which very often creates trouble for academia.
5. How to Do a Scientific Research Including Ethics?

Ethical issue in scientific research especially in gaining academic titles is an issue of social practice. We can all witness that there are many papers written only for gaining academic titles, with no first hand resources, only second and third hand data.

Plagiarism becomes more present with the massive use of internet in our everyday lives. Earlier when typing machines were used as writing tools there was bigger space for adding comment and suggestions, and nowadays it is easily done by adding and combining texts in much easier way with less effort.

On the other hand, based on many social experiences a huge number of important people like state presidents, prime ministers, ministers, mayors and other public figures had to resign from their posts only because they have broken the ethical issues regarding the scientific titles. This phenomena is not present only in elite circles, but in all social layers. The only difference is that in the elite circles their political responsibility and social control makes them more visible, they are constantly criticized and followed by media and by representatives of public opinion.

Research cannot be done in one particular place, let say laboratory; instead it is done in social and natural environment.

If the research is not done with ethical reflection, it can be harmful. For example, collective data and analytical work with personal information can be very sensitive issue for the individuals as well as for the social groups. The same thing can be applied for the experimental work in general (including people or animals). Nowadays, the researcher needs to consider legal regulations (in educational research the legislation on data protection is probably the most common case), which define concrete barriers for: ‘free research’. For these reasons, at these contemporary times there is a rapid increase of the value of research ethics and the issues of academic integrity.

The main principles of research ethics are often represented as follows: (Zgaga et all, p. 50)

- Respect for human dignity (to be aware of the humanity of every person, treat people as you want to be treated and never treat them as a means for attaining personal purpose, consider human rights, etc.)
- Benefit (try to maintain quality; there is always a need to find ways for better use of resources, never misuse the participants of the research etc.)
- Justice (the importance of justice, equal access to benefits, respect for privacy, respect for individuals or disadvantaged groups, etc).

Researcher (or the research group), who should conduct the research, needs to respect completely the academic integrity that is required by him / her (them):

- To recognize the contribution of other sources in his/her research efforts;
- To complete an independent research work unless he/she is authorized to request or receive assistance in its preparation;
- To follow research guidelines and stick to standards of the given academic discipline; and
- To avoid, in any form academic cheating.

There is a tendency in all research universities to form committees for research ethics. All research projects where people are involved (sometimes there are researches where animals are involved) and are done by the Faculties, staff and students need to take ethical approval that the research can be conducted before the research begins. The majority of universities including the SEEU (South East European University) have defined their ethical code and the regulation for the scientific research.

Scientific research is closely related to morality and its definition means a habit, action or a behavior becoming a habit. The morality deals with law, tradition, decency, character and purity. In philosophical view the term moral is characterized with tradition, especially best practices which enable harmonious and productive existence of the individual in the society.

6. Research Data

Form 2012 in Macedonia with all changes in the law for higher education the criteria for gaining academic titles is becoming tougher. The Ministry of Education has database for each formal scientific work and it shows precisely the number of borrowed words from other scientific works. The Salzburg principles are updated, and more often they are used positively in all areas of the research methodology.

Below is presented a practical approach for avoiding plagiarism, used by the formal system of the Ministry of Education and Science.
Table 1. South East European University Master and Doctoral students work checked in the Ministry Software for Plagiarism. (The cases are chosen randomly)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mentorship</th>
<th>Number of MA thesis</th>
<th>PhD thesis</th>
<th>Percentages of borrowed words from other scientific works:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Professor nr 1 Mentor</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total; 8</td>
<td>96 MA thesis</td>
<td>7 PhD Thesis</td>
<td>All: 2.37 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From these results we can conclude that this system is very practical, but it does not mean that the problem is solved totally. Obviously it helps the process, but the rest of the work depends on us-researchers, to develop self-control and self-responsibility for the academically scientific work. No significant difference between Master and Doctoral thesis related to the number of borrowed words from other scientific works. Percentages of borrowed words from other scientific works for 103 scientific works is 2.37. This result is low

Table 2. Masters of science according to the scientific field of the master's thesis, sex and age

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Age groups</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>All</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Natural sciences and mathematics</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technical-technological sciences</td>
<td>283</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medical sciences</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Biotechnical sciences</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social sciences</td>
<td>1012</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Humanities</td>
<td>140</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As described in table 2 for Masters of science and specialists, in 2013 according to the data of the State Statistical Office, a total of 1 664 persons obtained the titles of Master of Science and Specialist, of which 1 558 persons or 93. 6% were masters of science and 106 persons or 6. 4% were specialists. Compared with 2012, the number of masters of science and specialists increased by 6. 1%. The participation of women in the total number of masters of science in 2013 was 57. 4%. In 2013, the majority of master's theses, 1 012 or 65%, were in the field of social sciences, followed by 18. 2% in the field of technical and technological sciences, while the rest were in the fields of humanities, natural sciences and mathematics, biotechnical and medical sciences. (http://www.stat.gov.m 2015)

Table 3. Doctors of science according to the scientific field of the doctoral dissertation and age

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Age groups</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>26 - 29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Natural sciences and mathematics</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technical-technological sciences</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Biotechnical sciences</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social sciences</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on table 3, Doctors of science in 2013, according to the data of the State Statistical Office, 219 persons have gained the title "Doctor of Science", which is an increase of 50% compared with 2012. The majority of doctorate holders, 52. 1%, have gained their doctorate in the field of social sciences, followed by 14. 2% in technical-technological sciences, 11. 9% in the field of medical sciences, while the rest have obtained their doctorate in the field of humanities, natural
sciences and mathematics and biotechnical sciences. The participation of females that have obtained a doctorate during 2013 was 119 candidates or 54.3% of the total number of doctorates in 2013. Of the total number of persons that have gained the title Doctor of Science, the majority, 55.7%, work in educational activity.

7. Documents Found with Similarities

This table below presents a detailed report of the PhD candidate related to the work used by others. Their work, as well, needed to be checked before the defense in the Software of the Ministry. In this case the candidate has used data from his MA research in non-ethical way, so that in percentages he has used 1.28% from his previously used work, and 0.15% of the general material.

Table 4.

Candidate: Blerim Elezi
Prof. D-r. Hasan Jashari
February, 2015, 0106 Documents, 5 exposed documents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Document from which are borrowed words, sentences (MA thesis and the name of Author)</th>
<th>Results</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sadin Saliu. doc Author: Sadin Saliu</td>
<td>1.28% [268/20880 words] 39.64% [268/676 words]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Xhemali Limani Magjistratura. doc Author: Xhemali Limani</td>
<td>0.93% [195/20880 words] 28.85% [195/676 words]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Selim Daku. doc Author: Selim Daku</td>
<td>0.47% [98/20880 words] 14.5% [98/676 words]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Denis Dika. doc Author: Denis Dika</td>
<td>0.15% [31/20880 words] 4.59% [31/676 words]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MAdissertation. doc Author: Nazan Mustafa</td>
<td>0.14% [29/20880 words] 4.29% [29/676 words]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

8. Conclusion

Ethical issues in scientific research are very complex and not much elaborated. First of all, they represent very delicate social practice, and as the time is passing they become even more interesting and debatable. In Macedonia there is an increased trend that scientific works and research need to be sensible when it comes to personal care and responsibility. Statistical indicators show that the use of Principles of Salzburg need improvement, also there is a lack in transparency, innovation and research groups.

Everywhere, teachers, administrators, students should work together to reduce the cheating.

In the future this issue will be even more attacked from public opinion critics, the legislature and various codes of ethics.

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219-232, page 228.

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http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC4278456/10.03.2015
http://www.oxforddictionaries.com/definition/english/ethics, 07.03.2015)
Pardon as a Specific Manner of Extinguishing Penalties

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Doi:10.5901/mjss.2015.v6n2s5p172

Abstract

Pardon is one of the manners of extinguishing penalties, respectively the creation of legal situations which impede the criminal prosecution as well as imposing and application of punishments against the perpetrators of criminal offences. It represents an act issued by the President (so is in Kosovo), respectively the Government. In fact, by means of pardon specifically designated persons listed by name are granted exemption from complete or partial exemption from the execution of a punishment, the substitution of punishment with a less severe punishment or a suspended sentence or the expunging of punishment. Pardon is an old institution of criminal law. It is known in Roman Law and Middle Ages Law. Also contemporary criminal laws recognize pardon as a criminal-law tool which precludes imposing the punishment, or the imposed punishment is pardoned as whole or partially. In Kosovo the pardon issue has been regulated by Law on Pardon entered into force in 2008. Pardon manifests a range of characteristics and its existence and granting is determined by special reasons. For granting pardon is conducted a special procedure. Such procedure shall be initiated according to official duty (ex-officio) and by the initiative of the convicted person or his family members. The pardon shall be granted for all criminal offences despite of their gravity, excluding criminal offences against the constitutional order and security of the Republic of Kosovo and criminal offences against humanity and values protected by international law. In this short scientific paper is dealt with the meaning, characteristics, importance and the procedure of pardon implementation as well as some of the basic issues of theory-practice nature referring to this criminal-law institution. By preparing this article I have used historical-legal, comparative, dogmatic, statistical methods etc.

Keywords: The President, pardon, punishment, imprisonment, convicted person.

1. Introduction

Pardon of punishments represents an institution of criminal law through which penalties are extinguished. This institution is the instrument of the President through which specifically designated persons listed by name are granted exemption from complete or partial exemption from the execution of a punishment, the substitution of punishment with a less severe punishment or a suspended sentence or the expunging of punishment. Pardon is based in the principle of reward, rehabilitation, universality, the personal effectiveness and ignoring of financial compensation. Through pardon shall be followed political and social changes in the criminal field, it is influenced in the good behavior of convicted persons, shall be performed certain humanitarian repercussions and it is expressed state and political wisdom. When deciding on applications for pardon it must be considered the severity of criminal offence, the risk of recidivism, repentance, the appearance of respected character and behavior etc. For granting pardon is conducted a special procedure. It precedes the submission of applications for pardon, and it continues by its reviewing from respective commission which prepares a report with concrete proposals for each application and sends it to the President as the sole authority to make decisions. According to data made public only through years 2002-2012 were filed 2885 applications for pardon, of which were approved 885.

During the decision-making process concerning pardon were indicated cases of granting pardon for criminal offences for which the legislator had forbidden granting pardon such as those concerning trafficking in persons, cases of granting pardon for very severe criminal offences and contrary with the pardon's goals, such are cases of murders from blood feud as well cases for granting pardon for applications for which the commission on pardon had recommended its refusal.

2. The Meaning of Pardon

In general pardon is an act issued by the President or state government. In Kosovo case pardon is granted by the President. "Pardon is issued in the form of a decision by which specifically designated persons listed by name are
granted exemption from complete or partial exemption from the execution of a punishment, the substitution of punishment with a less severe punishment or a suspended sentence or the expunging of punishment. 1 In accordance with the article 3, paragraph 3 of the Law on Pardon a pardon relieves the convicted person from protective measures, fines and any other punishments included in the sentence imposed by the court. 2

In fact, pardon implies the extraordinary executive power of the President to pardon the convicted persons for criminal offences, by releasing them from imposed punishment by the court. It is granted through an extraordinary and seldom-used tool to reward extraordinary displays of character and conduct or to address serious humanitarian concerns characterizing the accused or convicted persons for commission of criminal offence.

By the definition abovementioned it turns out that the pardon in volume terms represents a broad act because by pardon shall be extinguished a large number of criminal sanctions. 3 Consequently, according to the article 112, paragraph 2 of Criminal Code of the Republic of Kosovo a perpetrator cannot be pardoned for any punishment for which the Conditional Release Panel has refused that person conditional release. 4

3. Some of the Principles in which is Based the Pardon

The pardon is based in some principles. Seen in the context of solutions specified in the article 3 of the Law on Pardon this institution of criminal offence is based on these principles: the principle of reward, rehabilitation, universality, the personal effectiveness and ignoring of financial compensation. In the following of this scientific paper briefly will be discussed for each of these principles.

3.1 The principle of reward

In general reward is the assessment done to someone for a performed service or good behavior. 5 Observed in this regard, pardon shall be implied as an evaluation character institution through which are rewarded persons for the commission of criminal offences for their extraordinary behaviors and characters. As extraordinary behaviors even though the Law on Pardon does not specify it must be implied actions such: apology, repentance, willingness to compensate the caused damage etc. Whereas by the expression extraordinary characters shall be implied psychological and moral attributes such as: insistence, determination, strong will, sustainability etc. In these cases it is about actions and attributes referring to the accused person, respectively to the convicted person for commission of criminal offence. This principle is interfered also by the so-called extraordinary humanitarian concerns. Here it is about mainly for concerns relating to politically motivated prosecutions of individuals and particular ethnic groups which dedicate for more freedom and rights of communities they belong to. In all these situations reward consists in the complete or partial release of the convicted person from prosecution, the execution of punishment, protective measures, fines and any other punishments included in the judgment imposed by the court. Seen on this basis, it may be said freely that the principle of reward it affects in the engagement of convicted persons in work and other activities within penitentiary institutions which shall be in function of their rehabilitation.

3.2 The principle of rehabilitation

Observing in criminal-law general context the principle of rehabilitation enables to persons which are prosecuted or convicted unlawfully to return the rights they have lost based on these unlawful prosecutions. 6 In meantime observing in terms of pardon the principle of rehabilitation means the return of all civil rights to the persons against whom was awarded this important institution of criminal law. This is about his return to work, the return of social security rights, the right to be elected in public functions etc. These rights, duly, are returned immediately, respectively by the issuance of act stating pardon. In these cases the acts which have been served for the removal of such rights shall be abrogated.

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1 Salihu, Ismet, Criminal Law, Special Part, Pristina, 2012, pg. 568.
2 Law on Pardon, Law No. 03L-101, has been adopted in Assembly of the Republic of Kosovo on 12 December 2008.
3 In fact pardon cannot be granted for criminal offences against constitutional order and security of the Republic of Kosovo (Chapter XIV) and criminal offences against humanity and values protected by international law (Chapter XV).
5 The dictionary of today Albanian, Tirana, 2002, pg. 1278.
6 Hajdari, Azem, Criminal Procedure Law, General Part, Pristina, 2014, pg. 78.
3.3 The principle of universality

Pardon is an institution of universal character. It is considered such because it may be granted for all types of criminal sanctions and almost for all types of criminal offences. As it turns out pardon shall be granted for punishments of imprisonment, protective measures, fines and any other punishments imposed by the court. Also, excluding the criminal offences against constitutional order and security of the Republic of Kosovo and criminal offences against humanity and values protected by international law pardon shall be granted for any other type of criminal offence foreseen by the legislation in force. Consequently, this principle provides broad opportunities of pardon due to the fact that through this institution is enabled complete or partial pardon, meaning that gives a positive energy to the prisoners to behave and be fully subordinated to the re-socialization process.

3.4 The principle of personal effectiveness

Pardon has a personal effect. This means that through this institution shall not be violated the interests, respectively the rights of other persons determined by the same court decision which is affected by pardon. Therefore, “all persons damaged from the criminal offence, even in cases when pardon is granted have the right to seek for compensation of damage. Likewise when abolition is granted, even though is not imposed the punishment for criminal offence, the injured parties by a criminal offence have the right to seek for compensation of damage.”

3.5 The principle of ignoring financial compensation

Pardon does not prejudice in the innocence of accused or convicted persons. As such it does not manifest any possible effect in legality and fairness of proceeding and solving a criminal case. Through pardon, as abovementioned, a concrete person is released from the criminal prosecution, the execution of imprisonment punishment (even the long-term imprisonment), protective measures, fines and any other punishments included in the judgment of court. Observing in this regard, granting pardon does not provide any possibility to the pardoned person concerning the right to financial compensation. Therefore, the pardoned person has no right to request for a financial compensation for the time of its stay in prison or deprivation from liberty. The effect of this limitation is comprehensive and it manifests the scope concerning public institutions as well as private ones.

4. The Characteristics of Pardon

Pardon as a criminal-law institution has a long history. It is appeared in Roman Law, by continuing in The Middle Ages Law, until nowadays. As an institution pardon manifests these characteristics:

1. Pardon represents an appropriate tool for monitoring of political and social changes in criminal-law terms. As is known, contemporary society is in an intensive process of changing political and social circumstances, changes affecting that several criminal offences to lose that degree of social dangerousness they had in the moment of issuance of criminal law. "Due to this cause, the type and measure of earlier imposed punishment is considered to be very aggravating. Therefore, through pardon, without changing the judgment by which is imposed this punishment, the imposed punishment is mitigated or is entirely abolished."

2. Pardon affects to the convicted persons during the serving sentence to behave. Respectively, the fact itself through pardon the convicted persons are informed that shall be pardoned partially the punishment, this affect positively, it represents stimulation for them to behave in order to deserve this act of state mercy.

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7 In Kosovo were indicated cases when pardon is granted also for criminal offences for which according to the Law on Pardon it could not be granted. Thus, in 2011 a pardon is granted also to a person convicted for trafficking in persons, which was part in the chapter of criminal offences for which the Law on Pardon expressly prohibited the awarding of pardon. See: Kosovo Institute for Justice analyzes the implementation of pardon institution and conditional release, http://kli-ks.org/instituti-i-kosoves-per-drejtesi-analizon-zbatimin-e-institutit-te-faljes-dhe-lirimit-me-kusht/ Betim Musliu and Adem Gashi, Analysis, http://kli-ks.org/falja-ne-kosove-analize-e-zbatimit-te-institutit-te-faljes-dhe-lirimit-me-kusht-2/.

8 Abolition is the widest form of pardon. It has to deal with the pardon of person from criminal prosecution. By granting abolition the procedure cannot be commenced. If procedure is commenced, it stops. Abolition may be granted at all criminal proceedings phases until is not issued the final judgment.

9 Salihu, Ismet, op. cit, pg. 565.

10 Ibid. pg. 565.
3. Pardon represents an act that in certain cases is granted for human causes and for political and state particular interests. This institution is applied for human causes in cases when a person who commits a criminal offence has an extraordinary merit for liberation and country building. Whereas in cases when it comes to political and state interests pardon shall be granted if prosecution, the punishment or further punishment of a particular person violates seriously state authority or the relations of that state to the other state, or relations of that state with international organizations for instance: United Nations Organization, European Union, The Council of Europe etc.  

4. Pardon is an expression of political and state wisdom. It is so because by this institution it becomes possible the opportunity to consider legal, social and political circumstances which dictate and justify its application. Through pardon is not canceled the verdict. The verdict still remains lawful, but due to the causes abovementioned the pardon is granted.

5. Criteria for Granting Pardon

Like any other institution of criminal-law also pardon is based in criteria specified by law. Such criteria according to the article 5 of the Law on Pardon and the article 2 of the President decree for Criteria and Procedures for Pardon of Convicted Persons shall be considered: the gravity of crime, the risk of recidivism, the sincere repentance, the appearance of behavior and respected character, the influence of pardon to the injured persons, the time spent in serving the sentence, meeting the requirements of Correctional Service and humanitarian specific reasons for pardon. Solutions given in these provisions made clear the fact that the President in the occasion of awarding pardon shall be based also in other criteria, but they are required to be in compliance with the Constitution and Law in force. For some of such criteria will be discussed in the following of this scientific paper.

5.1 The gravity of crime

The gravity of crime is one of the main criteria that is required to be considered on the occasion of granting pardon. This due to the fact, that granting pardon without limitations regarding the gravity of criminal offence it may have a negative impact in the public opinion and in the President's authority itself. In functioning of this prohibition I consider that should be seen the solution given in article 4, paragraph 5 of the Law on Pardon. Pursuant to this provision the convicted person for criminal offences against the constitutional order and the security of the Republic of Kosovo (Chapter XIV) and criminal offences against humanity and values protected by international law (Chapter XV) has no right to request for pardon. Of course, it is desirable that for abovementioned goals and not only for them, on the occasion of regarding decision-making process of granting pardon the President shall be reserved by awarding this institution for the accused and punished persons also for a considerable number of criminal offences such as those linked with murders of blood feud, rape, organized crime, corruption etc.  

5.2 The risk of recidivism

On the occasion of awarding pardon shall be avoided situations from pardon to benefit persons that just started with the sentence and those indicating signs of possible repetition of criminal offences. Of course, shall be avoided strictly the situations of awarding pardon for persons who have committed more than one criminal offence. When this approach and the pardon criteria shall not be respected strictly, it may be appear the risk of recidivism, a situation that strikes in a substance the pardon mission as an institution rewarding good behaviors of the accused or punished persons and announces their functioning re-socialization.

5.3 The sincere repentance

The repentance represents the feeling of remorse expressed by the perpetrator for the committed criminal offence. This

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11 Ibid. pg. 565.
12 See the decree of the President No. DF-001-2012 for Criteria and Procedures for pardon of the convicted persons of 13 January 2012.
13 The experience of these years prove the fact of granting pardon also for persons punished regarding corruption, severe murders, including blooding feud murder, rapes etc.
feeling of remorse in order to be considered as fulfilled criteria, shall be given in the sincere manner, meaning directly, opened and without pretension. Even though the evaluation parameters of the sincere repentance shall be considered difficult to measure, I consider that in this regard, there are some issues facilitating the assessment. Such may be the apology to the injured party, willingness to compensate the damage etc.

5.4 The appearance of behavior and respected character

In order to award pardon it is required that the accused or convicted person to have manifested character and respected behavior. Here it seems to be about persons which throughout their entire life dealt with useful activities, effects of which could have been of personal character with benefits by a group of persons or with a broad socially basis. In fact, it is about persons dealing with humanitarian, cultural, educational activities etc. and which had committed the criminal offence by negligence (such as may be the case of commission the criminal offence of endangering public traffic) or in a situation of rage, in exceeding the limits of the necessary defense, extreme necessity etc.

5.5 The influence of pardon to the injured persons

In order to award pardon when it comes to criminal offences with the commission of which to particular persons is caused any damage (material, moral or as a lost profit), it is required to manifest a concrete effects to them. These effects, duly, shall be resulted with the benefit of the injured party from the compensation of caused damage, abandonment from the application for compensation of damage, its reconciliation with the perpetrator etc. Of course this represents measurable criteria, because it shall be based in undertaking concrete actions by the injured party, among other things abovementioned.

5.6 The time spent in serving the sentence

For granting pardon in the case of persons sentenced to imprisonment duly is required that the convicted person to serve a particular time in prison. Although the Law on Pardon nor the President decree for Criteria and Procedures of Pardon concerning Convicted Persons does not specify the time that convicted person shall spend in the penitentiary institution, I consider that time, excluding specific cases, should be matched at least with the half of duration of punishment of imprisonment imposed by the court. All this based in applications related to the re-socialization of those persons, the reaction of public opinion, maintaining the authority of court etc.

5.7 Fulfilling the requirements of the Correctional Service

By legislation in force to Probation Service are granted a numerous of responsibilities concerning the convicted persons. These responsibilities, although multidimensional, they mostly have to deal with monitoring and assistance to the convicted persons during the time of serving alternative punishments. In fact, the Probation Service is obliged to monitor the fulfillment of obligations of persons punished by suspended sentence, to those imposed semi-liberty or is issued an order for community service work. Also, the Probation Service has the authority to determine specific applications for persons punished by alternative punishments. Therefore, it is considered to be fulfilled this criteria when the relations of this service prove for fulfillment of all particular applications by the court and personnel of this service. Therefore, eventual defects that shall be expressed in fulfillment of specified applications should be serious obstacles for approval of filed application for pardon.

5.8 Humanitarian specific reasons for pardon

As a special criteria which may effect in awarding pardon is the one related to the existence of humanitarian specific reasons. Such reasons, in most of the cases, shall be referred to the cases when the criminal offence is committed by a person who has extraordinary merit for liberation and building country. It is about for persons who have made their name in liberation war, have served many years imprisonment due to their patriotic activities etc. Of course, even in a concrete case it is discussed about measurable criteria due to the fact that cases of such persons are well known for public opinion.

6. Procedure for Pardon

Concerning pardon the Law on Pardon and the President Decree for Criteria and Procedures of Pardon concerning Convicted Persons foresee special procedure rules. According to these rules in order to proceed the question of pardon it is required the submission of application for pardon. After submission, the application in question is a subject to detailed review in order to verify the question of meeting the criteria for pardon. And then this is followed by a decision-making process concerning the application in question.

6.1 The submission for application

The application for pardon is submitted in writing. It is addressed to the President and submitted directly to the Office of the Presidency or through Correctional Service in cases when the convicted person is serving the sentence. The application in question, duly, is submitted by the convicted person. Such application on behalf of the convicted person may be submitted also by the spouse, child, brother, sister or any other person authorized from the convicted person. The application for pardon shall be contain a brief description of the case, the statement of facts, circumstances and reasons supporting the application for pardon any other information deemed to be necessary. The application shall be withdrawn at any time by its applicant.

6.2 Reviewing the application

The reviewing of application is made by the Commission on Reviewing and Evaluating of Applications on Pardon. 15 This Commission which is of ad-hoc character is formed by the President. When it is considered necessary for reviewing the application, based on the recommendations of the Commission the President requires from the Ministry of Justice to provide the relevant documents in which shall be reflected personal data of the convicted person, the copy of court final judgment or its verdict, data on work and education of the convicted person, data on family situation (the number of minor children, the obligation for maintenance etc.), data on the execution of punishment (the place of execution of punishment, timelines for starting the sentence), including data on conditional release, data on reduction or change the punishment (by extraordinary mitigation of sentence or pardon etc.), data if it is submitted and implemented the application for extraordinary mitigation of sentence, data on previous sentences (the type of criminal offence, the type and height of punishment including serving the sentence), data on compensation of damage caused by criminal offence, data on professional evaluation concerning personal attributes of the convicted person including evaluation for recidivism expectations and the effect of punishment to the convicted person and data on behavior of the convicted person during the time he is serving the sentence.

Duly, the Commission is convened in a special meeting in order to specify the agenda on reviewing applications for pardon. After reviewing the submitted applications the Commission drafts a report in writing regarding their reviewing and submits to the President a justified proposal for each of the reviewed applications.

6.3 Decision-making regarding the application

After receiving the report and justified proposal of the Commission on Reviewing and Evaluating of Applications on Pardon the President undertakes the relevant decision-making actions. When the President grants pardon, he does this with a special decree which is published in the Official Gazette of the Republic of Kosovo. For granting pardon is notified the person who made the application, the person who is pardoned and the Ministry of Justice. Such persons shall be notified even in cases when the application for pardon is refused. According to Kosovo Institute for Justice during the period of time 2002-2012 were filed 2885 applications for pardon. From them were approved 885 applications. According to these data were indicated cases of granting pardon by Kosovo Presidents even for applications for which the Commission on Reviewing and Evaluating of Applications on Pardon had recommended their refusal.

15 This commission consists of at least five members. The members of this commission shall be elected by the Office of the President (Legal Department), the academic community in the field of justice, social society and judiciary. Composition and work of this commission is confidential.
7. Conclusion

During the preparation of this scientific paper I have come to these conclusions:

Pardon is an institution of criminal law which is issued by the President in the form of a decision by which specifically designated persons listed by name are granted exemption from complete or partial exemption from the execution of a punishment, the substitution of punishment with a less severe punishment or a suspended sentence or the expunging of punishment.

Pardon is based on the principle of reward, rehabilitation, universality, the personal effectiveness and ignoring of financial compensation.

Pardon represents an appropriate tool for monitoring of political and social changes in criminal-law terms. Pardon affects to the convicted persons during the serving sentence to behave. Pardon represents an act that in certain cases is granted for human causes and for political and state particular interests and it is an expression of state and political wisdom.

Criteria at which pardon is based are: the gravity of crime, the risk of recidivism, the sincere repentance, the appearance of behavior and respected character, the influence of pardon to the injured persons, the time spent in serving the sentence, meeting the requirements of Correctional Service and humanitarian specific reasons for pardon.

Concerning pardon the Law on Pardon and the President decree for Criteria and Procedures of Pardon for Convicted Persons foresee special procedure rules. According to these rules in order to proceed the question of pardon it is required the submission of application for pardon. After submission, the application in question is a subject to detailed review in order to verify the question of meeting the criteria for pardon.

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How Many Children Would You Like to Have? Exploring Romanian Fertility Decline

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Abstract

Since the early 1990s, Romania has experienced population decline. Moreover, the pace of this decline is similar with other Central and Eastern European countries, former members of the Soviet bloc or the former Yugoslavia, and sharper than in Western Europe. Besides migration, of more concern over the long term is the drop in the birth rate. According to data from two nation-wide surveys from late autumn 2014, a plurality of adult Romanians (44%) has fewer children than they would like to have. A similar share of the population (42%) has as many children as they would like to have, while a small minority (14%) has more children than they would like to have. Furthermore, in the less than 36 years of age category, a majority of 63% declared that they have fewer children than they would like to. This paper explores the issue of low births at individual level to see if there is a relationship between several variables (age, gender, urban/rural residence, ethnic group, subjective well-being, education, marital status, use of Internet) and whether and individual has fewer, as many or more children than he or she would like to. The analysis was performed on a consolidated dataset of 2,131 adults, obtained by merging the datasets of two nationwide surveys, which used the same questions and the same sampling techniques.

Keywords: Romania, population decline, births, fertility, children.

1. Introduction

For a generation, Europe has experienced demographic decline. The phenomenon raises major economic, social and political issues for the future. While in Western Europe immigration damped the effect of low fertility, most of the countries in Central and Eastern Europe saw their population fall due to a combination of higher mortality, low fertility and emigration.

This paper looks into the fertility decline experienced by Romania in the past quarter century. Following a brief overview of the main theories and explanations for demographic decline, we analyze macro level data covering fertility and population indicators trends in Europe for the past 50 years. In the second stage, we use individual level, nationwide, representative sample data to compare the desired and actual number of children for adult Romanians. Furthermore, we explore the relationship between several variables (age, gender, urban/rural residence, ethnic group, subjective wellbeing, education, marital status, use of Internet) and whether and individual has fewer, as many or more children than he or she would like to.

2. Method

The methodology relies on secondary analysis. At macro level, we use population data regarding fertility rates and other population indicators for European countries covering the interval 1960-2012. At individual level, we use sample data from a consolidated dataset of 2,131 adults, obtained by merging the datasets of two nationwide surveys, representative for the adult population of Romania. The data was collected during October 3-8, 2014 (sample size 1,212) and October 21-24, 2014 (sample size 919) by the CCSCC polling company for the Liberal Institute “Brătianu”, using the same questions and sample techniques. The surveys were based on a probabilistic tri-stadial stratified sample using the computer assisted telephone survey technique. Phone numbers included both mobile and fixed telephony. The margin of error for the consolidated dataset is +/- 2.12 at the 95 per cent level of confidence and +/- 2.77 at the 99 per cent level of confidence. All the variables included in the individual-level analysis are categorical (marital status, age category, level of education, Internet usage, subjective wellbeing, gender). The choice of statistical tests derives from the available variables and their type. The available variables cover social-demographical and economic variables, but do not include cultural or ideational variables. Another missing variable is ethnicity. Although it is present in the dataset, a common issue in Romanian surveys is the under-representation of the Roma/Gipsy population. The reason is that some Roma/Gipsy
respondents self-report themselves as Romanians. As a result, the Roma/Gipsy group covers 0.8 per cent of the sample, compared to 3.3 per cent (620,000) at the 2012 census and an estimate of 1.5 million by the Research Institute for Quality of Life in 2002 (Zamfir & Preda, 2002, 13). No variable in the dataset covers religious affiliation or behaviour. This situation prevents the use of factor analysis or loglinear analysis, which would result in an incomplete model. We therefore opted for the use of the chi-square test for each of the abovementioned variables and a categorical variable regarding the desired versus actual number of children.

3. Theories and Explanations for Demographic Decline

In the second quarter of the 20th century, demographers noticed a change in the pattern of population growth across nations and continents. Warren Thompson (1929) introduced a classification of countries in three major types by rate of population growth, according to different combinations of birth and death rates. The first group of countries included the most developed countries of that era, Western Europe and the United States. These countries experienced a rapid decrease in population growth due to low mortality and low fertility. Moreover, the pace of the decline in fertility was so fast that it allowed for a potential population decline in the future. In the second group of countries, both death rates and birth rates were in decline, but mortality was much lower and had fallen much earlier that fertility. Although declining, birth rates were, in relative terms, still high and allowed for a rapid population growth, with rates far higher than compared with the first group. Thompson estimated that declining birth rates would eventually move these countries, mostly from Eastern and Southern Europe, into the first group. Finally, the great majority (70-75%) of the world’s population at that time, living in less developed countries and the colonies, featured high fertility and high mortality.

Close to the end of the Second World War, Notenstein (1944) presented the classic formulation of the demographic transition theory. In its most basic form, it states that all societies experience a transition from a pre-modern pattern of high mortality and high fertility to a post-modern one with low mortality and low fertility. At the core of this transition are socio-economic factors, especially modernity’s twin processes of industrialisation and urbanisation that led to changes in the way of life, values and norms. According to Notenstein (1953, 13-31), “The new ideal of the small family arose typically in the urban industrial society. It is impossible to be precise about the various causal factors, but apparently many were important. (…) As a consequence, the cost of child-rearing grew and the possibilities for economic contributions by children declined. Falling death rates at once increased the size of the family to be supported and lowered the inducements to have many births.”

The demographic transition theory has been debated, the main points of critique being its accuracy and the issue of its development as a generalization. Overall, the historical record of the transition’s occurrence represents its strong point. On the other hand, the weak spot comes from the less than successful forecasts regarding the threshold and pace of fertility decline (Kirk, 1996, 365). As noted by Coale (1973, 65), the problem accurate forecasting arises because there are more conditions involved in triggering the decline of marital fertility, summed up as the following:

1. Fertility must be within the calculus of conscious choice;
2. Reduced fertility must be (perceived) as advantageous;
3. Effective techniques of fertility reduction must be available.

The causes and conditions of demographic transition are highly relevant for understanding the decline in fertility. For the sake of space, this section presents a very brief overview of this issue.

The decline in mortality is part of the demographic transition and always precedes any decline in fertility. While providing an explanation for the decline in fertility has proven to be a difficult endeavour, the reduction of mortality could be more easily tracked to three processes in Western Europe in the 19th and 20th centuries. First, the development of the modern state fostered public order, investment in sanitation (the Sanitary Movement), famine relief, education and medicine. Secondly, a revolution in medicine around the turn from the 19th to the 20th century allowed the development of medicine and treatments that resulted in a sharp decrease in child mortality, later infant mortality and longer life expectancy. Third, this was followed in the mid-20th century by another wave of innovation in medicine with the discovery of antibiotics and the establishment of universal healthcare systems and/or national vaccination programs. The cumulative effect was the all but eradication of infectious diseases, and their replacement as the main source of deaths by chronic diseases (Schofield, et al., 1991). In itself, mortality decline is seen more as a condition that the main cause of fertility decline. Research on a direct, close relationship failed to deliver conclusive results, and may even be impossible. Psychological effects are cited as possible results. With longer life spans, humans feel more in control of their own destiny and environment. The worldview of industrial and post-industrial individuals is less fatalistic and passive (Kirk, 1996, 368-369).

Economists have weighed in the debate about the factors of fertility decline, with an approach founded in micro-
economics and the view of individuals as rational actors (Becker, 1981). The main idea is that in the modern world the economics of childbearing make it economically disadvantageous to have children. A more sophisticated framework put forward by economist Richard Easterlin (1975) featured three determinants: ‘demand’, the desired number of children, ‘supply’, the cultural elements related to natural fertility, and ‘cost’, monetary, time and psychological constraints of having children.

John Calwell’s (1976) wealth flow theory of fertility decline provides an interesting explanation for the change from a pre-industrial high fertility regime to a post-industrial low fertility one. Developed from anthropological field studies in Africa, the theory asserts that in pre-modern societies, wealth in the family flows from the children or the younger members to the parents or elders. To this effect, children are akin to insurance for old age and a source of free labour for the household. In modern families, the reverse takes place. Parents invest substantially in the education and future of their offspring. In both cases, there is economically rational behaviour.

A stronger emphasis on cultural and ideational causes was put forward by Ron Lestaeghe (1983). Differences in fertility across societies and the pace of fertility decline are linked to the degree of secularism, materialism and individualism. Changes in the ideological sphere bring about different needs, including the consumption of luxury goods, less intense religious believes and practices, and a strong orientation towards self-fulfilment.

The role of the state is another factor. In addition to the support for public order, public sanitation and the provision of health care, abovementioned, the modern welfare state has enforced laws that prevent the use of child labour and exploitation. In addition, a traditional goals of labour policy include increased the female labour market participation and equal pay. Compulsory education and a broader education policy aiming for more years in the education system have increased the cost of having children in the household. Poverty reduction through education also results in decreased fertility (Sen, 2000). Highly relevant is population policy. In the third quarter of the 20th century, some developing countries aimed to reduce population growth through family planning. China is the best known example. Another less known example is Iran, which after a pro population growth policy in the 1980s has successfully changed course and reduced fertility through an extensive family planning policy (Brown, 2008, 136-140).

The diffusion theory offers an explanation for why the change in the reproductive behaviour of individuals in a given society is much faster than changes in the economic sphere. Mass communication makes the spread of ideas and practices incomparably faster than in pre-modern societies, and the same is applies to fertility control and family planning. Diffusion also covers the spread of contraceptive technology. The effect of the pill in fertility decline in the 1960s and 1970s in Western Europe is a prime example (Murphy, 1993). The social nature of individual decisions is stressed by Carlson (1966, 165): “Birth control behaviour is contagious and the fertility behaviour of a population is not the simple aggregate of isolated individual decisions, but the end product of complex social interactions.” Fertility decline is the result of social networking that spreads and legitimizes birth control. The decision is at the same time a group decision and an individual decision (Cleland & Wilson, 1987). However, the development of a whole theory on the role diffusion is debated. McNichol (1992, 406) sees it as “a description in search of theory”.

After reviewing the search for causality in the demographic transition, Dudley Kirk (1996, 379-380) put forward four conclusions:

1) Mortality decline is a prime factor, which destabilized the old pattern of high mortality and high fertility;
2) All causes are closely linked and part of the wider process of modernization; each cause emphasizes different element of this process;
3) Once started in Western Europe Fertility, transition spread rapidly and independent of the socio-economic level;
4) The causal factors could be groups in economic and social, on one hand, and cultural and ideational, on the other hand; American tend to favour the former, Europeans the latter; socio-economic factors receive perhaps undeserved dominance due to being easier to measure and hence regarded as more ‘scientific’.

Oppenheim Mason (1997) identified four errors in the thinking about demographic transition that stand in the way of a better thinking on the issues:

1) The assumption that transitions in all societies have the same cause: in fact, there are different combinations of causes and conditions;
2) Ignoring mortality decline as a precondition for fertility decline;
3) The assumption that the regulation of fertility is different in pre-transitional and post-transitional societies;
4) Focusing on a decadal time scale.
4. Population Decline in Europe and Romania

In this section we will explore the issue of population decline in Romania at macro level, in a regional and European context. For the past 50 years the world fertility rate has experienced a major decline from slightly above 5 to just below 2.5 (see Figure 1). The most developed areas in the world during this period, North America and Europe, featured the lowest fertility rate. Within Europe, the dynamic, but not the pace, of fertility decline has followed the initial forecast made by Notenstein (1944), with the rest of the continent following the trend set by the more developed states in Western Europe. Indeed, fertility rates in the rest of Europe - the former Soviet Union and the former members of the Soviet bloc - were higher than in Western Europe, while mirroring the overall trend of decline. The states of the former Yugoslavia had lower fertility rates than Western Europe up to the early 1970s, but higher afterwards. The gap between Western Europe and the rest of the continent is also observable if we look at the last year with a total fertility rate above the replacement level (see table 1). The maximum gap is of 16 years, between Western Europe (1976) and the former Soviet Union (1992).

This pattern was changed in the 1990s. After the collapse of Communism, first with the disintegration of the Soviet bloc during the revolutionary year of 1989, followed by the dissolution of the Soviet Union in 1991, and the breakup of Yugoslavia in the 1990s, Central and Eastern Europe experienced a population decline, caused by higher mortality (compared to the previous decades), lower fertility, and emigration. Overall, between 1989 and 2012, these 21 states lost 5.5 percent of their population total. Moreover, two thirds experienced population decline. Out of these, nine states saw their population reduced by 11 percent or more. With a 14 percent decline in total population, Romania ranks 15th out of 21, and second, behind Bulgaria, out of former Soviet bloc members (see table 2). The causes of this sharp decline, highly unusual in times of peace and without the occurrence of a pandemic, has been debated by social scientist. The shock therapy strategy of the transition from a Soviet-style economy to a capitalist one in the early 1990s, which featured mass privatisation, high unemployment, lower living standards, explosion of poverty and increased social and economic inequality, was identified as a crucial determinant in adult mortality dynamics in post-communist countries in a seminal article authored by Stuckler, King and McKee (2009). In the case of Romania, the transition strategy was critically analyzed by Zamfir (2004).

In the 21st century, policy makers in Europe face the problem of population decline and the associated long term effects on the economy and society. Population or family support policy – with the goal to raise fertility rates - is a topic of public and academic debate (Gauthier, 2007; Heran, 2013; Luci-Greulich & Thevenon, 2013). Recent studies focused on Europe’s demographic challenge (Grant, et al., 2004; Hoorens, et al., 2011) found that while immigration in the EU would not prevent aging and its consequences, governments could slow down, but not reverse the population decline by policies aimed at raising fertility. However, such policies have limitations: they are not universal, but context-dependent, take time and deliver change slowly, and no single policy could be recommended.

2015 marks a quarter of a century of demographic decline in Romania. 1989 was the last year with population growth, but also the last year with a fertility rate above replacement level. The dynamic of Romania’s birth rate features several peculiarities. In the early 1960s, the country experienced a serious reduction of births. In fact, in 1964 the fertility rate dropped below the replacement level. In 1966, the authorities at the time, at the personal initiative of the Communist Party general secretary, took the decision to limit abortion to serious medical situations. As a result, fertility jumped to 3.6 the following year (see figure 1). Over a 20-year period, this surge of fertility would result in a population increase of almost 40% (from 16.6 million in the 1960s to 23.2 million in 1989), putting a severe strain on the dependency rate, education, healthcare, and social services. However, the population adapted and controlled fertility through different means, in spite of the official government pro-natalist policy (Zamfir, 1999). In spite of the official ban on abortion and the unavailability of the pill, fertility was controlled, gradually returning close to the average of the Soviet bloc. After the 1989 Revolution, the difficult socio-economic context of the transition and the abandonment of the pro-natalist policies of the old regime (abortion was liberalized) led to a severe drop in the number of births, with a fertility rate of around 1.3-1.4, well below the replacement level. The main features of fertility in Romania in the subsequent decades since 1990 are: an increase of the age of the mother at the first birth, from the 20-24 category to the 25-29 age group, which also replaced the former as the one with the highest share of births; persistent high prevalence of abortion compared to other European countries, despite a decline from the high water mark of 1990 (close to 1,000,000 registered abortions); pre-modern pattern of extra marital births (young women from deprived areas, with low or no education); a breakdown in occupational status of the mother into two major groups: employed, 48% per cent, and not employed, 44% per cent (Rotaru, 2010; Rotariu & Voineagu, 2012). In the 2010s, Romanian fertility rates are below, but close to the European average, which is still far below the replacement level (see figure 2). Furthermore, it is very similar to other European countries in the same region and/or with a similar level of development. The complexity of Europe’s fertility problem is observable in the low...
correlation between GDP/per capita and the fertility rate (0.2 for 2012 data, see figure 2). At the present fertility rate, and with no changes due to increased emigration, Romania’s population is forecasted to decrease by 1 million inhabitants per decade, reaching 17 million in the 2030s and less than 15 million by 2050 (Ghețău, 2012). In comparison, the population total stood at 23.2 million in 1989.

5. Data and Variables

The available dataset allowed for an analysis of the difference between two continuous variables regarding the desired and the actual number of children. The key question regarding the former was drafted as follows: “how many children would you like to have or would have liked to have?” (The past tense phrasing took into consideration the part of the population no longer able to have children due to biological reasons). The overall result is interesting, considering the low fertility rate in Romania (see table 3). 27.6 per cent of respondents declared that they have no children, but only 8.7 per cent stated they would not like to have children. While the share of respondents that would like to have a single child is quasi similar, the share of respondents that would like to have three or more children is higher than the share of respondents that declared they have three or more children. In addition, the mean for the former variable is 2.05, while for the latter is 1.46.

By using the difference between these two continuous variables we computed another variable that accounts for the difference between the desired and actual number of children. In a further stage, we recoded this variable into another, categorical variable. A frequency analysis of this variable showed that a plurality of adult Romanians in the sample (44 per cent) have fewer children that they would like to have; a similar share (42 per cent) have as many children as they would like to have, while a small minority (14 per cent) have more children than they would like to have. The relationship between this variable and the following socio-demographical variables was analysed using the chi-square test:

- gender
- age category, with four age groups: 18-35, 36-49, 50-64, 65 and older
- urban/rural residence
- subjective wellbeing, used as alternative for income (estimation of household total income compared to needs), with the following categories: we have everything we need, without great effort; we are able to buy more expansive goods, but with some effort; we have enough for decent living, but we can not afford more expensive goods; we have enough for basic needs, we do not have enough even for basic needs
- education: primary school or no education, general school (lower secondary education), vocational school (upper secondary), high school, post-secondary and non-tertiary school/college, higher education
- marital status: unmarried, married, divorced, separated, widow
- Internet usage: yes or no.

6. Results

There was a significant association between whether a person has fewer, more or as many children as he or she would like to have and the following (in descending value of the test statistic): marital status ($\chi^2(8) = 228.44, p < 0.001$), age category ($\chi^2(6) = 150.29, p < 0.001$), education ($\chi^2(10) = 82.75, p < 0.001$), Internet usage ($\chi^2(2) = 51.15, p < 0.001$), urban/rural residence ($\chi^2(2) = 33.40, p < 0.001$), and subjective wellbeing ($\chi^2(8) = 25.68, p < 0.001$). There was no significant association with gender (see table 4).

The results for marital status are in line with the marital predominance of Romanian fertility. 73.9 per cent of unmarried respondents (adjusted standardized 13.8) have fewer children than they would like to. The other way around, 26.7 per cent of widows and widowers respondents have more children than they would like to (adjusted standardized 4.8).

The age category features similarities with marital status. In the 35 years of age and less group, 62.3 per cent have fewer children than they would like to (adjusted standardized 11.3). At the opposite end, 19.9 per cent of those aged 65 and older say they have more children than they would like to (adjusted standardized 3.5).

In terms of education, a majority of respondents with higher education (57.1 per cent, adjusted standardized 6.3) declared they have fewer children than they would like to. In comparison, 24.4 per cent of respondents graduates of general school (adjusted standardized 4.8) and 21.4 per cent of respondents in the primary school or with no education category stated they have more children they would like to.
Almost two thirds (64.8 per cent, adjusted standardized 5.5) of Internet users (57.6 per cent of the sample) have fewer children than they would like to, while 20.2 per cent of people that do not use the Internet have more children than they would like to.

7. Discussion

Since 1990, for over a quarter of a century, Romania has experienced population decline. The trend is similar with other countries from Central and Eastern Europe. In a quarter of a century, Romania lost 14 per cent of its population. The country ranks second to Bulgaria among former Soviet bloc members and 15th out of 21 states that are former members of the Soviet Union, Soviet bloc or Yugoslavia. After shadowing the declining fertility trend of Western Europe, but with higher fertility rates up to the 1990s, Central and Eastern European countries entered a new stage in their demographic transition, with fertility rates below Western Europe. In addition to higher mortality, Central and Eastern European countries, including Romania, face population decline or stagnation due to emigration to Western Europe.

This paper also explored the issue of low births in Romania at individual level by using sample data. The analysis had its limitations in the fact that too few variables were available, especially covering cultural and ideational factors. The main findings point to a potential for increased fertility. In other words, there is a low birth rate in Romania despite Romanians wanting more children. The mean of desired children in the sample is 2.05, compared to a mean of 1.46 for actual children. A plurality of adult respondents in the sample (44 per cent) has fewer children that they would like to have. A comparable share (42 per cent) has as many children as they would like to have. Finally, a small minority (14 per cent) has more children than they would like to have. Moreover, the majority of those with fewer children than they would like to have are from the aged up to 35, unmarried, more urbane, with higher subjective wellbeing, Internet using strata. Further research, especially qualitative, should provide a wider understanding of the reasons underpinning these results.

8. Tables and Figures

Table 1. Critical years for the total fertility rate in Central and Eastern Europe

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>EU-15</th>
<th>last year above replacement level</th>
<th>year with lowest TFR</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1976</td>
<td>1998</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>former Yugoslavia</td>
<td>1984</td>
<td>2006</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AC 8+1</td>
<td>1988</td>
<td>2002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Romania</td>
<td>1989</td>
<td>2001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>former Soviet Union</td>
<td>1992</td>
<td>2001</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: The World Bank

Note: AC 8+1 includes 8 former Soviet bloc and former Yugoslavia states that acceded European Union in 2004, plus Bulgaria

Table 2. Population dynamics in European states, former members of the Soviet bloc, Soviet Union or Yugoslavia

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Former part of…</th>
<th>Country</th>
<th>1989 population Millions</th>
<th>2012 population Millions</th>
<th>Difference Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>USSR</td>
<td>Azerbaijan</td>
<td>7.2</td>
<td>9.4</td>
<td>31.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>YUG</td>
<td>FYR Macedonia</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>4.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>YUG</td>
<td>Slovenia</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>3.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Soviet bloc</td>
<td>Slovakia</td>
<td>5.3</td>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>2.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Soviet bloc</td>
<td>Czech Rep.</td>
<td>10.3</td>
<td>10.5</td>
<td>1.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>YUG</td>
<td>Montenegro</td>
<td>0.6</td>
<td>0.6</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Soviet bloc</td>
<td>Poland</td>
<td>38.1</td>
<td>38.5</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USSR</td>
<td>Russia</td>
<td>148.3</td>
<td>143.5</td>
<td>-3.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Soviet bloc</td>
<td>Hungary</td>
<td>10.4</td>
<td>9.9</td>
<td>-4.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>YUG</td>
<td>Serbia</td>
<td>7.6</td>
<td>7.2</td>
<td>-5.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USSR</td>
<td>Georgia</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>-6.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USSR</td>
<td>Belarus</td>
<td>10.2</td>
<td>9.5</td>
<td>-7.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>YUG</td>
<td>Croatia</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>-11.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 3. Breakdown of the sample by the respondent’s desired and actual number of children

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of children</th>
<th>Desired</th>
<th>Actual</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>8.7 %</td>
<td>27.6 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>24.8 %</td>
<td>25.4 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>37.2 %</td>
<td>29.2 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>16.9 %</td>
<td>12.4 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 and more</td>
<td>12.4 %</td>
<td>5.4 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>2.05</td>
<td>1.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Median</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Std. Deviation</td>
<td>1.26</td>
<td>1.28</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Survey database

Table 4. Chi-Square tests output

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>N of valid cases</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Pearson Chi-Square</th>
<th>Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Marital status</td>
<td>2,063</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>228.440</td>
<td>0.000*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>2,063</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>150.286</td>
<td>0.000*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>2,062</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>82.747</td>
<td>0.000*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internet usage</td>
<td>2,049</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>51.145</td>
<td>0.000*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urban/rural residence</td>
<td>2,063</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>33.396</td>
<td>0.000*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subjective wellbeing</td>
<td>2,025</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>25.682</td>
<td>0.001*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>2,063</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.981</td>
<td>0.137</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p < 0.001

Source: survey database

Figure 1. Total Fertility Rate post 1960
Source: The World Bank
Figure 2. Total Fertility Rate and GDP per capita (PPS) in Europe in 2012
Source: The World Bank

9. Acknowledgement

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References


The Firm-Specific Determinants of the Target Capital Structure: Evidence from Bosnia and Herzegovina Panel Data

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Abstract

The purpose of this study is to carry out a comprehensive and robust analysis of the determinants of the capital structure of the Federation Bosnia and Herzegovina (FBiH) companies at the industry level. A large number of hypotheses of different classes of theories are tested. Estimating the dynamic panel models using the system of generalized method of moments (GMM) estimator, we captured both cross-sectional and inter-temporal relationships between the leverage in companies and its determinants. The results show that profitability, collateral value of the assets and the risk, measured by earnings volatility, negatively affect company's leverage, while inconsistent results were for the relationship between different proxies for firm's future growth opportunities and leverage, whereby the firm size overall has no relationship with the firm's leverage. The findings reflect the transitional nature of the FBiH corporate environment. They suggest that some of the insights from modern finance theory of capital structure are applicable in the FBiH in that certain firm-specific factors that are relevant for explaining capital structure in developed economies are also relevant in the FBiH. Overall, the empirical evidence presented in this Study finds it difficult to demonstrate the validity of the trade-off and the pecking order theories as stand-alone models. The Study's results also point at several unique aspects of financing behavior in developing countries, from which specific implications for further research follow.

Keywords: capital structure, transition economy, pecking order theory, trade-off theory

1. Introduction

Determinants are variables successfully used as leverage predictors. A large number of factors have been identified in the extent literature that influence the financing decisions of companies based on financial theories of capital structure. However, there is no consensus in the literature whether such theories adequately explain the capital structure adopted by firms in the context of developing economies. Therefore, this chapter empirically investigates the effects of firm-specific determinants on firms’ capital structure. Of course, for a number of reasons, we would expect the capital structure to vary considerably across industries and moreover, for the capital structure to vary among firms within a given industry. In an attempt to clarify those variations, the academics and practitioners have developed a number of theories and the theories have been subjected to many empirical tests.

This Study is an attempt to give a comprehensive and robust analysis of the determinants of the capital structure of FBiH firms at the industry level to reveal the differences between the industries in the capital structure during the period of ten years including the economic up- and down turns. The empirical analysis focused on 10 years (2003-2012) of the data on a sample of private non financial companies in order to test the relationship between the capital structure and the leverage determinants, combining all variables affecting the determination of the capital structure. The explanatory variables included in the model vary across both firms and time and in our empirical investigation we use two capital structure measures.

This Study will answer the question as to which factors determine the capital structure of FBiH companies and whether existing financial theories of capital structure hold true in that context. The determinants of the capital structure decisions should guide companies on how to choose their strategic financing mix. In other words, this research results may draw the attention on those factors, which are worth considering if the corporate structure is determined. Those
findings will certainly advance our understanding of a firm’s financing behavior.

Such a study would contribute to the current references in several ways. Firstly, as far as we are aware, it is the first attempt at a direct testing of the affect of company variables on the capital structure decisions in the companies in the FBiH. Secondly, despite the fact that there is evidence that features of an industry do matter in the capital structure decisions of companies, we are yet to find a study that examines variations across industries in the capital structure decisions in the companies in FBiH. To our knowledge, there is no empirical work that focuses on inter-industry variation in the financing decision of firms in FBiH. As in other developing countries, FBiH government sometimes institute policy interventions to foster investment in certain sectors/industries by way of subsidies and directed credit. Understanding the place of the industry factor in the financing decisions of a firm is crucial for the purpose of crafting appropriate policy interventions. In the context of FBiH, there is no published work that investigates the dynamic partial adjustment of a firm’s capital structure. This chapter aims to fill this gap by investigating whether firms in our sample adjust their capital structures to a certain target level.

The remainder of this chapter proceeds as follows. The next section lays out the firm-level determinants of capital structure. Section 3 provides explains the construction of variables, with the specification of the hypothesis presents the research methodology and models and discusses the empirical models. Section 4 reports the statistical analysis and empirical results. The findings and conclusions are presented in the last section.

2. Empirical Literature Review

The firm’s capital structure can be determined through several factors. Those observable elements for leverage should be linked to the theories on the capital structure since they are the assumed proxy for the forces that underpin theories, such as the financial distress and information asymmetry costs. However, the relationship is not always clear, and hence it is important to resolve the elements that are reliable and economically important in order to predict the leverage. Some of the attributes which affect the choice of capital structure are the same for firms within the same industry. However, the effects of some of these attributes, for example, type of output market and type of products, are not testable because these attributes themselves are not easily measurable. Therefore, in the table below the existing theoretical framework are set out to explain the determinants of the capital structure.

Table 1. Summary of the Capital Structure Theories Predictions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Static trade-off theory</th>
<th>Asymmetric information theory</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>TBT</td>
<td>Agency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Firm Size</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Profitability</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Growth opportunity</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Asset tangibility</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Tax shield</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Risk</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Dividend policy</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Uniqueness of product</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Managerial equity ownership</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: H. Asgharian, Essays on capital structure, 1997, p.41

Note: The table shows the expected effects of different attributes on capital structure, as implied by the capital structure theories. TBT refers to the tax-bankruptcy static trade off theory. POT denotes the pecking order theory. ST refers to the signalling theory. The + (-) sign shows the expected positive (negative) relationship between the leverage and the designated variable. The (+/-) sign signifies the possibility that plausible arguments could be made for a positive as a negative relationship using a given theory. * The profitability has a positive sign for Static trade of theory, whether the Dynamic one foresees the negative sign.

Fifty years after Modigliani and Miller’s (1958) made their ground-breaking analysis, there is yet no unifying theory on the capital structure for the corporate finance. Despite this, the applicable theories serve as analytical tools in order to probe the empirical findings. However, none are capable of explaining all the aspects in the capital structure choice. Even though some of the stylized facts can be successfully accounted for in each theory, there are incongruities with some of
the others. The current reference materials say that the most reliable elements explaining the corporate leverage are the market-to-book ratio (–), tangibility (+), profitability (–), company size (+), expected inflation (+), and median industry leverage (+ effect on leverage). Frank and Goyal (2009) refer to these factors as the “core leverage factors” affecting the decisions on the capital structure. On the sample of publicly traded U.S. firms from 1950-2003, they examined an extensive list of elements which could arguably reason why there is heterogeneity between capital structures across companies. With a market-based definition of leverage, they found out that those six factor account for more than 27% of the variation in leverage, while another 19 factors improve the explanatory power of the model by only 2%. Furthermore, those six core factors provide a more powerful explanation of a market-based definition of leverage than a book-based definition of leverage. According to the authors if focus would be on a book-based definition of leverage, the market-to-book ratio, firm size and expected inflation would have all have been excluded from the core model (Bessler, et.al, 2011).

The table below provides the summary of selected empirical findings regarding the relationship between chosen firm-specific characteristics and leverage.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 2. Summary of Empirical Evidence from Selected Empirical Studies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Study</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bradly et.al (1984)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kim and Sorensen (1986)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kester (1986)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Friend and Lang (1988)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rajan and Zingales (1995)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asgharian (1997)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Titman and Wessels (1998)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shyam-Sunder and Myers (1999)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fan, Titman and Twite (2003)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flannery and Rangan (2006)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Antoniou et.al (2008)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Talberg et. al (2008)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clark et al. (2009)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chang et al. (2009)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frank and Goyal (2009)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The + (-) sign indicates a significant positive (negative) relationship between leverage ratio and the capital structure determinant. The * designates an included but insignificant variable in the model. Empty cells mean that there was no testing of the variable.

Another important remark to be done is those ”six core factors” together only explain about 25% of the total variation. Additionally a recent paper of Lemmon, Roberts and Zender, (2008) argues that determinants of traditional leverage explain a minor part of the leverage variation (30% at most), while 60% is yet to be explained. The foregoing variation stemming from an unobserved firm-specific, time-invariant component responsible for the persistence of leverage ratios over time. Due to the fact that the authors focused on the economy in the US, which can be considered as relatively stable economy, it is actually unclear if the leverage ratios show a similar level of persistence if there are rapid changes in the economic environment over time (Shamshur, 2012). Therefore, a Study like this one, is more than welcome when carried out using the example of a transitional economy.

The theory of capital structure has developed considerably in the last ten years, but empirical work is still far from analyzing all the implications of the theories. Research into the empirical corporate finance gave many studies that tried to identify those elements which are driving the company's capital structure. The evidence on the capital structure determinants is strong between companies and various countries. These studies greatly differ in terms of the sample selection, variable definition, sample period, sample size, and the econometric methodology.

Obviously, there is no uniformity when it comes to the theoretical predictions or empirical results. Empirical research has been restricted by difficulties in finding appropriate proxies for attributes which are supposed to determine the capital structure of a company. In addition, the use of book versus market value for measuring the firm's equity and assets differs among studies.

Consistent with the above-mentioned study, but having in mind the availability of data required to calculate those
variables, this Study includes a following set of firm level variables that capture the factors that are known to affect the capital structure: the firm size, profitability, growth opportunities, asset tangibility and earnings volatility. What follows is a brief description of each of them and the development of hypothesis in accordance with the dynamic tradeoff theory.

Namely, recent literature critiques the studies on determinants of capital structure on the grounds that they do not take into account the typical rebalancing behavior of firms as far as their capital structure is concerned. It draws on dynamic trade-off theory and develops a theory for dynamic capital structure (Flannery & Hankins 2007). We may group the literature on the study of dynamic capital structure into two succinct clusters: (i) those investigating whether firms adjust towards a target capital structure; and (ii) those investigating the factors that influence the pace at which firms adjust their capital structure. This Study analyses the first one.

3. The Empirical Framework

The empirical analysis focused on 10 years (2003 – 2012) data pertaining to a sample of non-financial firms in Federation of Bosnia and Herzegovina (FBiH). The current study examines the influence of firm level factors in the determination of basic capital structure. As this Study involves an examination of the determinants of inter-industry differences, the firm-specific data used for the analyses in this chapter was extracted from the financial statements of non-financial, privately owned, listed as non-listed firms in FBiH. The analysis carries out both for the entire sample and for the individual industries.

The main research objective is to estimate the effects of firm’s level determinants on their capital structure measures in different industries. Considering the research objective, the relevant research question is whether the stylized relation between capital structure measures and several firm level variables obtained from the literature can be generalized to firms in FBiH. This brings us to the following hypotheses:

- Firm level variables such as the firm size, profitability, growth opportunity, asset tangibility, risk are statistically significant determinants of capital structure measures.

Most of the research studies on capital structure have used the data from the US and European companies. This Study provides a unique opportunity to examine the validity of the above statements and whether the capital structure of FBiH firms can be explained by the finance theory. Survival and growth necessitates the resources, but financing of these resources has its limits.

3.1 Econometric Framework

A panel data analysis may capture both cross-sectional and inter temporal relationships between firm leverage and its determinants. Given that our empirical models have a dynamic panel data context, we use the robust two-step system dynamic panel data estimator also known as “system GMM” estimator – proposed by Blundell and Bond (1998). In contrast to the conventional ordinary least square (OLS), Within-Groups and first-difference GMM estimators, the system GMM estimator not only mitigates potential endogeneity problems, controls for heterogeneity across individual firms, and removes unobserved firm-specific fixed effects, but it also allows researchers to make use of different instruments with different lag structure for both the levels and the first-differenced equations (Blundell & Bond, 1998, 2000; Bond, 2002).

Arellano and Bond (1991) suggest using a dynamic panel data estimator based on the GMM methodology that optimally exploits the linear moment restrictions implied by the dynamic panel model. GMM estimator uses both lagged values of all endogenous regressors and lagged and current values of all strictly exogenous regressors as instruments. Models can be estimated using the levels or the first differences of the variables. For the difference estimator, the variables are measured as first differences and their lagged values are used as appropriate instruments.

The Arellano-Bover/Blundell-Bond (Arellano & Bover, 1995; Blundell & Bond, 1998) dynamic panel estimator augments Arellano-Bond by making an additional assumption that first differences of instrument variables are uncorrelated with the fixed effects. According to this estimator, the lagged levels of variables are likely to be weak instruments for current differenced variables when the series are close to random walk. In these conditions, the differenced GMM estimates are likely to be biased and inefficient. The authors suggest the use of a more efficient system GMM estimator that combines the difference-equation and a levels-equation in which suitably lagged differenced variables are the appropriate instruments. It builds a system of two equations (the original and the transformed one) and is known as system GMM. The xtabond2 command implements these estimators (Roodman, 2009).

We applied the Hansen (1982) test for over identifying restrictions and the Arellano and Bond (1991) test for autocorrelation to ensure the validity of the instruments that we use in our estimations. More precisely, to test for the validity of the instruments, we use the J-statistic of Hansen (1982). This statistic is asymptotically distributed as χ² with
degrees of freedom equal to the number of over identifying restrictions (i.e., the number of instruments less the number of estimated parameters). Under the null hypothesis, the instruments are orthogonal to the errors. We employ the Arellano and Bond (1991) test for autocorrelation. Under the null of no serial correlation, the test asymptotically follows a standard normal distribution. It also provides a further check on the correct specification of the System-GMM process. In a dynamic panel data context, the first-order serial correlation is likely to be present, but the residuals should not exhibit the second-order serial correlation if the instruments are strictly exogenous.

3.2 Operationalisation of Variables

For the purpose of this study we have chosen to measure leverage by two variables (Welch, 2011):

- [pcs1] the financial-debt-to-capital ratio (financial leverage) that does not consider non-financial liabilities as debt
- [pcs3] the total-liabilities-to assets ratio (balance sheet leverage) that treats financial and non-financial liabilities alike

There are five variables expected to be important as determinants of the capital structure. The remainder of this section discusses the exogenous variable and their proxies.

To control for any possible heteroscedasticity, the natural logarithm is used, while to ensure linearity in the data, due to its capabilities to standardize values thus, bringing them on the same platform for a more efficient analysis to be done:

- [pfsa] natural logarithm of the total assets (Padron et al., 2005)
- [psfr] natural logarithm of the total revenue (Titman & Wessels, 1988; Rajan & Zingales, 1995; Wiwattanakantang, 1999; Graham, 2000; Ozkan, 2001; Gaud et al., 2005)
- [pfse] natural logarithm of the number of employees (Asgharian, 1997).

We use following ratios to measure profitability:

- [pp1] the return-on-total assets ratio (ROTA) that measures a company's earnings before interest and taxes (EBIT) against its total net assets (Rajan & Zingales, 1995; Ooi, 1999; Ozkan, 2001; Gaud et al., 2005)
- [pp2] the return-on-assets ratio (ROA) that measures a company's net income against its total net assets (Wiwattanakantang, 1999)

The proxies for the growth opportunity include as follows:

- [pg1] the ratio of difference in the book value of total asset between year\_t-1 and year\_t divided by the book value of the total assets in year\_t-1 (Titman & Wessels, 1988; Ooi, 1999; Chen, 2004)
- [pg2] the ratio of difference in total revenues between year\_t-1 and year\_t divided by total revenues in year\_t-1 (Asgharian, 1997)
- [pg3] the ratios above are based on a two-year difference in values; we also estimated growth using information spanning several years. We run the regression of book value of total assets over ten years on a time trend and use the coefficient of the trend, scaled by the book value of the total assets, as a proxy for growth (Asgharian, 1997)

We use the following indicators to measure collateral and/or liquidation value of assets (assets tangibility) which are considered to be good candidates for borrowing:

- [pat1] the ratio of tangible/physical assets to total assets; this measure is the most common one applied to determine the collateral value of the assets (Asgharian, 1997). This measurement is expected to be positively related to the collateral value of the assets.
- [pat2] the ratio of tangible/physical assets to total assets; Some intangible assets are not good candidates for debt financing because it is difficult to put them to an alternative use (Shleifer & Vishny, 1991) and cannot be transferred to another industry when the industry they are employed in suffers an adverse shock. This measurement is expected to be negatively related to the collateral value of the assets (Titman & Wessels, 1988).
- [pat3] the ratio of inventories to total assets; This measurement is expected to be negatively related to the collateral value of the assets. Although debts are used partly to finance inventories, and in most cases inventories maintain some value when the firm is liquidated, they do not serve as good collateral.
- [pat4] the ratio of receivables to total assets; Because of difficulties associated with the collecting receivables, including high collections costs, they are not good as collateral. (Asgharian, 1997). This ratio is expected to have negative effect on the collateral value of the assets.

The total revenue volatility [pev] is used as a proxy for a firm-specific risk. Since the focus of this Study is mostly...
non-publicly traded firms, we follow Morgan, Rime and Strahan (2004) to compute the time-varying measure of the firm-specific risk. We regress the firms’ total revenue-to-total assets ratio on firm and year fixed-effects and then we use the absolute value of the residuals obtained from this regression as proxy for the firm-specific risk.

4. Results and Discussion

The data are collected from 26506 companies during the period from 2003 to 2012. Data are unbalanced and for 50% of companies, the data are available for a period of 7 years minimum.

Table 3. Number of Companies per Industry and Year

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Industry</th>
<th>2003</th>
<th>2004</th>
<th>2005</th>
<th>2006</th>
<th>2007</th>
<th>2008</th>
<th>2009</th>
<th>2010</th>
<th>2011</th>
<th>2012</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>255</td>
<td>279</td>
<td>353</td>
<td>355</td>
<td>375</td>
<td>350</td>
<td>413</td>
<td>368</td>
<td>370</td>
<td>377</td>
<td>3.495</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>12</td>
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<td>15</td>
<td>144</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>133</td>
<td>134</td>
<td>139</td>
<td>137</td>
<td>145</td>
<td>144</td>
<td>148</td>
<td>145</td>
<td>1.350</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>148</td>
<td>145</td>
<td>1.132</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>1.316</td>
<td>1.365</td>
<td>1.469</td>
<td>1.579</td>
<td>1.639</td>
<td>1.542</td>
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<td>1.454</td>
<td>1.464</td>
<td>1.456</td>
<td>14.867</td>
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<tr>
<td>H</td>
<td>417</td>
<td>437</td>
<td>477</td>
<td>514</td>
<td>524</td>
<td>486</td>
<td>515</td>
<td>489</td>
<td>485</td>
<td>499</td>
<td>4.843</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>1.301</td>
<td>1.342</td>
<td>1.445</td>
<td>1.561</td>
<td>1.594</td>
<td>1.548</td>
<td>1.552</td>
<td>1.520</td>
<td>1.528</td>
<td>1.525</td>
<td>14.916</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>J</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>786</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K</td>
<td>1.624</td>
<td>1.727</td>
<td>1.952</td>
<td>2.148</td>
<td>2.328</td>
<td>2.343</td>
<td>2.570</td>
<td>2.500</td>
<td>2.551</td>
<td>2.620</td>
<td>22.363</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>137</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>185</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>129</td>
<td>1.231</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>221</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>217</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>1.117</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>326</td>
<td>337</td>
<td>418</td>
<td>415</td>
<td>444</td>
<td>405</td>
<td>492</td>
<td>458</td>
<td>466</td>
<td>473</td>
<td>4.234</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Under the assumption that proposed regressors/independent variables are exogenous, estimation of dynamic panel models are conducted using the two step Generalized Method of Moments (GMM) through xtabond2 formula in STATA, as proposed by Roodman (2009).

Dynamic panel models are developed for entire sample and subdivided by each industry. Each dynamic panel model is tested against the existence of serial correlations with residuals using the Arellano-Bond test and if the instruments are exogenous using the Sargan/Hansen test of over identifying restrictions. All two models at the level of entire sample (as including some industries) perform rather poorly against Arellano Bond test and Sargan/Hansen test indicating issues with serial correlations and endogeneity of instruments.

In the first Dynamic panel model with Financial Leverage - Debt to Capital Ratio= Debt/(Debt +Equity), only industries C, M and N don't have serial correlations significant. Instruments in all industries have issues with proposed exogeneity of independent variables. As presented in the Table 4 in the Dynamic panel model with Balance-sheet Leverage - Total liabilities to assets= Total Liabilities/Total assets per most of industries don't have problems with serial correlations (except for industry K, and total sample model) where industries A, B, C, E, H, K, and M don't have issues about endogeneity of instruments.

Applied remedies to improve serial correlations and endogeneity (higher lags, changing variable lists from iv style to gmm) yields no better results. Both dynamic panel data models are statistically significant at the level of entire sample and per industry. But since the post estimation tests within the first panel model (financial leverage), do not yield the required levels, it is going to be left out from the further discussion. The dynamic panel model as describe above do not fully respond to data and should be further analyzed using other dynamic panel data models and/or using the balanced sample. In this Study, we will focus only on the results of the Dynamic panel model with Balance-sheet Leverage since the post-estimations tests are met by most of industries and therefore can be generalized.

The proposed dynamic panel model (balance-sheet leverage) of the capital structure fails to provide a model that describes capital structure change for the entire sample, due to remaining serial correlation between regressors and residuals and their endogeneity, but does succeed in providing a model of the firm-level determinants for most industries. The results confirm the view that differences in industry characteristic lead to an inter-industry variation in the capital structure. We observe differences in the basic capital structure of firms in our sample attributable to firm-specific characteristics.
The number of analyzed companies working at the agriculture, hunting and forestry industry (A) over the period of ten years is 2238. The study found that only profitability and asset tangibility is the statistically significant leverage predictor for this industry. Profitability, measured with ROA, has a negative influence on leverage. The nexus between asset tangibility and leverage is dependent on how the latter is defined. We document that ratio of tangible and intangible asset to total assets negatively influences leverage whether the ratio of accounts receivable to total assets has a positive influence on leverage. The number of analyzed companies in the fishing industry (B) over the years varies from 10 to 13. Although the results are statistically significant and post-estimation tests are satisfactory, due to low number of companies further analysis is not completed for fishing industry.

The number of analyzed companies in the mining industry (C) over the ten years amounts to 882. We find a robustly significant and inverse relationship between profitability and the capital structure. The results also relieved a negative relationship between the asset structure measured by tangible assets and the capital structure choice. The number of analyzed companies in the production and distribution of electric energy, gas and water industry (E) is 701. Among all the firm-level variables, only profitability (ROE) is observed to have a negative relationship with the leverage.

Table 4. Dynamic Panel Model - Balance sheet Leverage
The number of companies in the accommodation and food service industry (H) over the ten years is 10235. The results suggest that four out of five analyzed firm-level variables are statistically significant for this industry. We found a strong negative relationship between profitability and leverage ratio. The estimated coefficients for our two profitability proxies are both statistically significant, though with bigger magnitudes when we use ROTA then ROA. We also find evidence that tangible assets are negatively related to the leverage while the ratio of inventories to total asset positively affects the leverage ratio. Another robust result is positive relationship between leverage and the growth rate measured by total revenue growth. The results demonstrate that riskier companies (measuring risk as the within-firm volatility of earnings) tend to be less total leveraged.

The number of companies in the real estate industry (K) over the ten years has been 15766. This is the only industry for which all firm-level determinants showed significant coefficients. The firm size, measured by total assets, has a positive relationship with the leverage ratio, which can be interpreted that larger firms (firms with larger total assets) have more access to outside financing in general. ROA as proxy for profitability document an inverse relationship with the leverage. Asset composition measured by level of tangible assets available is negatively related to the leverage ratio while the same variable measure by the ratio of accounts receivable to the level of total asset is positively related to the leverage. All three proxies for growth opportunities are statistically significant predictors of total leverage but with inconsistent direction. There is a negative relationship between leverage and the growth rate, if the latter one is measured by the annual asset and total sales growth, while there is a positive relationship between the leverage ratio and growth opportunities measured as the size of the deviation from average growth of total revenue. Finally, the study indicates that risk variable negatively affects the leverage.

The number of companies in the education industry (M) over the years accounts for 800. For companies operating in this industry we could find only two statistically significant firm-level determinants, the profitability and the growth opportunities. The first one is negatively while the second one is positively related to the leverage ratio.

Overall, the variation in the capital structure - total liabilities to assets is explained by 1st lag of the capital structure.
The research aimed at testing the validity of capital structure theories in the FBiH. In this paper we have developed total liabilities to assets, profitability (both regressors), assets tangibility (except for the ratio of intangible assets to total assets), growth and earnings volatility. 

A highest change in the capital structure - total liabilities to assets have companies with highest difference in the capital structure - total liabilities to assets in comparison with the previous year (change in 1 unit of difference, make app. 79% of unit increase in the capital structure - total liabilities to assets). The second highest change in the capital structure - total liabilities to assets have size of ROA, where for each positive change of ROA for 1 unit it is expected to have app. 22% of unit decrease in the capital structure - total liabilities to assets. Remaining significant repressors’ affect the change in the capital structure - total liabilities to assets from 1 to 5%. In all models per industry change in ROA has negative relationships with change in the capital structure - total liabilities to assets and coefficients vary from -0.12 to -0.26.

A consistent negative relationship with the capital structure - total liabilities to assets is in the ratio of tangible fixed assets to total assets and earnings volatility. Remaining repressors have an inconsistent relationship with the capital structure - total liabilities to assets, mainly statistically insignificant. The results indicate that one-period lagged dependent variable (total liabilities to assets) has a significant and positive effect on leverage (except for the industry B), indicating the existence of adjustment to the target capital structure.

5. Conclusion

The research aimed at testing the validity of capital structure theories in the FBiH. In this paper we have developed a model to explain firm characteristics (the micro-factors) determining the capital structure, measured by two dependent variables. We conducted our empirical analysis using an unprecedented database with non-financial firms from 14 different industries based in the FBiH, spanning 10 years of data from 2003 through 2012. The data are strongly unbalanced, meaning that we allow firms to enter or leave the sample during the referred period, thus avoiding any survivorship bias. We examined the data using a dynamic panel System GMM estimator, which is robust to firm heterogeneity and data endogeneity problems.

The proposed dynamic panel models of the capital structure measured by the financial leverage fail to provide the models that describe the capital structure change, mostly due to remaining serial correlation between repressors and residuals and their endogeneity. The proposed dynamic panel model of the capital structure measured by the balance-sheet leverage fails to provide a model that describe the capital structure change for the entire sample, due to remaining serial correlation between repressors and residuals and their endogeneity, but succeed to provide model of firm-level determinants at the industry level. The industry in which a firm operates seems to have an influence on the basic capital structure decisions of firms in our sample. We observe that the inter-industry differences appear to be a function of how the capital structure is defined. This signifies the role that the industry specific operating characteristics and regulations play in the firm’s capital structure decisions.

The empirical analysis also investigates the dynamic behavior of the leverage ratios in our sample. We find that capital structure is highly persistent. Indeed, a lagged leverage is the best predictor of subsequent leverage in all regressions. So, the proposed repressors have statistically significant relationships with the capital structure of which most important is first lagged period of dependent the capital structure variable that explains most of explained variance of the capital structure, while profitability (ROA) follows as the next most important determinant of the capital structure. Assets tangibility, growth, firm size and earning volatility are statistically significant proxies of the capital structure, but with low effects on the capital structure change (2-7%).

To examine the relationship between the profitability and capital leverage in the FBiH corporate sample, we find a strong and robust negative relationship between profitability and the leverage ratio, consistent with most of the extant empirical literature (Friend & Lang, 1988; Rajan&Zingales, 1995; Antoniou et al. 2008). Therefore, we evidenced that more profitable firms tend to have less leverage, while less profitable firms tend to have more leverage. Table 4 indicates that this inverse relationship persists even after accounting for the influence of industry. The trade-off theory can be denied, which assumes a positive connection between the two factors—saying, that the profit making firm strive to utilize the interest tax shield via rising loans. This is in line with the pecking order hypothesis suggesting that a company’s financing process - due to the asymmetric information and thus a high transaction costs, does follows a specific hierarchy—using first internal sources available, and only then resort to external finance; first debt and only as a last choice to equity. In other words, the evidence that more profitable firms tend to have less leverage while less profitable firms tend to have more leverage may also be interpreted as evidence of the firm’s limited access to outside financing.

In the Study, we found inconsistent results for relationship between different proxies for growth opportunities and leverage. For the proxies based on the two years differences, whether in total assets or total revenue, the relationship was negative. That is in line with the trade-off theory and similar to the findings for developed countries (Banerjee,
Hesmati, & Wihlborg, 2004). But the positive correlation was found when the growth rate was measured as the coefficient of the trend, scaled by the book value of the total assets, from the regression of book value of total assets over ten years on a time trend, which supports the pecking order hypothesis rather than other theories.

The negative correlation of share of tangible assets and leverage is valid for the whole period, which is in line with the evidence from the previous studies (Cornelli, Portes & Schaffer, 1999; Nivorozhkin, 2002). This is due to the dominance of short-term debt in total debt, which does not necessarily require collateral. The trade-off theory and the agency theory obviously didn’t prevail in this period in FBiH. This means that the company with high fixed assets value should employ less debt in its capital structure components and it is vice versa. The company with low level of tangible assets seeks for external source of fund, in terms of short-term debt, which does not necessarily require collateral, or other forms of non-financial financing.

We have found the connection proposed by the theory between the volatility of earnings and the level of capital leverage. This type of risk negatively influences the liabilities/equity ratio significantly in the examined period. This suggests that firms appear to reduce their use of total debt in their capital structure when they face higher risks in their own business activities.

Neither positive nor negative relationship between the firm size and the capital leverage cannot be proved, expected for two industries. Those results are opposite with the assumption of the trade-off theory, agency theory and signaling approach of positive relationship existence as with the assumption of negative relationship made by pecking order theory. None of them could be proved from the FBiH corporate database.

Finally, the empirical evidence displayed in this Study finds it difficult to demonstrate the validity of the trade-off and pecking order theories as stand-alone models. This contradicts the standard academic view that they are mutually exclusive perspectives or models. The two models provide very different predictions as to what we should expect to observe empirically about financial leverage. However the employment of fairly flexible targets for financial gearing, accounts for this discrepancy between the theory and practice.

References


Issues of Criminal Procedures Relating the Juvenile Freedom Deprivation

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Abstract

Freedom is one of the fundamental rights sanctioned in a number of international human rights acts when the European Convention on Human Rights is the main framework. Freedom is considered a fundamental right and is guaranteed also in the Albanian Constitution. Being a fundamental right it can be limited any by law. In order to prevent the arbitrary violation of this right, the article 27 of Constitution determines limited cases of freedom deprivation. The article 28 of the Constitution, also foresees some guarantees and rights for persons deprived from liberty. These rights and guarantees are completed in specifies laws when the Criminal Procedure Cod is a crucial one. The Criminal Procedure Cod provide also special rules to safeguard the rights and the interest of juveniles throughout the deprivation of liberty preceding. However in the justice organs practice still there are problems in fully implementing these rights. The article will address issues related the criminal procedure and the legal guaranties related the deprivation of liberty based on the national legislatation and international standards. The paper will focus mainly on the special standards relating the protection of juveniles taking in consideration the special needs of this group. In the framework of Procedural Criminal Code rules, international juridical acts and the court practice, concrete conclusions will be drawing in regard to the actual situation related with the respect of the juvenile rights on this stage of proceeding. Considering the current situation, recommendations will be displayed relating the legal and institutional improvements are needed in order to comply with international standards on children’s rights.

Keywords: Criminal, Procedure, Cod, Freedom, deprivation, International, juridical, acts, Procedural, measure.

1. The Right to Freedom and Security as Part of the Notion of Fundamental Rights

The right to freedom and security is one of the fundamental rights of persons. In terms of constitutional rights, freedom is one of the most essential aspects. Bringing this right to a constitutional level has now become a general rule for all democratic countries. Sanctioning this principle, in addition to other principles regarding fundamental rights and freedoms, at constitutional level, serves as a safeguard for respecting and implementing these principles. Nevertheless, even this right is not absolute. To guarantee the arbitrary infringement of this right, the Constitution of the Republic of Albania (AR Constitution) specifies the cases of freedom deprivation and sets forth a number of minimal safeguards for the person’s deprivation of freedom. It sets forth a number of procedural safeguards to the person deprived of freedom for one of the reasons stipulated by the law.

The Constitution stipulates that every person deprived of freedom enjoys the following rights: the right to notification of the causes for the measure or the relevant charge, the right to a lawyer, the right to complaint, the right to be heard before trial etc. Moreover, the Constitution expresses some of the fundamental principles of the criminal process, which serve as a greater guarantee for the person under deprivation of freedom. Here are a number of principles: Habeas Corpus (Article 28/3 of the Constitution), the principle of not applying the criminal law with retrospective power, (Article 29), the principle of presumption of innocence (Article 30), the ne bis in dem principle, (Article 34) etc.

The constitution elaborates on a number of the most fundamental elements of the criminal process and the safeguards to the person deprived of freedom, followed by a more detailed elaboration in special laws. The main laws are the Criminal Code and Code of Criminal Procedure (CPC).

This constitutional regulation is in compliance with the aim of the European Convention on Human Rights (ECHR), ratified by Albania. This is the only international agreement equal with the constitution in terms of hierarchy.

Article 5 of the European Convention on Human Rights also provides for the right to freedom and security and the possibility of limiting this right solely for cases expressly stated.

The ECHR also provides a number of fundamental safeguards to persons under conditions of personal freedom deprivation. Article 5/2 sets forth the right of each person to be informed in the shortest time possible, in the language he/she can understand, about the reasons of the measure or any charges against him/her. Article 5/3 refers to the right of the person to be sent to the judge within a reasonable deadline, otherwise known as the Habeas Corpus principle. Article 5/4 sets forth the right of each person deprived of freedom to complain before a court regarding the measures taken by him. Moreover, Article 5/5 grants him/her the right to a fair compensation in cases of illegal arrest or imprisonment.

Being an important document in the field of human rights, it acts as an international safeguard by setting a minimal standard for these rights and is regarded as a roadmap of domestic legislations in this field. The extensive practice of ECHR has made an extraordinary interpretation of cases of person’s deprivation of freedom, as well as rights of persons under the conditions of personal freedom deprivation, thus becoming a very good example for domestic courts of countries which have ratified ECHR.

However, there have also been cases of violation and non-implementation of this principle, resulting in serious consequences regarding the respect of fundamental rights and freedoms of citizens. This phenomenon becomes more concerning if there is a violation of procedural safeguards applicable to juveniles deprived of freedom.

2. Sanctioning Procedural Safeguards in the Domestic Legislation

Article 27 of the Constitution established that:

“No one’s liberty may be limited, except in cases and under procedures prescribed by law”. In accordance with this constitutional requirement, rules and procedures of constraint are detailed in CPC. Typical cases of freedom deprivation are the cases relating to arrests and detention of suspects for committing a crime and the application of security measures.

More specifically, the arrest and detention are provided in Chapter III of title V of the CPC, articles 251-259. This chapter contains general procedural aspects of the terms and implementation procedures of arrest and detention, which apply in general, without excluding any particular category, including juveniles. Arrest in flagrancy is performed when flagrant conditions exist and comply with criteria set out in article 251, while the ban applies in cases of risk of escape of the person suspected of committing a crime. CPC has not sanctioned any exception regarding the conditions of the implementation of arrest in flagrancy and detention. With the amendments of 2002 it was provided that juvenile offenders accused of a misdemeanor may not be detained prior to trial.

As regards security measures, Article 228 specified the general conditions for setting security measures; reasonable doubt based on evidence, the existence of penalty causes and the existence of the criminal offence. The following special conditions are also specified: the existence of important causes which jeopardize the acquisition or veracity of the evidence, escape of the defendant or risk of escape, the risk that the defendant may commit serious crimes or crimes of the type he is being tried. The following dispositions also specify the criteria for setting security measures, the conditions for revoking or removing them, their duration, replacement, or the right to complain about the security measures.

In compliance with the Constitution and international juridical acts, a number of procedural measures have been foreseen to ensure that the person’s deprivation of freedom be done in conformity with the dispositions of the material and procedural law, under the principle of legality as one of the fundamental principles of any democratic legal order.

The proper implementation of material and procedural dispositions provide the subject with the execution of all rights and safeguards stipulated by the law under a regular legal process. The right of the person deprived of freedom to have a lawyer, no matter whether he/she has been made a defendant (article 48), as well as the right to have the necessary time and facilities to prepare the defense, must be a real and effective possibility. Moreover, the person deprived of freedom enjoys the right to information about the reasons for his detention or arrest. He has the right to be informed not make any statements because everything he says may be used against him at trial. The person detained or arrested in flagrante enjoys the right to be sent before a judge within 48 hours and it is the judge who decides whether the measure is legal. This obligation derives from the famous principle Habeas Corpus. This principle, first set forth in Magna Carta, is a fundamental safeguard to the detainee. The person deprived of freedom is entitled to communicate with his lawyer at any moment. Cases of obligatory presence of the lawyer are set forth, such as meetings, examinations, questioning of the defendant, etc.

As regards pre-trial detention, being the harshest measure, Article 230/1 specifies that the criterion for the

\[2\text{ CPC, article 230/4.}\]
application of prison arrest is when all other measures are not relevant. A special procedural safeguard in this case is the exclusion of a number of specific subjects from the application of the pre-trial detention security measure. Article 230 of the Code of Criminal Procedure exempts the following subjects from pre-trial detention: pregnant or breastfeeding women, persons of grave health conditions or over 70 years old, drug-addicted or persons under the effects of alcohol. This is an application of the principle of proportionality, with the lawmaker exempting these subjects for the specific features they have.

A number of other principles pertaining to an appropriate legal process, such as the principle of the presumption of innocence, the right not to incriminate oneself, the right to silence, guarantee the person the protection of his rights in the legal process. Another very important safeguard is the one set forth in Article 5 of the Code of Criminal Procedure, which states as follows: No one can be subjected to torture, cruel, inhuman or humiliating treatment or punishment and persons sentenced to imprisonment are provided with human treatment and moral rehabilitation. This is an absolute prohibition, which cannot be used even in the most extreme circumstances.

What is of great importance to the practice of justice authorities is that they be applied correctly, thus providing the person with the right to a correct legal process, in pursuance of Article 42 of the Constitution and Article 6 of ECHR.

3. Special Procedural Measures for Juveniles

The safeguards set forth by the Code of Criminal Procedure for persons deprived of freedom are applicable both to adults and juveniles. However, due to the special nature and level of development, juveniles deprived of freedom enjoy a number of procedural safeguards. These safeguards are sanctioned in the international juridical acts of justice on juveniles, which specify the standards of juvenile treatment at this stage of the procedure. These standards should be reflected in the domestic procedural legislation and should be implemented by justice authorities.

These standards are particularly important in cases relating to deprivation of personal freedom and the application of security measures which represent the first contact of juveniles with criminal justice. For this reason, in case of juveniles, will be of great interest to focus on the analysis of these specific procedural guaranties and the problematic issues related to their application.

3.1 The principle of the best interests of the child

The principle of the best interests of the child is the main consideration against all action taken against children 3. It is sanctioned in almost all international juridical acts such as the Beijing Rules, Riyadh’s Directives, Havana Rules etc.

Doctrinal studies consider it a principle overlapping with the rights guaranteed for every individual and applied only to a category of subjects, who receive state protection due to juvenile age. 4 It asks each country which has approved the convention to adopt the legislation which must reflect this principle in each aspect of justice for juveniles.

The principle of the best interests of the child should dominate decision-making regarding every procedure applied to children. The best interest of the child should also be the leading consideration in all criminal procedures and implementation of state mechanisms to juveniles accused or suspected of criminal offences.

Obviously, it is not easy to determine the necessary measures of this principle in practice. The practical implementation requires that this principle be closely connected with all other rights and safeguards provided for juveniles by international juridical acts, and it requires the obligation to respect these rights.

As regards the treatment of juvenile offenders, special attention should be paid to this principle, in particular in cases of limitation or deprivation of freedom, especially the application of detention or any other procedure of freedom deprivation where the best interest of the child should prevail. This rule requires the establishment of the legal status of the juvenile and the need of differentiation in terms of rights enjoyed by juveniles depending on their age. For example, juveniles who have not reached the age of criminal liability cannot be subjected to measures involving deprivation of freedom or criminal sanctions. As regards juveniles at the age of criminal liability, the application of these measures should be used as an exclusive case and last for the shortest time possible.

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3 With regard to this principle, the UN Convention “On the rights of the child”, Article 3 states: “In all actions concerning children, whether undertaken by public or private social welfare institutions, courts of law, administrative authorities or legislative bodies, the best interests of the child shall be a primary consideration.”

4 Albanian legislation and the convention of the rights of the child, publication of the Centre of Services and Integrated Legal Practice, 2008, p. 51.
3.2 Deprivation of freedom as the last resort

The principle of deprivation of freedom, only in cases in compliance with legal procedures, is now a universal principle. As regards juveniles, in compliance with the best interest of the child and the need for special treatment, the leading principle is the one which states that: Measures of freedom deprivation should be taken as a last resort and the shortest time possible.

This principle exists in almost all recently sanctioned legal acts of juvenile justice, starting from the UN Convention5. Also, in accordance with the Rule 17.1 (c) of the Beijing Rules, deprivation of freedom for minors should be an exceptional case which should be applied only in specific cases6. The same adjustments can also be found in the United Nations Rules, for the protection of juveniles deprived of freedom, where freedom limitation happens only in exceptional cases7. This principle enshrined also in other instruments such as Rule 46 of the Riyadh Guidelines, Rule 17 of Rules of Havana, etc.

According to international standards, in the CPC this rule should be extended to all cases relating to detention and arrest of juveniles and alternative measures to detention or arrest should be provide. International instruments have provided the procedural solution in favor of the application of freedom deprivation as a last resort, where is worth mentioning the increase of the self-determination right of the police and prosecution in order to avoid the formal procedures8. For this purpose it is suggested the creation of community programs such as temporary supervision and protection, restitution and compensation of victims9. The CPC has not forecasted the principle that children shall only be deprived of liberty as a last resort, and for the shortest appropriate period of time. Also the specific criteria applying for juveniles, does not make possible the application of this principle.

For example, regarding the pre-trial detention measure as the most severe measure CPC has sanctioned the principle that it should be applied, only when every other measure is inappropriate due to the high risk of crime and the offender10. Simultaneously for certain groups such as pregnant women or nursing mothers, persons in serious health condition or who have attained the age of 70 years, or drugged or alcoholic people who are subject of therapeutic programs in special institutions, these measure can be imposed only in exceptional cases. This rule does not apply for juveniles.

The only special requirement of the implementation of this measure to juvenile, is that it cannot be determined for juveniles accused of a misdemeanor11. Pursuant to this measure, the court must take into consideration the continuity of the educational process of juveniles.

The above criteria are insufficient. In this way the legislator has not taken into account the requirements of international legal acts that stipulate the principle that pre-trial detention should be a last measure to be applied to juveniles.

Despite the legal determination that this pre-trial measure should be used when all other measures are inadequate, in the absence of specific criteria, this measure has been applied frequently to the juveniles.

Also, court decisions have not always been reasonable in terms of applying this measure in cases of juveniles. These shortcoming is evident in several cases of the Supreme Court, which in a majority of cases has changed the court decisions regarding the pre-trial detention measure at juvenile offenders12. Essential arguments of Supreme Court decisions are based on the fact that the district court did not properly evaluate the criteria for determining this security measure.

Consequently the courts do not in any case take into consideration the standard of deprivation of liberty as a last resort. Simultaneously with all the positive changes made as a result of the transfer of the detention system, from the Ministry of Interior to the Ministry of Justice still there are also problems with implementing the pre-trial detention measure and the institutional infrastructure.

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5 Article 37/b of Children Rights Convention provides that any deprivation of liberty must be: legal and not arbitrary; be imposed as a last resort for solutions; extended only for the shortest period of time as possible.

6 Rule 17.1 (c) of the Beijing Rules provides that: “Deprivation of freedom shall not be appointed until the juvenile be convicted of a serious act involving violence against another person, or repetition in the performance of other serious violations, in cases when there is no other suitable reaction”

7 United Nations Rules for the protection of juveniles deprived of liberty, rule 2 and rule 17.

8 Beijing Rules, rule 11.3.

9 Ibid, rule 11.4

10 CCP, article 230 /1.

11 CPC, Article 230 /4.

12 See Decision of the Supreme Court, no 00-2008-36 date 05.03.2008, decision no51, date 25.02.2009 etc.
The sections of the pre-trial-detention sections were the juveniles are not fully compliant with the standards and the needs of their treatment and education. In the new legislative changes priority should be given to provisions that provide the possibility of applying the freedom deprivation as a last resort or provisions that provide alternative measures from the restriction of freedom.

3.3 The right to defense

The right to defense is sanctioned in the Constitution of the Republic of Albania as one of the safeguards in the criminal process. The constitution sanctions not only the right to a lawyer and free communication with him but also the obligation of the state to provide free protection\(^\text{13}\).

To make it practically applicable, the right to defense has been detailed in the CCP, which includes detailed rules regarding legal defense at all stages of the process. Predictions concerning the execution of the right of defense are available for both the juvenile and adult offender. In addition, taking into account the significance of the criminal prosecution of a juvenile, the CPC includes also a number of specific provisions.

In relation to minors under 18 years CPC has sanctioned the principle of legal defense in every condition and degree of processing and the binding character of this right\(^\text{14}\). The interrogation of the juvenile arrested or detained should be done in the presence of a lawyer chosen or assigned\(^\text{15}\). In the case of juvenile offender legal defense is an essential condition for the validity of the criminal proceedings.

3.4 Psychological assistance

The right to defense is insufficient to meet the best interests of children deprived of freedom unless psychological assistance is provided. This attitude is also reflected in the Convention on the rights of the child, which provides not only the right to legal defense but also any other relevant assistance when deemed to be in the best interest of the child, in the presence of parents or his legal representatives\(^\text{16}\). With the same way of formulation, this principle has been also set forth in rule 15/2 of the Beijing Rules. In the comments about rule 15/2 of the Beijing Rules, the right of the parent or caretaker to attend the procedure is considered as emotional and psychological assistance and it lasts for the whole procedure.\(^\text{17}\)

Psychological assistance is one of the special procedural guarantees that CPC has sanctioned for the juvenile offender. This assistance is provided in every state and stage of the proceedings with the presence of a parent or other persons chosen by the minor and accepted by the proceeding authority. When the defendant is a juvenile proceeding authority may take actions and may not engage in acts without the presence of a parent or other person chosen by the minor\(^\text{18}\). Deviations from this principle can only be made when it considered that is in the interest of juveniles or the delay could seriously damage the prosecution. In such cases it is obligatory presence of counsel.

Besides the presence of parents or other relatives in the criminal prosecution of juveniles, a special importance takes the psycho-social assistance in the presence of a psychologist or social worker, who has the necessary skills and creates appropriate conditions that the juvenile can psychologically afford the process.

The psychologist also attends cases when a juvenile is interrogated by police or prosecution authorities. In this way, the role of the psychologist acts as support to the juvenile, thus facilitating communication with the relevant authorities.

As regards the sanctioning of psychological assistance in the criminal procedure against juveniles, a number of deficiencies have been observed despite the initial positive changes in the legal practice. The analysis of judicial decisions concerning measures has shown that, in some cases, psychological assistance to juveniles has not been provided.\(^\text{19}\) Over the last years, progress has been made in providing this service. In some criminal justice bodies, such as the police or prosecution, the psychologist is an integral part of the personnel. Nevertheless, there is not a final solution about the role of the psychologist and clear recruitment criteria.

\(^\text{13}\) Constitution of the Republic of Albania, Article 31, point b and ç.

\(^\text{14}\) CPC, article 49/2.

\(^\text{15}\) CPC, article 256/1.

\(^\text{16}\) Convention on the rights of the child, Article 4(b)(iii).

\(^\text{17}\) OSBE, Juvenile justice training project, Tiranë 2005, f. 3.

\(^\text{18}\) CPC, article 35.

3.5 Specialized structures

A particular importance in the phase of freedom deprivation takes the demand of international standards regarding the treatment of minors by specialized structures. The Beijing Rules lay down an obligation that the police structures that deal with minors should be instructed and trained in particular. For this purpose in larger cities special police forces should be formed. Committee on the Rights of the Child considers as a priority issue the need to train police officers in order to ensure that children be treated carefully and their rights are respected, and parents be informed immediately after arrest and the guarantee of legal assistance.

In the framework of these requests since 2008 a new structure of the State Police is created, that of protection of minors and fighting the domestic violence. In the General Police Directorate this sector is an integral part of the Department of investigation and prevention of crimes. Such coordination structures are set up even in country’s districts.

However, the priority of treatment of juveniles by specialized structures has not yet found adequate application in practice. Treatment of juveniles in the early stages of procedures, detention or arrest are, made from structures of the police forces who do not always have the necessary skills and specialization on the rights of juveniles. In addition, in practice there were cases of non-compliance of the procedural safeguards during interrogation of juveniles after arrest or detention.

With the amendments of the CPC, is sanctioned the standard of specialized structures for the adjudication of juveniles. Currently the trial of juveniles is done by the relevant sections, created in the judicial district courts established by Decree of the President. The creation of these courts as well as conditions imposed on the CPC for the trial of minors by judges specialized in this field, serves to the knowledge of the procedural provisions for juveniles and their correct application. Now these specialized structures are not only competent for the trial of minors but also to any other decision stages of criminal proceedings including the implementation of security measures.

However, there are still problems with the operation of specialized structures at judgment level. For a number of high risk crimes, juveniles are tried by the Court of Serious Crimes, which lacks specialized sections for juveniles. Another deficiency which needs to be overcome is the absence of specialized sections for juveniles at Appeal Courts.

4. Conclusions

Both domestic and international laws explicitly set forth cases of person’s deprivation of freedom. This helps to avoid, as much as possible, the probability of arbitrary deprivation of this right. The person under personal freedom deprivation enjoys procedural safeguards and rights during the criminal process, which he is entitled to fully enjoy in accordance with the law. Implementation of such rights and the provision of the person with an effective possibility to enjoy them are being continuously consolidated in the Albanian legal system, thus implementing international agreements ratified by Albania, with the ECHR being a very important one. This Convention, along with other agreements ratified by Albania, constitutes another safeguard to respect the rights of the person deprived of freedom. Although the Albanian legislation provides protection of the person’s rights in the criminal process, there are still a number of challenges to implement these rights not only by the lawmakers but by the authorities in charge of implementing the legislation in particular. In this respect, special attention should be paid to the legal sanctioning and the implementation of the rights of juveniles deprived of freedom.

For this purpose necessary legal changes should be made in order to determine appropriate alternative measures of freedom deprivation of liberty, and mainly of pre-trial detention measure to be applied in cases of juveniles. In this context changes also should be made to CPC regarding specific time periods of pre-trial detention for juveniles and specific criteria for applying this measure.

One of the shortcomings of the actual code is that no specific arrangements are sanctioned regarding the freedom deprivation of juveniles. In contrast, international legal acts on the rights of children, recommend that in accordance with the best interest of the child, priority should be given to the special treatment at all stages of the proceedings from the moment of detention of juveniles until the proper measure is taken.

Also in the CPC should be increased the number of principles of criminal proceedings related to minors. In this

20 Beijing Rules, rule 14.
23 If we refer to foreign systems, we find examples of specialized structures even at Courts of Appeal. For example, in Italy trial at the Court of Appeal for juveniles is carried out by the Juveniles Section of the Appeal Court. See CCP, Article 2.
regard, the additions and changes that CPC will undergo should take into consideration the special coverage of the principles of criminal proceedings for juveniles.

These legal interventions are necessary considering that the practice has yet identified problems with the treatment of juveniles at the time of detention and arrest. These problems relate to inadequate infrastructure facilities of detention in police stations, as well as with the treatment and respect of their rights.

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Social Media in the Times of the Crisis of Kosovo

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Abstract

With the development of the technology also has come the development of media, and especially the social media. One of the most prominent events of the impact of media is the War of Kosovo, and the way it was reflected in the media and the social media. In this paper I will try to paint a clear picture of the development of the events represented both in the historical and media, and the impact that the second had on the first. Its common knowledge nowadays the history of Kosovo and the different crises that it went thru but what’s not very well known is the impact that made the international media and the social one in the way the crises was perceived and what happened for real. It has too little information about the way that the social media impacted the war; the way that it helped in the humanitarian aspect and general modification of the public opinion in sustaining and protecting the innocents. And this is what this paper is about. It’s a short research which deals more information on the way the events developed and how the media helped in that development and inferred in protecting and helping the true innocents of the war of Kosovo. How by social networks and internet news people gathered together with no regard of language, nationality or other diversities and helped protect the innocents which were trying to flee the war and protect their families.

Keywords: media, social media, crises, war of Kosovo.

1. Introduction

Social Media: forms of electronic communication (as Web sites for social networking and micro blogging) through which users create online communities to share information, ideas, personal messages, and other content (as videos)1

This is the pragmatic definition what the term Social Media defines. However if we are to analyze it in a more in-depth analyzes it’s much more than just this. Actually the terminology of Aristotle in describing humans as “social animals”, takes a whole new meaning when confronted with the development of technology nowadays. It refer not only to our predisposition to forge bonds which hold on for all our life in most cases, but to the main reason that we consciously make effort, invest energy and a part of ourselves to forge those bonds. And due to the development of technology nowadays the way these bonds are forged is much more different than the way they would have worked in the early 70-es.

Due to this nature of ours, we are bound to use any resources availed to reach these bonds. With the development of technology, what was once perceived as an interpersonal relation developed to a more large scale into what we now call social media. Even though the terminology “social media” was used for the first time in 2004, its beginning is much earlier. The first forms of networking start 1969 with CompuServe which was one of the first major commercial Internet providers in the US. 2They used dial-up technology to connect to the web. It was the main provider during the 80-es and part of the 90-es until others companies started to enter the market also. Actually, the first e-mail was sent in 1971 and even though that form of communication is being overrun, it was the prevailing way to communicate remotely for many years.

In 1985, America Online (AOL) was founded and it became one of the most popular early providers of Internet connections. A very popular social media medium is blogging which was started in 1997 and in the same year AOL Instant Message made its debut, allowing people to chat online3.

I am listing this history of social media to highlight the fact that the social media did exist since the early 70-es, even though it had still to develop in the way it is now, with Facebook and Twitter, it still played a role in many aspect of

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1 Webster Dictionary 2012, pg. 135
2 Van Dijck, Jose The Culture of Connectivity: A Critical History of Social Media, January 30, 2013, pg 34.
3 http://www.inquisitr.com/830664/the-history-of-social-media-when-did-it-really-begin-you-may-be-surprised-infographic/
the actual time. Through crude and not overly developed the actual chat rooms and the instant texting of the time played a very big role in the way many crises were managed, especially the crises of Kosovo.

1.1 The purpose and objectives of the study

The object of this study is to demonstrate the role that the primary forms of the social media, such as chatrooms, blogs and communities on the web played during the Kosovo crisis, in not only serving as main points of information, especially for the youth of population but also in providing help and donations to the refugees hosted in Albania and Macedonia.

1.2 Research question, hypothesis and methodology of the study

This work is a description of the situation that developed in Albania and Macedonia in 1999-2000, during the Kosovo war and the way most of the donations and information were provided by the social media more then the other legal authorities such as media or the Public media. The different data was collected through different sources, mainly statistical ones which are detailed in more depth in part fifth.

Our working hypothesis is: Did the social media played a role in the Kosovo Crises?

1.3 The importance of this research

Even though has been many studies for the role the media played in the war of Kosovo, there is next to none regarding the role the social media played, and it also hold significance in my doctoral theses, “The media impact in Kosovo’s Sovrainty. The data obtained from the field and different roars processed under the program SPSS Advanced Statistics

1.4 Social media in Albania and Macedonia

The two main countries that assisted the population escaping the war of Kosovo during 1999 were Albania and Macedonia, where the main part of the migrating population found refuge. Of course there were many more countries that helped with donations and asylum for the escaping refugees, but the main points of recollections were the above mentioned countries. Now even thought the general technological development in these countries were not par to the rest of the world they still had a significant investment in technology and mainly in the computer and internet industry. The more popular ones were the internet-cafes, which reached a percentage of 34% in Albania, area coverage and 58% in Macedonia, area coverage. It is also interesting to mention that the main target of these internet cafes was teenagers and youth whom used them mainly to connect to the outside world across the border of their countries.

This is a general picture to illustrate that even though isolated and not very free to move at the time, the youth of these two countries were actually practicing a basic form of social media at the primary form in the earliest at the time of Kosovo war. The main way of communication was the blogs or specific chat rooms in Yahoo or Hotmail and even AOL, though the later was not as popular as the first two. In a way, considering Albanians mostly, these blogs and chat rooms were the main way to exchange information between citizens inside these countries and the ones that were living abroad. It had discussion starting from the basic personal questions of “what do you do for living” to the most hot political issues, regardless of the country that they were developing.

This is the main picture of the actual technological development in these countries at the time. I put these here to actually demonstrate the connections of these two isolated countries to the rest of the world, regardless the fact that both were very fragile countries at the time, coming out of a very deep isolation, Albania more so then Macedonia. Also it is to demonstrate the fact that even though at a first glance these two had no strong connections to circulate information as it was used to at the time, they still had a very strong connection to the external world due to the internet chat rooms and the blogging, and also they were investing in maintaining whole WebPages in the format of communities.

So even though the social media of the time was nowhere as we know it today, and even though the technological

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development was still in the early phases of evolving in these countries, they still practiced the basic form of social media, even though it was mainly to overcome their isolation to the rest of the world, they still made the most of it.

It is of particular interest to mention that the other forms of the electrical media were at the beginning at the time and they didn’t offer that much information as the actual ones do, so that the internet and the chat-rooms or communities were considered as one of the main sources of information.

1.5 Social media and the Crises of Kosovo

The role that the media played during the war of Kosovo is a much heated debate then most of the actual issues in the world; however this is not part of this research. The main point of the paper is the role the social media played in providing facts and help in the aiding of the refuges of Kosovo war. The data below was collected using different resources such as statistic publications of Albania and Macedonia Institute of statistics, and also international publications of statistics such as Gallup and Institute of Media in Albania. Also in 2004 a poll was conducted by the graduated students of the Department of Journalism in Tirana, in Albania’s and Macedonia’s three high schools whom are integrated in the below data.

It was a way for the at the time graduating students to measure the impact of the electronic media in the perception and the role that the blogs and the chat rooms played in the gathering of information and the forming of opinions. The main hot topic at the time, due to the situation in the Balkans, was Kosovo and the war that had ended only four years ago, but since the situation was still unresolved it has still a hot topic.

The poll interviewed the students which were at their last year in 2004, but whom actually were at the first year of high school when the war finished. They were posed a total of four main questions which are posted in the below section. The interest of the time was how much the internet and chat – rooms were used as a primary mean of information. However what came out is better represented in the below data. Also to maintain transparence the students participating on the poll were all of Albania nationality. The schools involved in the polling was Sami Frashri, Cajupi and Qemal Stafa in Tirana, Albania, graduating class of 2004 and "Josip Broz – Tito", Orce Nikolov, College of Europe, in Skopje, Macedonia. Total of participants in the poll were around 700 students.

1.6 Analyses, Data Interpretation

According to the information we have received from the students it shows that 19% of them new about the war due to public media, while 11% of the students knew because they had a family member in Kosovo, as 5% of them claimed that knew because of other friends, while according to data shows that 65% of the students declared that they were using specific communities and chat rooms to get the information in the Kosovo crises. The data shows the main source of information at that time was what we should consider as the social media at the time. It is interesting to note that the one that claimed the chat rooms and communities as the main source of information also gave specific names of them and that they were members as early as 1998 in them in some cases, especially in the Macedonian high schools.

On the question relating to if they knew about ways to give donations to help the refuges of the war and to rebuild the war ruined country and how there were these responses, 36% of adolescents indicate that they had learned it in the chat rooms, 31% receive the message due to advertising in the public media, while 25% of teenagers claimed that they knew

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because their family or a friend had done a donation. Only 8% of adolescents indicate that they didn’t know because they were not interested. By this data we can deduce that the main point of information regarding the situation and humanitarian aid was gather thru media and the main one thru social media. Only a few of them claimed that they didn’t know and they came mainly from social welfare.

Another question was how did you got in contact with the specific chat rooms and communities discussing Kosovo’s Crises and we have the following information: because of my friend with 35% followed by the because of my brother 33% and 28% sister, because of my parents answered 4% and less importance attaches because of my boyfriend/girlfriend 1%.

The Next question was how many hours a day they spent in these chat rooms discussing the main topics of the Kosovo War and its development: 39% of respondents state that spend at least 6 hours a day, 31% said they had followed the discussing for 2-3 hours, 21% of respondents claimed less than 1 hour, and 9% of the students claimed they didn’t follow it at all. We believe that the actual data is more or less exact due to the fact that there had been evidence of the students spending the whole night in the above mentioned chat rooms.

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To back up the above data below is a graph of the information taken from the Institutes of statistics of Albania and Machedoni, the institute of Media and the Gallup institution in highlighting the data how the information was distributed in the Balkans in 1997-2004 41% of information comes thru chat rooms, blogs or communities, while those follow the Public media are 38%, regularly reading newspapers is 21% and the number those who use different of the above sources is 0%. 10 This shows that the main way of information back then were actually the chat rooms and communities even more then the electronical media11.

![Graph showing information sources]

2. Conclusions

As already demonstrated the main sources of information at the time to the crises the Kosovo was going thru were the chat rooms and the communities. Actually there were around 17 thousand chat rooms and communities at the time mainly ad operated by Albanians which were serving as a different source of information regarding the crises and possible ways to help the refugees. It provided a much more extended network then the actual media coverage, and it was so much more important because people were sharing ideas and information and were trying to come to the aid of those that were in the middle of a conflict12. One of the most not touched themes of discussions is the way the social media like chats and communities were utilized to make a connection between the nationals living inside Albanian territory and those outside it13, and the way it served as a communication way to provide help, donations and reunification for a lot of families divided by the war. So all in all the main conclusions are as below:

a. The social media impacted in the humanitarian part of the war of Kosovo
b. It provided information and help for the refugees
c. It established a communication road for the divided families
d. It impacted the new generation in becoming more active in the crises of Kosovo.

All in all social media is a powerful mean and no matter when it started or how many crises it influenced it need more study and control means to generate it in a useful tool for society.

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Trends in the Social Responsibility Expenditures of Small and Medium Enterprises from Oradea

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Abstract

In the context of corporate social responsibility studies there is a gap in understanding these actions at small and medium enterprises (SME). The processes stimulating social expenditures and the motivations in doing so at this level would provide useful information in explaining this phenomenon. At large corporations CSR is part of strategies, there are employees dealing with it managing CSR budgets. However only in smaller enterprises we can understand the decisions to invest in social actions, the domains of such actions and their perceived impact. Our analysis investigates the social expenditures in the form of donations and sponsorship registered by SMEs reporting profit in Oradea. The data was extracted from the National Agency of Fiscal Administration regarding expenditures of small and medium enterprises in 2013. There are 20% of all SMEs that declare such costs, a percentage that we consider is significant for this phenomenon. In this paper, we explore the extent to which these investments vary depending on the size of the enterprise (measured as business rate and number of employees), profit and domain. As expected the bigger the firm, the higher are the chances to donate money and also the amount donated is higher. Future studies should focus on qualitative data mostly motivations of such expenditures.

Keywords: corporate social responsibility, social involvement, small and medium enterprises

1. Introduction

The interest regarding the social involvement of companies has reached high levels in the last years, even if from a research standpoint the benefits can be contested (McWilliams et al. 2005). Practitioners are interested mainly in the effects of such actions for the companies, while lobbyists and policy makers are interested in the community level effects. Beyond the many controversies regarding to which forms of involvement are most important, there is a general agreement that enterprises can contribute positively to development.

Donations and sponsorship are considered at the top of social responsibility actions, as a concrete and specific form of involvement. Other forms include different level policies (environmental protection, human resources, customer relations, etc.) and actions towards the satisfaction of requests of different stakeholders. Social responsibility is traditionally associated to large companies, multinational corporations however several studies reveal that this is an attitude which may characterize all type of organizations: large and small, public and private, governmental and non-governmental.

In this paper we focus on one of the classical forms of social responsibility of firms – the expenditures for social causes from small and medium enterprises (SME) in Oradea - Bihor County, Romania. This topic is a part of a postdoctoral study regarding the social involvement of Romanian organizations, study in which we try to identify both the forms of such actions, as well as their causes and obstacles. So far we have observed significant information that for Romania it is important to analyze these processes for small and medium companies. Mechanisms that trigger social involvement for these firms can hinder ways to promote such attitude from all companies. More, there is some evidence that the motivations and forms of social involvement of smaller companies bring closer theories of CSR to the one of individual community participation. Active citizenship is a concept that bridges the two directions as it widens the contexts in which social involvement takes place.

The analysis of this article started with the main question – is there enough evidence of social activity of SMEs?
Due to the availability of data we restricted our analysis to Oradea as we expect that in this regard the differences between counties should not be very large. More, knowing the fiscal facility regarding the deduction of taxes for donations or sponsorship we limited the search for evidence of social involvement of small and medium enterprises in Oradea, Bihor county to this form of action. We are aware that there are other ways SMEs may get involved in their community, however this is one of the key forms considering CSR theory, and thus defining for this phenomenon. The first question this paper is answering is to what extent small and medium enterprises from Oradea donate money as social involvement actions? More, aiming at the characterization of this process we answered to the second question: which are the firm level characteristics that stimulate such actions?

2. Social Responsibility: Discourse or Reality?

2.1 General framework

Social responsibility of organizations can be considered a new paradigm regarding business-society relationship (Saveanu et al., 2014). The topic has gained high notoriety in the last two decades both from theoretical and practical perspectives. Nonetheless theoreticians did not yet reach full consensus regarding the concepts used (corporate social responsibility or performance, corporate citizenship, corporate sustainability and the list can continue) as well as regarding what constitutes social behavior on behalf of organizations (Aguinis and Glavas, 2012). The most widely used concept remains corporate social responsibility (CSR) and the distinctions between this and other terms are not that clear-cut. In this paper we will refer to CSR, acknowledging that such social attitude can be observed generally in organizations private as well as public, large as well as small (Acar et al. 2001).

We are considering a narrow definition of CSR as “actions that appear to further some social good, beyond the interests of the firm and that which is required by law” (McWilliams et. al. 2005, p. 3). A classical, yet broader, approach was developed by Carroll (1979, 1991) comprising all economical, legal, ethical and discretionary responsibilities of a company. We consider that the first two are mandatory to all firms and as such should not be considered when deciding when a company is socially responsible and not. Even following such an approach CSR can be contested as being purely discourse in the form of PR propaganda or another form of domination of large companies (Banerjee, 2007). The difficulties in assessing the impact (Barth et. al. 2007) rise also questions regarding which actions are relevant in considering social responsibility and also which are the more profitable investments for companies as well as for society as a whole (Knox și Maklan, 2004).

Measuring CSR is one of the core problems and a requiring critic within this topic. It starts with deciding which actions can be considered socially responsible ranging from mission statements to direct involvement in community programs. Some theoreticians argue that the motivations behind each action are the ones that make the difference between opportunists and “true” CSR, however practitioners consider that it should be a win-win context. If we disregard the reasons behind such actions one of the areas which does not raise question marks whether it represents or not social responsibility is represented by offering money to charities or social campaigns. Donations and sponsorships are at the top of CSR pyramid (Carroll, 1991). This is the level of CSR we focus on in this paper: the donations offered by small and medium enterprises in Bihor County. Information regarding the destination of this money was not available and consequently it is impossible to discuss the impact of these payments. More, qualitative data is needed in order to clarify the motivations behind these investments and the choice for the beneficiaries.

Regarding the factors that stimulate social responsibility the literature highlights both subjective (manager level factors such as motivations and attitudes) and objective factors. Lindgreen (2009) shows that the interests regarding different stakeholders changes depending the level of development of the firm. At the begging, with few employees and lower incomes, companies will be interested in primary stakeholders (such as clients), however as the company grows it integrates social objectives into its strategy and invests systematically in these actions. Consequently we will expect that this trend can be observed when analyzing small and medium enterprises (up to 250 employees), as we are investigating the relationship between the decision to donate money and the size of the firm.

2.2 CSR policy in Romania in the European context

European Commission uses the concept of social responsibility of enterprises as a larger context then corporate social responsibility. The definition is derived from the narrow approach of CSR as the “capacity of enterprises to voluntarily take up actions, beyond their legal obligations, to achieve social and environmental objectives in their everyday activity” [authors’ translation based on the definition posted on http://ec.europa.eu/social/main.jsp?langId=ro&catId=331].
However the levels considered by the Commission as relevant for enterprises in this matter are structured on the legal which is mandatory and voluntary: “integrating social, environmental, ethical, consumer, and human rights concerns into their business strategy and operations” (http://ec.europa.eu/growth/industry/corporate-social-responsibility/index_en.htm).

There are several documents assumed or agreed upon by the European Commission regarding CSR. These include policies promoting social responsibility of enterprises in Europe (Green papers and Strategies of CSR), standards and performance parameters (ISO 26000 Guidance Standard on Social Responsibility), evaluations and comparisons of achievement of these standards and the objectives set in the strategies.

Within the European frame, the social responsibility of small and medium enterprises was considered a priority of the European Alliance on CSR (COM (2006) 136). In the light if this approach SMEs are considered to have a great role in sustaining a responsible business environment and as promoters of such an attitude. However in consequent evaluations it was noted that the impact of CSR policy on SMEs is small as their social actions will be inconsequent and unintegrated in a strategic approach. Consequently the impact of such actions will be less relevant then those of large companies and programs proposed by alliances (COM (2011) 186). Nonetheless we consider that the European focus on SMEs’ CSR provide enough context for furthering research on this topic. Consequently we reflect in our study some of the efforts made in this regard by SMEs in Oradea, namely in the form of donations or sponsorship.

Through the European level studies and assessments of CSR impact, some conclusions regarding Romania can be drawn. Up to last year, comparative studies reveal the lack of maturity mostly by Romanian agencies in fostering CSR initiatives but also by Romanian business in engaging in such actions. Even if several steps were undertaken with the elaboration of a national strategy and the initiation of specific actions, these are fragmented, lack transparency, are dependent on external funding and are insufficiently monitored and reported (Williamson et. al. 2014). As such, the National strategy for promoting social responsibility (2011) has little visibility and was not translated into concrete action plans and steps towards its implementation. This strategy (2011) defines the national priorities in a wide range of domains from social security to work, environment and education. Both the priorities and the strategic objectives have a high degree of generality which make them harder to measure. The action plan presented in the end of this strategy defines general guidelines on each priority and sets responsibility areas; however it lacks concrete steps to be undertaken by each identified actor and, as so many other similar documents in Romania, remains without practical applicability.

If one considers the narrow view of CSR, the legal aspects are relevant if considered as facilities meant to stimulate such actions and not the mere obedience to the law. As such, in Romania there are several fiscal initiatives for enterprises meant to stimulate social actions. There are also more targeted initiatives regarding employment/human capital or the environment but these are not the object of the current analysis. We refer mostly to the Fiscal Code by which people can direct 2% of their taxes to a specific NGO (art. 84 (2)- (3)) or the deduction of 20% of the due tax of amounts offered as sponsorship or donations (art. 21, lit. p). These mechanisms stimulate directly enterprise philanthropy – the top of Carroll’s pyramid (1991). The promotion of these mechanisms in Romania is conducted mainly by the beneficiaries of such initiatives / NGOs whose activities can be financially supported with these sums.

In our analysis we focus on the latter instrument, the deduction of 20% of taxes for donations, aiming at the assessing the impact at small and medium enterprises in Oradea. More, we will also analyze the profile of the enterprises undertaking such investments.

3. Social Responsibility of Small and Medium Enterprises in Oradea

3.1 Research methodology

The objectives of this paper, were both to assess the extent to which small and medium enterprises use the fiscal facility of deducting up to 20% of taxes as donations or sponsorship, and also to analyze the profile of the SMEs which declare such costs. In order to achieve these objectives we analyzed data provided by the National Agency of Fiscal Administration regarding expenditures of small enterprises in 2013. We considered companies which registered profit as only these can deduct taxes as donations. The available data in order to have a homogenous sample included the whole population of small and medium enterprises.

The main data reflects the amount of money offered as donation or sponsorship. In order to create the profile of companies which have social investments, we collected also data regarding the size of the enterprise: number of employees, profit and turnover. Unfortunately there was no data available regarding the destination of donated money, data that would shape the profile of social investments of small companies.
3.2 Main conclusions

Out of the total 14,562 active SMEs registered in Bihor county in 2013 (according to the National Institute of Statistics: http://statistici.insse.ro/shop/), there are 2782 which declared profit to the Agency of Fiscal Administration. As presented in Figure no. 1, 18% offer different amounts as sponsorship or donations.

![Figure no. 1. Number of small enterprises from Bihor County offering donations, Agency of Fiscal Administration, own calculations](image1)

Even if this percentage seems rather small (and 3.4% is even smaller when reported to the total number of small enterprises), we consider that it is significant for social responsibility of these enterprises. This finding supports previous conclusions regarding the openness of micro and small enterprises in Romania towards social responsibility actions (Saveanu et al. 2014). We thus reinforce the conclusion that CSR of SMEs is an understudied phenomenon that should gain more attention by researchers.

The average money donated is of 2685 lei, about 600 euros. The data refeering the profile of donations is presented in table 1 and the normal distribution of the sums offered as donations can be observed in figure no. 2. Unfortunately there was no data regarding the destination of this money: NGO’s, campaigns, or individuals. This type of information is fundamental in a creating a complete picture of social actions supported by these firms.

![Figure no. 2. The distribution of donations offered by small enterprises from Bihor County offering donations, Agency of Fiscal Administration, own calculation](image2)
Table no. 1. Description of donations offered by small enterprises from Bihor County offering donations, Agency of Fiscal Administration, own calculations

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No. Cases</td>
<td>504</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>2685.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Std. Deviation</td>
<td>3821.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minimum</td>
<td>10.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maximum</td>
<td>37814.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sum</td>
<td>1353417</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
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Turning to the profile of the enterprises which financially support social actions, we investigated one of the classical determinants of CSR: size of the enterprise (Lindgreen et. al. 2009). Consequently we tested the relationship between the donated amounts and number of employees, profit, and turnover.

All three considered independent variables considered significantly correlate with the donations and sponsorship: turnover (p=0. 681, sig=0. 00), profit on reference year (p=0. 586, sig=0. 00) and number of employees during the reference year (p=0. 139, sig=0. 00). These data support the conclusion that the amounts donated by companies are increase along with the increase in profit, turnover and number of employees: as a firm is growing so are the chances it will display this form of social responsibility.

More, regarding the influence of profit we could investigate also rather there are differences between the forms that donate and those that do not. Again, through T-test we can highlight a positive relation: the average profit is significantly higher for the companies who donate money than those that do not (F=1. 74; equal variances not assumed; sig. =0. 00).

We need to compare the group of SMEs to large companies, and to make comparative analysis between the group of small vs. medium enterprises in order to generalize this conclusion. At this point we have found important evidence that within the small enterprises the social responsibility actions are influence by the level of development of the firms.

4. Conclusions

We can say that the incidence of the fiscal facility regarding tax deduction for donations and sponsorship is of 18% among the profit gaining small and medium enterprises in Bihor County. The factors facilitating such actions on behalf of enterprises are the profit, turnover and number of employees. Both the existence of donations, and the amount spent in this manner are influenced by these aspects related to the size of the firm – the richer and larger a small firm chances increase to donate, and the sums increase along with the development of such firms.

As mentioned above, this conclusion was validated solely for the small and medium enterprises and further analysis should extend the comparison with large enterprises. Nonetheless there is evidence to suggest the same pattern in general. Another limit is the result of the lack of information regarding the destination of this money. In order to complete the image regarding social responsibility actions at the top of Carroll’s CSR pyramid we need information regarding the actions that are actually funded through these donations and more information on how where these social actions chosen.

This paper fills in an important gap in the knowledge regarding CSR in Romania, as well as CSR within SMEs. The main conclusion is that within these enterprises there is an important orientation towards social actions which need to be understood better. More, understanding the mechanisms that stimulate the investment in social actions at the level of small enterprises would improve our knowledge regarding these processes and consequently would highlight methods for promoting social involvement of companies.

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The Role of Quality Management Practices in Improving the Efficiency and Effectiveness of Financial Services

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Abstract

Purpose – The purpose of this paper is to present a review of literature on the evolution and applicability of quality management practices in financial service organizations and key findings from secondary research in their efficiency and effectiveness. Design/Methodology/Approach – This paper presents some of the critical success factors and challenges that financial service faced by adopting quality initiatives. Also, it addresses benefits of Lean, TQM and Six Sigma which have improved performance in different organizations, by cutting costs and waste, as well as improving customer satisfaction. Findings – The result of this paper illustrates that most of the financial service organizations have adopted one or more of the quality initiatives in order to remain competitive. Some of them have faced difficulties during the implementation, because of the obstacles within organizations, which are more resistant to change compared to manufacturing ones. Originality/Value – This paper will have significant value to the financial service organizations and research community.

Keywords: Financial services, Quality practices, Six Sigma, Lean, TQM, BPR, Critical success factors, Challenges, Benefits

1. Introduction

The importance of quality management practices has increased lately in financial service organizations. They are trying to adopt quality initiatives, such as Lean, Six Sigma, TQM and others in order to flatten organizations, improve communication speed, reduce their costs, defects, waste, and understand what customers’ value in order to meet their expectations.

The areas which this paper discusses are the evolution of quality in financial sector, its reaction to adoption of quality programs accompanied by a brief difference between manufacturing and service organizations. Then, the quality management practices are analyzed by identifying two approaches, such as the applicability of quality initiatives in general based on surveys (Wilkinson et al., 1995) and Li et al. (2001), and specific quality initiatives used by financial service sector. After that, critical success factors combined with pitfalls are analyzed by illustrating managers’ contribution toward implementation of quality initiatives, as well as employees’ and customers’ influence on change and shift in organizational culture. Finally, this paper is followed by Quality management programs, such as Lean, TQM and Six Sigma by showing how financial service organizations have benefited from them.
2. Evolution of Quality in Financial Services (FS) - A Brief Discussion on Differences between Manufacturing and Service Sector

The global financial crisis has affected many industries, especially financial service organizations. In order to be competitive and remain in the market, financial service organizations are trying to adapt to the management changes and the complexity by implementing different quality initiatives to offer products and services with zero defects. Knights and McCabe (1997) state that in 1980s, competition was increased by having new entries in the market. In banking services, many customers were not satisfied with interest rates, so they changed the banks, or had second banking accounts. Longo and Cox (1997) pointed out that banks took in consideration their complaints, but the problem was that they were not doing things right initially. Because of new technology, high competition and high quality expectations of customers, companies needed to differentiate themselves by implementing quality initiatives. According to Knights and McCabe (1997), companies began to apply different quality initiatives, such as customer care, total quality management (TQM), business process re-engineering (BPR), team building, quality circles and others.

Companies adopted one of these quality initiatives, but the most challenges they face were associated with changes of existing organization’s culture and management styles (Knights and McCabe, 1997). Also, resistance to change in middle management was a problem for implementation of quality programs (Wilkinson et al., 1995). This showed that it takes time to enforce strategic change in organizational culture, because managers were using traditional way, and they were not willing to give power to employees and consider their suggestions (Knights and McCabe, 1997). According to Longo and Cox (1997), organizations should be more flexible and challenge the status quo practices in order to have transformation of culture that fit to the vision. Cultural change doesn’t involve only new norms and procedures, but also exchanging values and motivating employees to change their behaviors with new practices in place.

By adopting quality initiatives, most of the companies increased awareness of the importance of quality, which increased satisfaction of customers and developed communication within a company. Still, it is hard for them to measure the benefits of quality (Wilkinson et al., 1995). The majority of companies didn’t have an increase in profitability (Knights and McCabe, 1997). Also, Wilkinson et al. (1995) claimed that quality is expensive for companies usually in the beginning when they adopted one of the quality initiatives by hiring consultants.

The service and manufacturing companies are different in number of ways. According to Troy and Schein (1995), the main difference between them is that service companies are fully concentrated in customer service, while manufacturing companies are concentrated on productivity. Service sector takes in consideration employees’ views by different surveys and is likely to give recognition to them more than manufacturing companies. Also, Longo and Cox (1997) pointed out that there is a stronger relationship between managers and employees in financial service organizations comparing to manufacturing companies. However, the degree of the control of quality in manufacturing sector is higher than in financial sector because they control products before delivering to customers, while financial sector cannot control quality before having access with customers by providing service to them. Indeed, most of the organizations in financial services are enforced to implement quality initiatives. Top management should know the way to transmit changes that fit to customers’ needs and wants, as well as employees’ satisfaction.


In the literature, it is possible to find many studies about quality management practices in the financial services sector. These studies have been developed in two different approaches. The first approach is based on surveys related to the general application of quality management programs in the largest financial companies within different countries. For example, Wilkinson et al. (1996) explore different quality initiatives in 96 of the UK largest financial services companies and also, Li et al. (2001) reports the results obtained in the Hong Kong’s banking between 1997 and 2000. The second approach is related to the application of different quality management programs in specific cases as TQM, BPR and Six Sigma. In the next paragraphs these two approaches are outlined and some examples are used to support the understanding of the role of the quality management programs in financial services.

The first approach of the quality management practices in financial services consists of an analysis of the general applications of these initiatives. According to Wilkinson et al. (1996) the quality initiatives have permeated the financial sector; 91% of the organizations in their survey reported that they had implemented one or more quality initiatives. It was found that some companies use different initiatives according to different objectives. That is the case of BPR which is used to reduce costs, TQM has been seen as a holistic approach, culture change is related to the employees, and customer care and service quality are used to look at the customers. Other finding is that only the 12% of the surveyed financial organizations have perceived the implementation of quality initiatives as successful.
Li et al. (2001) applied the study done by Wilkinson et al. (1996) in the Hong Kong's banking industry. They found that “while UK institutions focus more on meeting customers’ needs and wants, HK banks tend to devote more effort to meeting service standards and providing prompt services” (Li et al., 2001: 516). According to the success in the implementation of these initiatives only 7% said that they were very successful. At the end, it was concluded that a bank with a small size should avoid the BPR and use the incremental change strategy, while a bank with a large size should keep no more than two programs launching simultaneously.

The second approach is related to the implementation of different programs as TQM, BPR and Six Sigma in financial organizations.

**BPR:** Drew (1996) realized a survey about the implementation of BPR to 228 senior executives in key financial centers across North America. It was found that the most important criteria for choosing BPR projects are major customer service upgrade and cost savings. BPR projects in financial service firms achieved considerable improvements in cost savings (more than 50%), but often they were implemented in short time scales.

**TQM:** Longo and Cox (1997). Longo (1994) examines different aspects of the TQM implementation in UK and Brazil. The main conclusion of this study is that TQM is at a more advanced stage in UK than in Brazil, but the Brazilian managers are more optimistic than UK managers. Other survey about implementation of TQM in financial services industry was applied again by Longo & Cox (2000) to the UK Northeast financial organizations. The main findings of this survey were that the major reasons for applying TQM are the competitive pressures, customer demand for quality and desire to reduce cost. Also, it was suggested that there is a positive link between quality, profitability, cost effectiveness and team work, even though there was evidence that “TQM is ineffective in reducing labor turnover or absenteeism” (Longo and Cox, 2000: 22). Llorens and Verdu (2004) analyze the relationship between the number of years that the firms have implemented TQM and the impact of their performance. It was concluded that “TQM produces improvement in the performance of the financial companies that implement it” (Llorens and Verdu, 2004: 116) and also, the pioneer companies in TQM have better results than other companies which take more time to implement it.

**Six Sigma:** Antony (2006) illustrates different applications of Six Sigma in financial organizations as the study done by Rucker (2000) in Citibank with significant reduction in the callbacks number, credit processing time, the cycle time between the order by the customer and the service, and statement processing cycle time. Other case is JP Morgan, which reduced “flaws in its customer-facing processes such as account opening, payment handling and cheque-book ordering” (Antony, 2006: 237). Jacobsen (2008) illustrates an application of Six Sigma in Latin-America in one of the world’s largest lenders with significant advances in response time for initial credit decisions. Cox and Bossert (2005) analyze the case of the implementation of Six Sigma in the Bank of America showing results as the drop of defects across electronic channels, decreased errors in all customers’ delivery channels and segments, as well as increase of new checking accounts.

In general, the success of quality programs depends of specific characteristics of each organization such as size, culture, employees, customers, region, time and objectives. Some of the programs are more effective in specific goals, and others are used as a holistic solution. It is a common practice to use two or more programs at the same time depending of the objectives of the organizations. These programs have shown effectiveness in the operation but they haven’t been successful in the human aspect.

### 4. The Critical Success Factors (CSFs) and Pitfalls/Challenges in Implementing QM Programs in FS

The research of any quality improvement program comprises the issue of what are the success and failure factors for implementation. The literature provides a number of factors which contribute to the successful application of these initiatives, also, it outlines the challenges that are inherent for financial service organizations. The analysis of critical success factors defines the key ingredients for managers to contribute to the development process to enhance their chances for success.

Due to the recent unprecedented recession and fierce rivalry, identification of vital factors of successful implementation of quality management programs in financial service organizations has become much more important. As Henk de Koning et al. (2008) state reducing operational inefficiencies in financial organizations are of a great importance, because they comprise more than 20% of the total banking sector costs. Many banks and other financial service organizations are more than ever before interested in reducing these costs via adopting formalized quality management techniques and tools. Considering the critical success indicators for adopting these initiatives are essential for these organizations. According to Ayoob et al. (2003), Drew (1996), who summarized critical success factors identified by quality management gurus, and also Laszlo (1999), Antony and Bonuelas (2002), Antony et al. (2007), some of the most important factors can be represented as following (see figure 1).
Among these number of critical success factors, some of the most important factors were discussed in the literature especially from the perspective of financial service organizations. For example, according to Longo and Cox (2000), the results of the questionnaires sent to the managers of branches and the back-office of the biggest clearing banks and building societies in the Northeast of England identified top management commitment to be the most important quality initiative driver. Also, the survey held in Hong Kong’s banking industry proved the top management commitment (75%) to be the main CSF for implementing quality initiatives. The other essential factor was employee involvement (69%) (Li et al., 2001). As Newman (2001) stated on behalf of Albrecht and Zemke (1985), Schneider and Bowen (1995), Johnson (1996), Zeithaml et al. (1990), the employees play the most significant role in service delivery process and the quality of provision of services to external customers are significantly influenced by them. Krishnan (1999) emphasized the customer focus which ensures customer loyalty and long-term profitability for financial organizations.

Extensive literature review points that implementing quality management programs in FS organizations faces more hurdles compared to manufacturing firms. As Huq (2005) stated, greater concern and concentration on internal performance features cannot be easily aligned with the permanent transformation of customer needs and preferences.

Service organizations cannot protect themselves from the erratic and irrational demands of the customers and conceal the operations from them because of the specific marketplace options.

A wide discussion of obstacles and challenges faced by these companies in the processes of deployment of various quality management initiatives comes up with a large list of them. The table 1 summarizes some of the important challenges mentioned by different authors as Gijo and Rao (2005), Larsen and Myers (1999), Antony et al. (2005) and Drew (1996) in accordance with the relative importance identified for each specific initiative.
The practical evaluation of these challenges was made in financial sectors in different countries. For example, the research of Hong-Kong’s banking industry after the Asian financial crisis in 1997 and UK banking sector revealed interesting data concerning the difficulties encountered during the implementation of quality management initiatives. The major difficulties in Hong Kong banks were barriers between departments (39%), employee resistance to change (34%) and organizational culture resistant to change (32%). In UK, the greatest hurdle which was identified is organizational culture resistant to change (65%), barriers between departments (49%), measuring quality (48%), middle management resistant to change (44%), and emphasis on short-term goal (42%) (Li et al., 2001). Drew (1996) identified other factors as well, such as skepticism and customer resistance, in the USA and Canadian financial industry which hindered significantly the deployment of the initiatives there.

Concluding this section, it is worth to mention that financial service organizations have limited application of quality management practices. As opposed to manufacturing firms where the quality improvement tools techniques within an initiative are fully deployed, financial service companies face more challenges to implement them. The presence of CSFs in these organizations is constrained due to specific dimensions of service sector. Nevertheless, the best practices of banks showed a realistic and deliberate approach of lessening those difficulties.

5. Benefits from the Implementation of QM Programs Such as Lean, TQM, Six Sigma

Many researchers have studied the benefits of the implementation of Quality Management initiatives in the Financial Services sector. These benefits differ according to the period of time and the program implemented. In this section, we...
outline the benefits obtained from the implementation of quality initiatives or programs such as: Lean, TQM and Six Sigma. Finally, we have some conclusions related to the differences and similarities among these initiatives.

Wilkinson et al. (1996) show that the most marked positive impact of the quality programs in the financial institutions in UK are the increase in quality awareness, customer satisfaction, teamwork and communication, but aspects as absenteeism and turnover are not impacted in a positive way by the quality programs. In their findings, Li et al. (2001) mention that the most relevant benefits from the introduction of quality initiatives in the Hong Kong’s banking industry are the customer satisfaction, efficiency and quality awareness but in a lower percentage of the companies surveyed compared to the study of Wilkinson et al. (1996), also it was indicated that apparently these programs do not have high effects over human factors, such as employee empowerment, employee turnover and employee absenteeism. It can be induced that there are similar results according to the benefits from the introduction of quality programs in both studies but they have had better effects in the UK financial services organizations.

Benefits in Lean: Lean is one of the quality initiatives that organizations use to improve performance of operations by efficiency, and reducing waste and costs. Planning and controlling operations efficiently is very important, because customers’ satisfaction depends on them (Slack et al., 2007). There are some financial service organizations that benefited by implementing lean techniques at low cost. According to Frost (2007), lean is very useful in financial services because it focuses on just in time and quality, which reduces costs of operations. By using lean, financial services reduced activities that are not valuable to customers and used this time to focus on processes which increase value to them. Boston Consulting Group (2008) states that banks should define operation model, find ways to implement changes by analyzing current culture, performance management, structure and costs. Teams are organized to make transformation of tools for improvement of operations. Then banks should focus on continuous improvement, which means when organizations meet demand by reducing the waste, and maintaining quality (Slack et al., 2007). This can be done by training specialists to transfer knowledge of lean techniques throughout the organization. For example, a bank simplified the forms for loan approval by three days, which improved quality and added value to customers (Frost, 2007). Moreover, Boston Consulting Group (2008) discovered that customer had to wait four days for loan approval, and this was transformed to immediate approval, which increased customer experience and loyalty.

Carlebach (2007) points out a retail bank in UK, Barclays, which has used principles of lean that brought huge benefits. They focus on what customers’ values in order to reduce waste and increase their satisfaction. Barclays benefited from lean by using value stream because of the problem of fraudulent online transactions. Introduction of lean techniques was done to fraud management team, such as listening to customers and know their needs, analyzing the current situation and implementing techniques to eliminate waste. In the end, this change was communicated to all levels of organization. This empowered employees, and motivated them to be more productive, as part of the change process in organization. Also, customers that were victim of fraud were refunded within one day, not three days as before and customers’ complaints were reduced by 75%.

Benefits in TQM: Longo and Cox (2000), found that the implementation of TQM in the financial services organizations have had significant benefits in the increase of quality initiatives, customer satisfaction, number of customers and the profitability of the company showing a positive relationship between quality, profitability, cost-effectiveness and teamwork; however, they also discover that there are other expected effects, such as increase of employee morale, reduction of the labor turnover and decrease of absenteeism where the TQM has been ineffective.

Benefits in Six Sigma: Attenello and Uzzi (2002) recommend Six Sigma as an interesting alternative to have long term improvements in the quality of the financial institutions. Thus, there were mentioned six different benefits that the financial institutions can obtain applying Six Sigma. The first benefit is the more comprehensive understanding of the customers’ requirements. The second is the reduction of cost because of the prevention of errors and elimination of rework and workarounds. The third is the help to the managers to make decisions based on statistical data and hard facts and not based on perceptions. The fourth is a “better understanding of what drives customer loyalty and how to build long-term and more profitable customer relationship” (Attenello and Uzzi, 2002: 19). The fifth advantage is the fact of avoiding radical cost savings measures that can damage the employees’ morale, and the last benefit is that Six Sigma helps to bridge the gap between strategy and operations because of the possibility to link the performance measures to the business goals.

Antony (2006) presents the benefits from the adoption of the Six Sigma in service oriented companies. These benefits are the following: effective management decisions, increased understanding of customer needs and expectations with a great impact on customer satisfaction and loyalty, efficient and reliable internal operations, which leads to a higher market share, improved knowledge on tools and techniques for problem solving which have a positive impact on job satisfaction for employees, reduced number of non-value added operations which leads to a faster delivery of service, reduced variability in service performance, transformation of organizational culture to a proactive thinking and the last is
the improved cross-functional teamwork. Antony et al. (2007) report other benefits achieved from the successful implementation of Six Sigma projects in service companies, such as improved customer satisfaction, reduced defect rate in service processes, reduced variability of key service processes, improved culture, reduced process cycle time, reduced service operational costs and increased market share. In the banking industries, they find evidence of reduction of customers complains and increase of customers satisfaction in Roberts (2004), reduction of internal and external call backs and reduction in credit processing time in Rucker (2000), significant reduction in the number of returned renewal credit cards in Keim (2001), reduction of trading errors and order corrections in Stusnick (2005), and more benefits in other financial companies, such as reduction in administration costs and reduction in the wire transfer processing time to customers.

It can be concluded that, in most of the cases, the implementation of quality programs in financial service organizations has brought high benefits in customer satisfaction and loyalty, efficiency, profitability and cost reduction, but these initiatives have not had a very positive impact in factors as increase of employee morale, reduction of absenteeism and decrease of turnover. It is explained by the radical decisions that have to be taken in the implementation of some quality programs. In general, the only program which has shown good benefits in the employees’ environment is Six Sigma; the reason is that this program avoids radical cost savings measures that can damage the employees’ morale (Attenello and Uzzi, 2002).

6. Conclusion

Even though the majority of financial service organizations have adopted quality management programs, not all of them have achieved significant growth. There are many challenges that managers have to overcome. They understand why changes are needed, and the benefits that they will get by adopting quality programs. New skills and training are needed, and managers should spread the changes toward all levels of organizations, in order to ensure that they understand new ways (George et al., 2004).

The success of these quality programs depends on specific characteristics of each organization, such as size, culture, employees, customers, region, time and objectives. It is needed to consider various critical success factors such as top management commitment, employee involvement, customer focus and others to ensure the success of their implementation. Financial service companies face much more challenges to implement quality programs than manufacturing firms due to specific marketplace choices and other limitations of this sector. However the analysis of financial industries of different countries represents that the importance of the hurdles faced by them has a great variation from one country to another. It can be also concluded that these programs have shown high benefits in the operation, profitability and customer satisfaction in financial sector but they haven’t been successful in human aspects.

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Albania, a Hybrid System with Reflexes of Post-Communist Political Elite Reproduced from the Past

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Abstract

The article sheds light into the relationship of Soviet-type political patronage applied in Albanian communist political elite, as well as the impact on communist political elite. The main task is to define whether post communist Albanian elite is a reproduction of old nomeklatura, or a mere circulation of it. Albanian political reality is comprehended via theoretical variables such as accumulated political capital, strong cult of leadership and principle of political centralization. Unfortunately, studies, research and academic papers agree that Albanian post communist political elite is more a case of reproduction rather than circulation.

Keywords: transition, democracy, the political elite, reproduction, patrimonialism.

1. Introduction

After 1989 - with the collapse of the communist system in Eastern Europe, post communist system which is in its infancy must deal with ongoing transition and daunting challenges at the same time. Most importantly of all, the political transition which in itself means change manners of government, political elite and system mentality, combined together may result on producing democratic, authoritarian regime or something in between in the form of a hybrid system.

Focusing on Albanian case, the transition status is dominated by remnants of the past. Power handover is done by reformer elements from within the Communist authorities, who control and therefore monitor the process. Consequently, what happens is the colonization of plethora economic and political structures by forces of the past regime. (Diamandouros and Larrabee 1996).

Among the main reasons that make it difficult for a smooth transition from communism to democracy is the lack of a new democratic political elite. The immature attitude of new Albanian politicians is somehow accepted given an elite dominated by conversion at the last moment of former members of communist intelligentsia members to the so-called "new Albanian democratic elite" (Shinasi Rama 1999; Odin Lekve Alvsåker; Gerxhani, Klarita; Schram, Arthur 2000; Ilir John 2004). So communist legacy has strongly induced in shaping the Albanian political elite, which has had a considerable amount of impact in the product of the Albanian political system as well as the transition to the present day.

As Field, Highley and Burton concur "the character of a political system actually varies to a great extent on the type of relationship between the elites and their characteristics (Field et al. 1990; Higley / Burton 1998). This is particularly true in the case of transformation of the system in which elites play a key role in establishing the institutions (Kaminski / Kurczewska 1994.) Otherwise put by Pareto and Marks: "Revolutions are above all, issues of transformation of elites, or otherwise substitution of elite by another" (Vladimir Shlapentokh, Christopher K. Vanderpool, Boris Zusmanovich Doktorov, Croatia Dusko; Frane Adam / Matev. Tom.ić).

1.1 Understanding post communist political elite through reproduction theory and soviet model of patronage politics

Theoretically there are two main trends that explain the impact past legacy has with the creation of the post-communist elites: that of reproduction and circulation of elites.

Reproduction theory suggests that revolutionary changes in Eastern Europe did not affect the composition of the social elite. This is because the old nomeklatura elite has managed to survive at the top of the class structure and is now becoming the new propertied bourgeoisie. On the contrary the circulation theory claims "new blood" with democratic principles is recruited on the highest political decisionmaking hierarchical levels. In order to understand if the dominant phenomenon is that of reproduction or circulation is important to analyze the rapport of old nomeklatura with the current political power influencen. The higher the legacies of old nomeklatura mentality and representation it is, the deeper the
level of political, social and economic power concentrated on it (Szelenyi / Szelenyi 1995, 616).

Authors agree that the dominant view of elites in Eastern Europe is that of "reproduction." The Hungarian author Hankiss and the Polish Jadwiga Staniszki have offered similar versions of this approach. As early as 1989, Hankiss suggested that the old nomenklatura elite would become the new "grande bourgeoisie" with the marketization of the economy. Around the same time, Staniszki began to write about the emergent "political capitalism" of postcommunist Eastern Europe. In her view, the former nomenklatura uses its political power to gain private wealth. Staniszki and Hankiss both agreed that the process of privatization would benefit the Communist political class, which could retain its position at the top of the class structure without any constraints. In general terms, this theory suggests that one may expect a high degree of elite reproduction in countries where negative political capital inherited from the past exists, as well as in countries in which there was no counter-elite. By contrast, a high degree of elite circulation is expected in countries where the accumulation of capital is positive and old nomenklatura did not become the new bourguise or in countries with well-formed counter-elite.

Studies provide evidence, that the more concentrated the accumulation of past legacy and political capital based on one-party political systems and hyperbolization of the personality cult figure of the state, the higher the level of reproduction of elites is. Balkan countries, in general, and especially Albania as the most extreme case, are characterized by vertical use of power and negative legitimacy of political capital. The latter reflects absence of pluralist political structures, minimum familiarity with practices of free elections, respect of election outcome, respect for law, guarantee of rights and fundamental freedoms, and other attributes that can be considered as elements of a consolidated democracy. Such practices are contributions to the "capital of democracy", the presence or absence of which may affect the ongoing transition to democracy or its consolidation. This lack of accumulation of "capital of democracy" is inherited because of the strict Soviet patronage model of politics that Albania adopted. The traditional Soviet political system has been hierarchical and highly centralized. There have been no alternative sources of power outside the unified set of party and government hierarchies. In this model power is concentrated in a rigidly hierarchical decision-making system where there is no viable political opposition. Political elite recruitment and circulation were based on a clientelistic relationship with the state party. Thus, individuals active in political life often must rely upon additional, informal mechanisms to enhance their positions and advance their interests. Among such informal mechanisms are individualized, reciprocal, political relations that often culminate in networks. Such personalized, reciprocal, political connections are what Willetton on his book "Patronage and Politics in the USSR "refers to as patronage personalized political relationships (John Willerton, 1992)

In countries such as Albania and most of the Balkans (excluding Slovenia and Croatia, and countries of the former Soviet Union (excluding the Baltic countries) communist elites still continue to maintain their grip on power even with the switch of system (Frane Adam / Matev. Tom.ič 2002). In these countries, the legacies of the past and negative accumulated political capital reflect political power transmission of old nomenklatures from social and political to economic. In this circumstance political elites survive by using their resources and connections. This hypothesis stresses the fact that the reproduction of elites is the main characteristic of socialist countries in transition (Hankiss, 1990; Stanizki, 1991; Wasilewski, 1998; White and Krystanovskaya, 1998).

1.2 Perception of the Albanian post communist political elite status

Referring to the Albanian case, most of native authors and researchers agree that, the communist party modified itself; as a result the reproduction of elite is massive. Furthermore they believe that political elite is characterized by an authoritarian and despotic mentality, always in the need of a central figure.

In his article "Transition, Elite Fragmentation and the Parliamentary Elections of June29, 1997" Shinasi Rama, point out that the Albanian political elite party is extremely polarized due to reflection in its entirety of their Communist predecessors. Much of the new political elites is composed of former communist intelligentsia, without political experience, although to its ranks you will find members of the class previously excluded by the Communist Party. According to the author, communism has not perpetrated the culture of tolerance and curbed the development of negotiation, compromise and coalition building skills between political elites (Shinasi Rama, 1999). So imminent and visible is past legacy impact in new elite set up that authors like Klarita; Schram, Arthur, Vickers and Pettifer, Shinasi Rama refer to inherited clan culture as the telltale characteristic of political elites. Young politicians are promoted on the basis of family ties as well as the position they have had in communist society. Clan mentality as seen during Hoxha regime who promoted in key leadership positions people mainly from South Albania was maintained fervently by Sali Berisha who did the same with young politicians coming mainly from the north (origin area of former chairman of the Democratic party). Not only that, but because of isolation during Hoxha regime, anticomunism seemed to be strongest
and more evident in Northern Albania. The geographical origin of Communist Elite members is mostly Tirana and South Tosca (Vickers and Pettifer 1997). According to the authors during the years 1956-1961 and 1981-1986 out of 100 members of the Politician Bureau with five-year terms- 82% originate from the south, while 18% from north or central Albania. The same trend in reverse is seen when Berisha comes to power, significantly increasing political clan heritage as well as strengthening the north vs south influence. To shed more light, authors have analyzed the trends among public administration servants as well as voters behavior (for more details see Vickers and Pettifer numerical 1997; Gerxhani, Klarita; Schram, Arthur, 2000).

Similar conclusions are made by Costa Bajraba in the study on "New Transition: Elite’s roles and prespective". According to him, the political class after the transition reflects the same mentality of the former communist system. The political elite is continuation and personal choice of the old elite (Costa Bajraba 1998). The above conclusions are based on 90 interviews conducted during 1993-1996 made up by 25 leaders of political parties, members of government and parliament, 20 university professors, 15 artists and writers, 15 journalists, 15 military and religion representatives. The interviews focused on capturing information on culture, judgments on the system of the past, involvement of women in politics and society, religious affiliation, experience and relationship with the West, expectations and perspectives on future of Albania, affiliations etc.

While the next study "Creating leaders in Macedonia and Albania; can elites promote positive change? " targets distinctively two periods, that of 1980-1990 and 2005 and ongoing. To tackle some of the implications made above researchers have interviewed 50 representatives of political, economic and cultural elite for both periods. From the responses, it appears that after system collapse, old political elite has been replaced, but again a majority of the respondents think that a considerable part of the old elite employed in old party structures are part of new political parties and governance structures. According to the respondents, one of the arguments to support this assertion clearly related to the fact that normal recycling is not happening because of 3-4 central political figures coming from the old Communist regime. While between the two major parties, opposing opinions regarding meritocracy and elite status exists. So the right wing thinks most of leftist members come from communist origin, which is rejected by the left who counter attack saying they are meritocratic elite. As far as values, the results seem to be controversial in response to elites between the two aforementioned periods. Elites of 1980-1990 period think that society has remained essentially conservative, as evidenced by the mere fact key leaders come from the Communist past. Whereas elite from 2005 and onwards, think that Albania walks in the spirit of democracy. Both generations though, believe that the political approach is the basis of an unfair competition and that the role of intellectuals is much lesser than that of businessmen involved in politics.

Two of the aforementioned studies in different way, bring to attention the fact that the old nomenclature involvement in post-communist elite is present. The political elite reflect not only continuity, but also the absence of a meritocratic selection system, where the cult leadership and application of political power remains mainly vertical. Meanwhile, recent study pinpoint a presence of new elites after 2005, which seems to have been educated in the West, as well as articulate their belief in a Albanian guided by democratic values.

This elite typology seen in Albania with strong Russian dominationi and low socio-economic standing has clear predisposition to create authoritarian institutions or hybrid regimes at best. (O'Donnell in Diamond in Marks et al, 1991: 114). Moller in his work "Post-Communist régime Change, A Comparative Study" shows that heritage as an independent variable is essential in three variables namely the balance of power in other post-communist countries, economic reforms and set up of democratic institutions. Legacy of the past as the variable in itself is based on two "master variable", development of the bureaucratic state and activism of civil society. (Kitschelt, 1999 we Moller 2009). The last three variables are part of the visible second phase product (outcome) which directly reflects the heritage of the past which lies in the invisible part (input). At the same time, three of the above variables are considered to be affected by the behavior, customs and cooperation between politican elites, which all together create regime structure that reflect them. The stronger the legacy of the past in terms of a closed bureaucratic state and inactive civil society the the more disbalanced the post communist power will be leading to poor economic reforms, weak institutions, and keeping the system in a hybrid status quo. Odin Lekve Alvsåker in his work "Between Communism and Democracy Why regimes Postcommunist get" Stuck in Transition », interestingly makes the point that through the years 1994-2008 Albania remains rather a hybrid country with a weak democracy.

As a result of polarized political elite that carries the values of the past, there is an alarmant lack of political dialogue, state institutions remain predominately politicized, with a highly disappointed electorate and above all a civil society that is passive and politically dependent in its majority. (Kajsiu et al., 2003: 20-24). These effects are also reflected in the latest report on the practices of respect for Human Rights of 2013. In which Albania is ranked among worst countries with little electoral progress, lack of harmonized political dialogue among the key stakeholders and lack of
social equality inclusion into political layers, biased and politicized media, corrupt governmental practices in public funds, etc. Situation seems to get worse with time as evidenced by recent studies. So, if in 2008 Albania ranked 84th out of 180 countries in the Transparency International Corruption Perceptions Index, in 2013 it descended further low, ranked 116th out of 177 countries. In measuring corruption the index refers to parameters such as dirty money laundering, corrupt political financial affairs, abuse of public assets as well as building non-democratic and transparent state institutions.

Based on the logic described above, in which the behavior of the political elite is placed in direct correlation to the overcome of transition and development of democracy, reports studies and research analysis, clearly point out the fact that Albanian political elite has not passed the class. Thus, a hybrid system that reflects a reproduced political elite is created. The most representative metaphor seems to be the phrase “Plus ca change”. Meaning a lot has changed but still everything remains the same. Albanian post-communist political elite, has changed its “costume”, but not its essence. Unfortunately, Albania remains a hybrid system with reflexes of post-communist political elite reproduced from the past.

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Using Social Holistic Approach in Working with Children who are in the War Zone

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Abstract

Since beginning of the century to the present day, especially in Asia, Africa and Latin American countries in particular, the conflict violent and war still continues in many parts of the world. These events have a devastating effect to the whole communities. But children as silent victims, during and after these events are exposed to all kinds of neglect, abuse, death and human rights violations represent a major victimization. Living in conflict and violent environment is a tragic event for children and living in this environment, has negative effects on children's physical and psychosocial development. Many disciplines contribute to reduce or eliminate these negative effects. However, social work as distinct from other disciplines has multi-level interventions in order to find a solution to the problem at individual and community levels, as well as national and international level by using a holistic approach to reduce or eliminate the effects of violence and conflict on children. The social worker in this case of such conflict and violence and in particular to carry out work with children required to have special knowledge and skills. These interventions to protect children during and after the conflict realized by using various different skills. Gradually, provide services to children in safe places such as food, drink and services eliminate health problems, in accordance with protect the rights of children in conflict and violence. In the second stage; provide rehabilitation services to children who have been exposed to or witnessed violence and conflict events, lost one of their family members, who entered prison and lived in worst conditions and crippled. The third stage is the stage of the reconciliation. At this stage, social worker plays the role of mediator and prepares the ground for reconciliation to protect children on both sides of the conflict and violence. In this paper, will discuss how to implement interventions to address this issue with discusses Palestinian children, who are living on violence and conflict environment since many years as an example.

Keywords: Social Work, War, Conflict, Violence, Reconciliation

1. General Situation of Children During and After the Wars, Conflict and Violence

In today's world, millions of children are directly or indirectly becoming victims of war and or acts of terrorism. The political conflicts, civil wars, and terror are causing children’s death, injuries or disabilities. In such cases children lose their parents, relatives and friends. They also undergo through physical, emotional or sexual abuse and deprived of education and other social structures [7]. The UN Secretary General’s Report to the 59th General Assembly on Children and Armed Conflict in 2005 outlined practices constituting violations against children as follows: Killing or maiming of children, Recruiting or using child soldiers; Attacking schools, churches, mosques, or hospitals; Raping children, or committing other acts of sexual violence against them; Abducting children and Denying humanitarian access to children [8].

When looking at the problems that children experience during and after the conflict and violence, they can be summarized as follows:

2. Child Abuse and Neglect

War and the great social conflicts, are counted as factors from the social factors that cause child neglect and abuse. For being war and civil conflict exceptional situations, while the negatively impacts on the ability of parents caring for children on the one hand, also to be caused increasing tensions related to family life on the other hand, in this case, have
negative effects on children. Hence the war is among the important risk factors in child abuse and neglect [17]. In this context, children during and after the events of war and conflict, remain open to all kinds of abuse and neglect especially, sexual abuse, trafficking and abduction of children. Children’s living in war environment and refugee camps leads them to remain at risk of neglect and abuse as victims as well as being used as shields. Especially children who are abused as shields when they arrested by the occupation forces is a common condition suffered sexual and physical abuse in prison.

At this point, there are no any sanctions of international agreements and organizations responsible for protecting children who are in war environment, from exposed to neglect and abuse in the war environment, is an important issue that attracts attention. This is due to the existing laws might not be operating sufficiently in practice this means the neglecting the children.

3. Health Condition of Children

It has to be known that children who are living in war and conflict environment experience both psycho-social and serious health problems as a result of being witness to acts of violence. Some of these problems are listed as; disability as a result of serious injury, the loss of children's lives during surgical operation as a result of not being able to provide the drugs to injured children or prevention from accessing the drugs by the children and the lack of medical supplies.

These children, who are living in unusual situations of war, experience Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD) especially when the safe places such as schools, mosques, churches that they took refuge are attacked and transformed into dangerous places. Also, some health problems expected such as death, injury, disability, illness from lack of food and beverages, can occur frequently for children living in war and conflict environment.

4. The Use of Children as Soldiers

Use of children as soldiers in war and conflict in torn societies, is a widespread and universal problem. However, the ongoing civil war and conflicts in African countries has become a social and political phenomenon and symptoms of it appears to be destructive, complex and common [8]. Child soldiers experience various psychological, social and physical problems such as trauma, depression, anxiety, learning problems, attention disorder, Post Traumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD), dietary deficiencies, infectious diseases [12]. Even when children are not used as soldiers, using them as shields in order to resume the events of conflict is widespread.

The International Conventions in Line with Protection of Children Who are in Conflict and War Zone and the Execution of these Conventions

Conflict and wars across the globe, are a situations that violates in heavy manner human rights and in particular children's rights. In such cases, using the children as soldiers or shields, and consequently death of them, physical injuries, experiencing psychosocial problems, entering prison, living in poor conditions are some of the expected results. In this direction, they are just international arrangements and intervention to protect children. Although there are many national and international regulations to protect children in situations of conflict and war, there is no visible serious application of these laws that can prevent children’s participation in the events of conflict and war, and preventing damage to the children. In such cases, a look at the decisions of the courts and international treaties relating to the protection of children in armed conflict and to prevent the participation of children in armed conflict shows the inadequacy of the applications in this regard.

Historical developments in international law on the prohibition of military mobilization of children date back to the 1970s. Along with giving concrete results of initiatives in the international arena regarding children’s rights, the international community’s interest in this issue has increased [3].

4.1 Convention on the Rights of Children

Based on the statement of Article 38 of the Convention on Child Rights, “In accordance with their obligations under international humanitarian law to protect the civilian population in armed conflicts, States Parties shall take all the feasible measures to ensure protection and care of children who are affected by an armed conflict” [16], the need for international cooperation in the protection of these vulnerable children has become an indisputable fact.

Today, UN resolutions, 1949 Additional Protocols of the Geneva Conventions, Statute of the International Criminal Court and their decisions and Special Court of Sierra Leone decisions are the most important international arrangements regarding the use of child soldiers [3]. In this context, the most important regulations for the protection of children in international law are:
4.2 Additional Protocols of the Geneva Conventions of 1949

The first regulation on the prohibition of military mobilization of children, can be found in protocols I and II additional to the Geneva Conventions. In the 14th article of Geneva Convention which was signed in 1949 for the protection of civilians in war, it counted children among those who need special protection. The additional one in 1977 has been updated in the first protocol. According to this, passing provision in the article 77 of 1st protocol is as follows: “The conflict parties shall take all measures to ensure that children under the age of 15 do not participate directly in hostilities; in particular shall prevent these children from taking part in the armed forces. However, people who are over the age of 15 but under the age of 18 in the case of taking them part in combat as soldiers, the conflict parties must try to demonstrate all the necessary measures to give priority to older children.” [3].

5. The Effects of Conflict and Violence on Children's Development

Everyone is not equally affected by violent event or disaster and all disasters are not devastating on an equal footing in terms of the psychological. For instance, refugees from war, political oppression, or political violence are also at high risk of adverse effects. In addition, the effect of the events that may have driven them from their homes, negative experiences in shelters and refugee camps (e.g., malnutrition, widespread infectious disease, rape and other physical assaults) may themselves produce adverse psychological effects and psychological disorders [6]. Mental and Physical health are linked and interact with each other. Mental health affects physical health and physical health also affects psychosocial development [10]. Children who are living in violent environments and have been exposed to violence generally show signs of Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD), which may be modified because of their age. Clinical evidence exist for disrupted patterns of eating and sleeping, difficulties in meeting and relating, anxious reactions, fearfulness, and re-experiencing the trauma, evidenced by behaviors as children cannot yet use language [11]. In general, exposure to violence in the social environment is a serious and significant risk factor for the development of psychopathology in children and adolescents. Studies documenting relations between violence exposure and aggression, depressions, anxiety, post traumatic stress (PTS) symptoms, and academic difficulties [5]. Many factors have a negative impact on children's psychosocial adjustment. Conflict and war events form these factors. Due to children being forced to struggle with living in violent environments like this, it is an unavoidable reality to live in psychological and social problems. Therefore, the negative effects of conflict and violence incidents on the psychosocial development of children are quite high.

Social Work Intervention for Children who are in Conflict and Violence Environment and Special Knowledge and Skills of Social Workers Required

There are many services social work profession can execute in the field of child welfare. Social work interventions for solving children's psycho-social problems that arise after the war and conflict can be realized at micro, mezzo and macro levels. These works are usually carried out in shelters, refugee camps and schools. At the micro level, social workers provide psycho-social support to children who lived in violent environments, this first method of aid those children need it. Social workers, who provide psycho-social support to these children, must have knowledge and skills on issues such as; cultural environment where children live, psycho-social development of children and adolescents, the methods of communicating with children, allow opportunities to children to express their feelings and to live emptying the emotional, and not talk about death.

War and conflict situations need to be addressed as crises situations as a result of devastation caused by it in the psycho-social and environmental conditions. In these violent environments, people especially children, are faced with lose are compelled to confront a sense of losing that extends from their material goods they have, as well as their loved ones. We need an urgent intervention to save children from violent events and from these situations prevent the psychosocial development of children. This intervention is crisis intervention, with a wide application area, that dating back from individual crises to social crises.

Psychiatrist expert Richman [13] has over 30 years of experience in working with children exposed to violence, whose book "Communicating with Children - Helping Children in Distress" has been a guide book for specialists working in different fields, specially to develop listening and communication skills for conflict situations and emergency workers, to determine the problems of children with special needs, to understand the different cultural ways of struggle with communication and stress and overcome communication barriers. Richman [13], in this study, listed the information that experts should have, to communicate with children and to help children who are living in danger, as follows:

- Communicate with children of different ages (here the skills must expert have been; listening, using body language, chatting)
• Meet with a child; establish a relationship of trust and being careful to his feelings
• Monitoring children
• Providing support and consultancy services for children (to comforting, understanding children tantrums and acceptance)
• Talking to children about death
• Methods of working with children who became disabled as a result of war and violence
• Communicate the child's family.

Social worker who are taking advantage from this methods Richman's has to offer to experts who are working in this field, can work with children affected by violence and can effectively provide psycho-social support to them. Children having lived in an environment of violence may cause learning violence. Therefore, this situation resulting in children resort to violence to solve their problems shows that the child's solving problems skills was influenced negatively. In order to correct the negative effects of children responses related to trauma that children experience after the violence on their psychosocial adaptation, social workers can provide care and rehabilitation services in both the individual and community levels. There are many psycho-social support programs for protection children from violence. These programs include services intended for psycho-social adoption of children who were exposed to violence. For instance, (Save the Children) describes three approaches regarding the content of the program [9] Approaches taken based on these programs can be expressed as follows:

• Curative programmes: are carried out in order to address diagnose and treat psychological effects of violence and trauma on children.
• Preventative programmes: that seek to prevent further psychosocial deterioration of children who have seen violence.
• Programmes that promote healthy psycho-social development: intervene in children by working together with parents, children and caregivers, this aims at helping children develop efficiently their coping skills towards negative life events. These programs are based on the developmental approach. These programs often are carried out in activities such as:
  • Community-based recreation, cultural, sports and similar activities provide opportunities for children to participate and to ensure their return to normal life as soon as possible;
  • As a guide, provide psycho-social support and financial support to parents.

Strengthening the role of schools as multifunctional centers. Some development programs focus on the returning back to normal the stable living conditions and the normalization of living conditions. Other programmes are more specialized, helping groups of children deal with specific situations through various methods, which often include creative means such as drawing and playing. These programs aim to strengthen children’s social environment, helping teachers and parents to support their children, and thus focus on increasing the level of knowledge. It is intended for future development programs such as the psycho-social well-being of children.

• The adoption of a broad community development strategy is the most effective way for the well-being of children who are affected by forced migration, conflict and violence, [1] it can be performed in the following steps:
  • enables individuals in the communities to begin to restore control over their own lives;
  • facilitates the development of community facilities, especially available to children such as schools, preschools, health facilities and recreational activities;
  • helps to restore or create a range of other supportive structures and organizations that support the children within the community;

In this context, psycho-social interventions must take place at the community level. These interventions are called (Non-specific psychosocial Interventions). These interventions include work such as stopping ongoing conflicts and providing shelter and safe areas, prevention of the current tensions as much as possible. These interventions provide repair or re-activation of the important curative and protective factors such as active participation, education and coordination of families to the improvement of community psycho-social well being.

There are a lot of factors that affect re-establishment of the network of social relations and psycho-social recovery in communities living in war and conflict environment. Death separation, alienation, and other losses experienced in the war, causes damage to the social values and customary practices. All they increase the psychological and social impact of war on children's mental health. Interplay of all these factors affect both a child's understanding and perceptions as well as lead to the emergence of some special symptoms in child. In order to ensure that restart the children, psycho-social health and a stable environment, require the provision secure environment to adult care, security, education,
participate in social activities and games to play.

Due to increasing awareness of these aspects of the recovery process, many NGOs have implemented programs of psychosocial support that specifically address the needs of families and children. Some of these programs focus on educating and supporting parents and teachers so that they in turn can support the children, whereas other programs involve direct work with children to help them process their traumatic memories through drawings, play or talking about what has happened. Although restoration initiatives have utilized both population-based and individualized approaches, they may necessarily involve simple and direct approaches due to limited resources and the large numbers of affected individuals. These may include, for example, training programs and initiatives aimed at educating community leaders to help in the psychosocial healing process. Individualized interventions are usually introduced after population based ones because of emergency conditions and the sheer numbers in need [4]. In general, the services provided to children affected by the events of war and conflict, are presented in the form of program or project. Social worker can be a part of these programs and projects, so the social worker, in order to eliminate the factors that impede children's psycho-social development, contribute in providing psycho-social adaptation of children using different techniques and provide psycho-social support.

Psychosocial refers to the child's inner world and the relationship with his or her environment. Psychosocial support is important in order to maintain a continuum of family and community based care and support during and after humanitarian crises like war and conflict and to prevent immediate or long term mental health disorders. Hence the access to humanitarian assistance and safety and security for the population is the cornerstone of psychosocial support during humanitarian emergencies. An important shift has taken place in psychosocial interventions from an individualized approach to a community based approach focused on enhancing the resiliency of children and families. The aim of psychosocial interventions is to address children's issues and needs in a holistic manner and to place psychosocial interventions inside wider developmental contexts such as education or healthcare. This will create an integrated developmental approach to promoting psychosocial wellbeing. To provide psycho-social care and support to children requires strengthening the capacity of teachers, caregivers and friends [2]. Here also should be noted that the role of schools in providing psycho-social services. Schools can play an important role in identifying and monitoring vulnerable children, enhancing their understanding of events, and providing personal support [1].

6. Case Study: Working with Children who are in Palestine's Conflict Environment

Majority of the children that are victims of the long-standing and on-going crisis and wars in the Middle East are experiencing partial education, health, care, psychosocial, and adaptation problems. To understand and grasp the real problems of these children, discussing Palestinian children who are victims of war and conflict for decades and taking them as an example can enrich our position.

Historically, children had been major victims of these events that began in 1948 and still ongoing until now. These events are not events that occurred and ended in certain date so problems caused by war and conflict since then are devastating effects on all generations. Undoubtedly, unless children are provided with peace the future generations will continue to be adversely affected.

Palestinian children witnessed and have been exposed to all kinds of violence as they grew up in war environment which started in 1948 and continue till the present day. There are some problems that Palestinian children, are facing due to the living in war environment. These problems as follows are [15]:

Death: in never ending war environment in Palestine there have been many massacres and the number of children who died in this massacre is quite high. Survive is the biggest problem of Palestinian children who are living in war conditions. Palestinian children are faced with death anytime and anywhere: at home, at school, on the road, in the hospital. In Palestine many homes and schools have been destroyed by bombs thrown by Israel. Hundreds of children have died under the demolished houses. Walking on the road has become the target of bullets fired by Israeli soldiers. Some children die from pain when removing the bullets that hit their bodies as a result of inability to receive the drug aid from other countries and power failure in hospitals.

Detention: Palestinian children are imprisoned for throwing stones at Israeli soldiers in inhumane conditions. Children detainees are exposed to intimidation, ill-treatment and torture during the arrest and detention. Despite the young age of these children are being tried in Israel's military courts. These children face many problems after their release from prison. These include psychological problems, living problems in adapting to family and school, fear of detention again, health problems and occurring problems from sexual abuse and torture in prison. Due to these problems children remain face to face with social isolation because they cannot adapt to society in their real-life.

Abused children from political parties: some of the political parties in Palestine are using children in combating
Israeli soldiers to achieve its objectives. Some of the children who were used have died or became disabled; some others arrested and were tortured. These children, who combat the occupying forces, generally live in lack of education and poor refugee camps.

Child Labor: poverty that has become more concrete with economic problems, unemployment, low wages, lack of social security, the bad and unbalanced diet, low living standards and other variables’ effects can be observed on the life of individuals, family and community. As a result of poverty in Palestine as well as in other countries, it is common to find children begging, selling handkerchiefs, working in industry, organizations, or as car launderer. However, a new way of working was born in Palestine, due to the war and the siege. This can be defined as “work in tunnels”. The materials brought by traders from Egypt such as flour, sugar, bread, thinner are carried by children throw tunnels. Due to the physical features of the children they can move freely in tunnels, children contribute to the family with the little money they earn from this work. Some children who are working in the tunnels know their parents were killed or had been disabled in the war.

Experienced health problems due to the siege and war: thousands of children became disabled in the war in Palestine. Some of these children will be disabled for the whole life. Children face more health problems because they have no treatment that they need since they remain under siege that causes poor nutrition and lack of medical supplies. It should be known that children experience very negative traumatic conditions because they live in constant fear as a result of events they witnessed, as well as witnessing the death of all or some of their family members.

Homeless children: the destruction of the homes of children that not only for the meet of their need for housing, but also feeling of being security, is another traumatic event for the children and their families and often takes a long time to overcome. Save the Children UK [14] has done a research about BROKEN HOMES Addressing the Impact of House Demolitions on Palestinian Children & Families. The study found that 97% (92 out of 95) of mothers and fathers whose homes were demolished suffer from trauma-related symptoms. Problems such as depression and isolation in children who had witnessed the destruction of their homes can be observed.

Immigrant children: It can easily be observed that children living refugee camps live in extremely poor conditions. Staying too long in these conditions causes negative impact on children's mental and physical health.

Violence in schools due to war and conflict: school children in Palestine still under the influence of the war they see in the street can apply the pattern of violent behavior against each other in school. It is known children are affected by the massacres they saw or experienced and cannot concentrate in classes. Children live in fear that the missile will strike at their school any moment.

Status of trauma in post war children: the effect of war environment on children and the trauma it causes differs from child to child. Some of the children are afraid of the sounds of planes and tanks, and don’t feel self-confident. Children hearing these sounds fear that they are going to die at any time. Children who witness death of family members or familiar people in this conflict and war are at greater risk of having psychological problems.

When looking at problems that arise for children living in war environment, it is possible to clearly see that they are in the situation of all kinds of national and international neglect and abuse. Despite the existence of national and international associations and organizations that are responsible for protecting children as well as contracts and agreements that were signed in and came into force, children’s rights are still being violated.

7. Conclusions and Recommendations

Protection of children in war and conflict situations, as well as a human task is a responsibility of the social work profession. It is a must to intervene to this problem in both in terms of existing international legal agreements at the macro level and preparing the ground of reconciliation at the community level. The roles and responsibilities of Social Work in this issue can be briefly summarized as follows:

Being with the children during the war and conflict; placing them to safe places, distance them from the events of the conflict in cooperation with existing national and international associations and organizations in war zones to protect the children.

Provide services such as food and beverage, and services to eliminate health problems in order to determine the status of children.

In order to eliminate the negative effects of war on the psychosocial development of children, effort of psychosocial support, the release of children who from prisons of conflict parties and ensure their participation in rehabilitation programs after the war.

Provide support to social workers who are working in war and conflict environment based on the principle of ("help to helpers"), by creating a social worker team from countries that support peace.
In cooperation with the media, to run programs that provide awareness in and inform parents about the effects of violence on children and prevent the families to cause their children to participate in acts of violence.

Make meetings and negotiations on both sides setting the ground to begin peace talks and to prepare room for reconciliation.

Take an active role as a profession with the mission to help people in order to remind the international agreements that are responsible for protecting the children in war environment in the event of any war in the world.

Take the problem to international platforms, in order to intervene in harm of children who are in war environment, organization of international conferences to attract the attention of the world towards this subject and in the light of the results of these conferences guide the formation of a committee at the international level to protect the rights of children who are living in this environment and

Initiate work in order to protect children in war and conflict environment and prevent harm in this environment by creating special camps in war zones, under the protection of the United Nations.

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Western Europe and its Historical Engagement in the Balkans

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Abstract

The European continent and in particular the Western Europe have always been involved in a range of events and developments. History has always shown and made us aware that the Western Europe in particular has been the cradle and the instigator of many positive developments, as well as many destructive conflicts and wars in the past. Geographically, this region has undergone the great challenges long time ago and it now cherishes the benefits of the mutual organization and cooperation, whereas other regions tend to approach and join the European values, namely the united democratic Europe and its organization as foreseen within the European Union. If we would only take a look at the Balkans, we would see that besides geographically, it is also closely related to Europe politically and economically. The historical period to be considered in this paper is that after World War II, namely the post-Cold War period, after the big changes in central Europe, and the eastern and southern Europe, i.e. the Balkans. The Western Europe, after the declaration of the end of Cold War in particular, will be actively involved in all major events and developments in the Balkans. The turbulences that fell upon this region will present a challenge and often put on the state of alert the western world and the organizations and institutions which emerged as a result of their consistent cooperation. There is no doubt that the Western Europe will have a key role in the ending of hostilities and conflicts, a key role in the development and the realization of strategic aspirations of the Balkan countries in their endeavors to join the NATO Alliance, the EU and other international organizations.

Keywords: Europe, Balkan Region, conflicts, cooperation, integration.

1. Introduction

Looking at the map of Europe we can see the large diversity of many geographic, social, economic, political, security and other specific divergences. Historically through the centuries, “the Old Continent”, as many scientist like to call Europe, was the main locomotive for development, different ongoing processes, wars and conflicts. However, this contains different events and occurrences for this particular part or region of Europe.

Europe as celery, through the time perspective, not always had the same developments or even the same problems. Part of the continent occasionally was partially under the control or occupation of different Empires such Roman, Ottoman or Russian in periods when they took under control different parts of European soil.

Main goal of this paper is to address the problem or issue of different approaches of Europe to the developments in the Balkan region or part of it. So, if we want to do that in a proper way, we should look forward to address the main topics for European engagement observing them from different perspectives. Thus, we can establish three ways of explanation and analyzing of the topic of this paper.

Firstly, the historic aspect presents one of the inalienable issue through which we must pass. We don’t want to go into so many details and analyze historic data and fact sheets but the only thing we want to do is to address the main historic developments where we can find the connection between Europe and Balkan as a part or region.

Through the centuries the Balkan was on “apple of discord” between the interests of grand powers. Some critics tend to call the Balkans as a “civilizations crossroad” or some of them “gunpowder keg”. We recognize the rights of the groups for such a qualification1. But, if we make one timeline retrospective what had happen in the Balkans with or without European engagement2, we can find many events, stories and developments. Wars and conflicts were just a segment of the issues but the most influential one. The Balkan as a region occasionally was under war, or under different

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2 When we spoke for European engagement into Balkan we think and would like to express the influence, interference and commitment of the countries of Western Europe in all the developments and events. This is the main intent firstly and later to combine with the engagement of NATO, EU and other European organization.
crises and other conditions not even close to peace. Many international peace Conferences such as in Paris, London, Bucharest and others are more than a prove for this engagement. The Balkan Wars in the 20-th century provide the right answer of that how this region can be influenced or can influence, to trigger conditions and events with huge size or global world developments such as First World War. Most of the critics share the opinion that the Balkans and all the Balkans circumstances initiated and triggered the start of First World War. This war expanded and imperfect wars as the Balkan First and Second War. Honestly, this period was one of the most difficult in the history of Balkan. Stepping out from one of the largest timeless occupation (Ottoman Empire), the interests of the independent countries, big powers and new born countries was totally different and some time even unreal.

Europe at that time was represented with England and France vs. Prussia (Germany) and Austro-Hungary, always took into consideration the nonpermanent alignment of Tsar Russia and totally different positions of the Turkish Empire. Although, the Balkans in this context of different interests and influences, will be hard a subject of a hard dispute for the common relation between relevant actors as I mentioned before, sometimes even the traditional relations between them will be challenged. All those circumstances will provoke many agreements and alliances just to prevent each other on having an advantage in the position of international relations. Many of those alliances and agreements will be just piece of paper and never not been implemented in practice.

So the dissolution of Ottoman Empire left enough space for engagement and influence of others and especially Russia, who directly and indirectly influenced and supported Serbia and Greece in their efforts to expand their state borders. This issue will also be very interesting for the rest of the Europe especially for the France, Great Britain and other powers.

First World War expressed how much is the Balkan region interesting for “the special interests” and how it can be “an arena” where big powers crosswalk their military, economic and political outwitting to each other just to grab as much as they can and be in advanced position. The Balkans region, even during the efforts for establishing the League of Nations, was also a part of the agenda for many discussions between the main world players because of its potential for instability, relations and wars.

Honestly speaking, even the positive approach towards the Balkans will not be able to change anything in historical context in the Balkans and between the countries of this region. Hostilities grew stronger and stronger, many disputes characterized the relations between the countries and we can conclude that the ongoing processes in this region do not provide straight perspectives. Maybe this is a very strong statement and not so realistic or positive approach, but we can elaborate on this later.

Our intent is not to address and explain what happened and predict the future of the Balkan region through the scope of the European perspective, but to show what the engagements actually were during in the course of different timeframe. An analysis of various events and developments where Europe was the driver of significant efforts with positive approach is more then we showed before. The Second World War can prove the conclusions that we drove before. The battles of this war also affected the Balkan region. The main developments during the war were affected by the countries from the Balkans. Some allied with the Nazi ideologies and some with the western European countries and the USA.

All the events during the World War II and after that were top priority in agenda of the western powers (USA, UK and France), and directly influenced many results of the war and post war processes. Honestly speaking the termination of the World War Two in the Balkans resulted in the formation of Yugoslavia as a sovereign federal country composed with republics and other parts and included the larger part of the region of the Balkans.

After the World War II, Yugoslavia became a leading country of Non-Aligned Movement during post war period, and the greater part of the rest of the world divided itself into two ideologies -Western and Eastern that was more than a reason for the initiation of the Cold War.

The launch of Marshal Plan for reconstruction of Europe after war and the support from the USA excluded the Balkans as a region and a part of South-Eastern Europe due to many reasons but mostly because of the neutral status of Yugoslavia and the intention not to belong and be part of any strict ideology regardless of whether it comes from the east or the west.

We can freely state that the Balkan region was one of the most important issues and collision among the West and the East even during the period of Cold War. The ambition for enlargement of both groups confronted in the Balkan region.

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The foundation of the UN and the NATO and later the European Coal and Steel Community (EU) was mostly based on interests and developments, a fact that we can analyze as a topic in this paper. Everything we have said so far was in this spirit and describes the European engagement during different timeframe and various historic perspectives.

In the following text we address more aspects of the engagement of Europe into Balkan.

Secondly, we will analyze issues and processes of enlargement and integration in the main international organization such as NATO and EU through the scope of Balkans.

Analyzing the establishment of the NATO, we can conclude that the first and the main policy of this military-political organization is the collective security. From this aspect we can say that the Balkan region rested between the silent conflict of the East and West.

The establishment of the NATO and its geostrategic positioning did not include countries from the Balkan Peninsula or their neighborhood (excluding Italy). But the influence of the Eastern predominant ideology (the one of the USSR and the partner countries from the Warsaw Pact), in the Balkans determined the quick reaction of the NATO and the US interests to find partners from this region or close enough for the purpose of closing some strategic exits to the Mediterranean and Middle East. This issue was resolved during the first NATO enlargement in 1952 when Greece and Turkey became full-fledged members. The admission of Turkey was a strategic issue for opening an exit towards the Middle East and closing the doors to Russia and it became of very high importance to NATO, Western and the US policy.

This was only one way of perspective of looking to the ongoing problem such was the Greece-Turkey dispute and lots of centuries old antagonism. This was a message to the all that peace interests are more than just having an ambition for influence. It was also a clear message to the East to leave the Balkan out of the overlapping interests of the East and the West.

If we take into consideration the aspect of borders and influences we can see that Hungary was forced into the Eastern ideologies. Also the same destiny shared Bulgaria and Romania, and other countries close to the Balkan region and neighbors to Russia.

Europe and its organization played an active role in many processes during the Cold War. Couple of in-country revolutions were suppressed by Russia and the Warsaw Pact being characterized as “not obedience” of some members of the Pact.

On other hand the foundation of first model of today’s EU also played a very active role especially in the economy. So, if the NATO was political-military organization, the European Coal and Steel Community was something else and its main objective was the cooperation in economy and other fields related to this issue.

The time challenge also touched both of these organizations, something that we already mentioned before. A future that cannot be predicted, the problem of not enough resources, freedom of movement, trade, disputes, conflicts and other issues directly impacted the policy of these organizations and their acts. The Balkan region was not immune of those challenges. Directly or indirectly the West and Europe applied their expanding interests to this region. We witnessed and analyzed the first enlargement of NATO and what it mean in the context of the Cold War.

The New era started with the end of the Cold War. This was the main reason for shifting of the policy of the NATO but also the EU. The fall of Berlin Wall as a symbol of the Cold War, the reunification of Germany, the revolution in USSR, the dissolution of former Czechoslovakia and Yugoslavia were the main events that marked the 90’. So, parallel to those challenges began an adoption of western policy in accordance to the needs and upcoming processes such were the integration of the regions and countries and their stepping out from the so called umbrella of East ideologies.

The enlargement of the EU in the post Cold War period with the countries from the Central, East or South Europe (Malta, Cyprus, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, Czech Republic, Slovakia, Slovenia, and Hungary in 2004) expressed how fast the policy can change and the engagement of Europe in some parts can change. Except This “big bang” enlargement included only Slovenia and other Balkan countries were excluded. The next enlargement in 2007 with Bulgaria and Romania was something that seemed impossible for many reasons5. This process of integration of the countries into EU was preceded by the process of enlargement and integration of the NATO. Most of those countries were members of the NATO. In 1999 three joined NATO and in 2004 seven countries including Bulgaria, Romania and Slovenia as countries from the Balkan became NATO members. In 2009, Albania and Croatia became full-fledged members of NATO.

Thirdly, the dissolution of Yugoslavia triggered the open hostilities between the new independent countries. Open conflicts and disputes between the newly formed independent countries and the part of Yugoslavia that wanted to preserve the status and conditions from before, produced a lot of problems and headaches for Europe and provoked its encouragement engagement in the Balkans. Setting up a two-side problem, efforts were made to find an acceptable

5 Also Croatia became a full member of EU in 01.07.2013.
solution for all parties involved in the conflict and make real the aspiration of becoming a full member in NATO and EU.

Historically we saw that Europe was engaged in the Balkan for long time, at the beginning to be an active role player after the end of the Cold War and to influence developments in the region. The launching of different tools from NATO and EU according to the situation in region clarifies the role and commitment of Europe. Partnership for Peace, International Crises Group, Process of Association and Stabilization were the main initiatives that could address the Balkan. Lots of conferences and agreements according to the different events and developments directly will be agenda of the Europe and their institutions and organizations.

The process of integration of the countries from the Balkan region in the NATO and the EU means conducting hard reforms in many social, political, economic and security areas. The leadership of those countries should work harder on the affirmation of the benefits and values of those expectations from the EU and NATO fulfilling membership criteria.

So, in this part we analyzed in what were the manners of the Europe’s engagement in the region looking from juridical and policy perspective.

Different countries from the region had different status about issues for the relations and membership in the NATO and EU. Now we would like to emphasize where we are as a R. of Macedonia and where the whole region is. As the country became independent after the dissolution of Yugoslavia, the R. of Macedonia started a relation with Europe and both of the organizations right after the referendum for independence. Becoming a member of the Initiative Partnership for Peace and initiating the process of preparation (reforms) for membership in NATO we started to implement the Membership Action Plan (16-th cycle) and we are still conducting the transformation and reforms of the security sector.

In the spirit of EU membership in 2001 we signed the Stabilization and Association Agreement and in 2005 we became a candidate for full-fledged member country. Both of the processes went through many challenges and difficulties. If we just mention the crises and conflict during the 2001 and the difficult process of reconciliation and reconstruction according to the Ohrid Framework Agreement, we can conclude that the country was under permanent engagement of Europe and its institutions and organizations. So, those European efforts one more time showed that they are still interested and helpful to the region with many tools and policies.

2. Conclusion

As we mentioned during the whole paper we divided the engagement of the Europe in three pillars. First we elaborate how and in what kind Europe was engaged with the Balkan region and countries into in historic aspect. With the full right we can conclude that Europe and their initiatives for this region were only on way to influenced to the events and developments. It’s more than facts how the Europe and its powers during the different time framework they drive some of the processes in not proper way. They even make a wrong efforts staying away or taking a side in some of the developments or events. So all those what we said are well known historic described facts.

Secondly, we stop with the challenges of foundation and formation of organization and institution in Europe such us NATO and EU directly showed how they was included and engaged into main events and developments into Balkan region and their countries. Making a parallel between processes of integration and enlargement common with numerous challenges during the different time and Europe and organization (NATO and EU), influenced directly or indirectly in some of the disputes or event just to prevent more bloodshed during different conflicts.

Thirdly, trying to present engagement of Europe into Balkan, we compare this issue with the positive reflection of the processes of enlargement and integration vis-a-vis reforms and preparation of the countries for the full membership into European Union and NATO Alliance. Intent of this perception was based into so many initiatives and tools using by those organizations in advance to help and prepare those countries to meet criteria’s.

Summary based on what we conclude before, we can say that Europe during the different time had different approach and different level of commitment according to developments and events into Balkan. Going from one extreme to another Europe was positioning about the issue and engagement to Balkan.

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6 Annuals Rapports from the European Commissions and North Atlantic Council - NATO about process of integration of the countries from southeast Europe.

7 Ohrid Framework Agreement was achieved on 13.08.2001 in Ohrid under suspicions of EU, NATO and US representatives with four main political leaders in Macedonia after conflict between government security forces and National Liberation Army –military formation of the local Albanians
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Internet and the Democratization of Media Content in Croatia: Content Analysis of Web Portals

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Abstract

Consideration of the media as communication frame from a sociological perspective points to a complex area that affects the comprehension and understanding of the media in the context of contemporary social changes. Interactive media such as Internet offer a variety of information from a number of diverse sources, and provide opportunities for social and political debates at local, national and global level. At the same time, the variety of possible forms of communication points to the pluralism of the media space and contribute to a faster flow of information. In other words, the researching of the media is operationalized inside the process of transformation and democratization of media space and content. Web portals are becoming specific areas for discussing various social issues and problems. Therefore, they are significant sources of relevant information affecting the reconceptualization of media content and changes in communication. The aim of the research was to identify aspects of the transformation of the Internet space in the process of democratization of the media in Croatia on the example of the Referendum on the constitutional definition of marriage. The authors have analysed the articles on the most visited portals in the period from November to December 2013, which reported on the subject of the Referendum on the constitutional definition of marriage, Croatia the Referendum. The analysis showed differences in the number of published articles and in content among portals, as well as a significant representation of liberal attitudes.

Keywords: a sociological perspective, content analysis, online portals, democratization of the media,

1. Introduction: From Democratization of Media to Transformation of the Space of Dialogue

Modern society is inconceivable without the media. They are an integral part of the lives of every individual, and they cannot be treated apart from human actions (Bandalović in Leburić et al., 2010, 51). Nowadays media imply the culture of dialogue and the right to different opinions, argumentation in the discussion and decision-making. On the other hand, the media content is becoming a complex blend of discourses, ideologies and meanings produced by the dynamic interaction of media texts and media audiences. Therefore, the media content of various types and forms are in the centre of interests of various social debates, as well as social and sociological researches. The primary role of the media is the transmission of information and presentation of news channels in the social and political space, while the media freedom is one of the main characteristics of a democratic government. Thus, we can say that the basic democratic function of the media is to inform citizens (Čerkez, 2009, 30). In addition to dissemination of information and political education of the public, media freedom is also in the function of enabling the political activities of citizens, which is essential for the realization of their civil liberties (Peruško-Ćulek, 1999, 56).

With the development of modern technology and the advent of computers, there has been relevant reconceptualization of social and cultural communication. Accordingly, we witness many changes such as increased number of possible forms of communication, media contents that are democratized and individualized, increased flow rate of information from the source to the receiver, but also the speed of obsolescence of information. But, at the same
time the trust in the media as a reliable source of information is lost (Zgrablić Rotar, 2005, 19). The public was once perceived as an essential foundation for democracy, as the public forum, which formed the critical debate on public issues by educated and informed individuals who were in constant interaction. Today, however, the modern media is a new type of “public”, which is mostly a political, commercialized and excluded from public judgments (Splichal according to Peruško, 2011, 30).

Media society has also developed along with the development of a democratic society. It was created primarily by expanding those media that have contributed to the faster flow of information influencing in that way the whole society. The media represent the most influential agents in the formation of general interest, value judgments and political orientations of citizens. Nevertheless, the media, the public, and of course, the politics in democratic societies are in a continuous process of change (Čerkez, 2009, 28). On the one hand, the media took part in the formation of democracy and modern society. At the present time their increasingly important role is often viewed in the light of postmodern social transformation. Wasko and Splichal claim that the democratic character of communication is always two fold. Thus, democratization of communication is impossible without democratization of society as a whole. We highlight three main ideas that are inseparable from the role of communication media in modern democracy: individual freedom, human rights, the public and civil society (Wasko and Splichal according to Peruško-Čulek, 1999, 28).

Media can be defined in various ways. However, in sociological terms, the media is perceived as institutional and organizational framework of communication, and thus the concept of media is equated with the concept of discourse (Biti according to Zgrablić Rotar, 2005, 15). It is interesting that every new media takes over the existing application forms and genres. Thus, the characteristics of contemporary media are mixing and recombination of genres and transmediality of media content. Therefore, the term “communication media” is more used than the term “mass media”. This is due to the convergence of the traditional mass media around computer technology and the development of interactive media such as Internet. Internet does not meet the criteria of the mass media, because “its organizational structure does not include institutionalized production and distribution of products, commodification and audience dislocated in time and/or space and which cannot participate in the communication process” (Peruško, 2011, 36).

The democratization of media is the product of democratization of social institutions, and depends on the strength of the public sphere and civil society (Zgrablić, 2003, 60). Internet offers and shapes “spaces of dialogue”, where the participants realize their need for discussing the content and themes of common interest. Among other things, the Internet also has a wider range of technological capabilities for discussion of public issues (Oblak, 2002, 68). According to Splichal various media are predisposed to construct, shape and preserve the public sphere. The reason for this is the fact that they represent sites where different ideas and interests confront freely. It is evident that there exist differences between modern and postmodern public sphere no longer made by networks of participatory communication channels, but based upon representations in the media (Splichal according to Oblak, 2002, 63).

There is no standard definition of forms and purposes of the public sphere. The public sphere should ensure new and relevant information on a variety of issues for the citizens contributing to the future development of citizenship and democratic participation. In this context, the Internet provides an opportunity to discuss the relevant political and social problems among geographically separated individuals. In principle, occupation, education and social status are losing importance, and the exchange of arguments comes to the fore (Jensen, 2003, 350-351). However, through the loss of social status, resulting anonymity in discussion can lead to irresponsibility, speech of hate and disappearance of culture in the debate. Often, it is argued that the government should be included in creation of the public spaces (Jensen, 2003, 358).

Thornton believes that tendency toward fragmented identities appears on Internet, and that a certain shift from the “citizens” to “consumers” is noticeable. Nevertheless, the author argues that the Internet provides opportunities for revitalization of the public sphere (Thornton according to Boeder, 2005)\. New communication technologies are used in a way to deepen the practices of democratic communication. Networks are becoming structurally decentralized while the public accesses them in the ways that lead to an increase in the rate and density of the public exchange (Boeder, 2005)\. It is important to point out that the new public space is not a synonym for a new public sphere. As a public space, on the Internet it is possible to achieve discussion and democratic expressing of ideas and opinions. Accordingly, the virtual space reinforces the debate, and the virtual sphere enhances democracy (Papacharissi, 2002, 11). Internet can “empower” the public sphere, but does it in a way that is incomparable with the previous discourse of the public. In a future perspective, the Internet may not become a new public sphere, but something radically different that would improve democracy and dialogue (Papacharissi, 2002, 18) about current social and political issues such as the Referendum on

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the constitutional definition of marriage³.

2. Methodological and Empirical Aspects of Research

Daily informative web portals through various interactive features of the Internet, more and more encourage citizens to participate in the production of news, and are becoming popular places for the discussion on the various social issues. Thus, the subject of the study is the transformation of the Internet space in the context of democratization of the media on the example of the Referendum on the constitutional definition of marriage in Croatia. In other words, portals as part of the Internet space become daily sources of relevant information in the contemporary society, which affect the reconceptualization of media content. It is possible to spot the similarities/differences among portals through observing the ways the media contents are reported. Furthermore, their analysis allows examination of possible transformation induced by social changes such as the democratization of the media.

The aim of the research was to examine the extent to which daily informative portals reported on the topic by applying qualitative and quantitative content analysis, and to determine the differences in their content with regard to the subjects of the Referendum. The research also included the analysis of value orientations of the authors of the analysed texts towards the content of the Referendum during reporting, as well as the distribution of the characteristics typical of conservative and liberal views, which prevailed among portals in reporting on the research topic. In the process of designing and preparing the research, it was assumed that the analysed portals contained an equal number of published articles on the topic; that there were differences between portals in representation of terms and concepts, i.e. characteristics that were typical for liberal or conservative views; and finally that the authors took neutral value orientation when reporting on the Referendum.

Qualitative and quantitative content analyses were applied in the research. The research sample included five most visited portals according to the research of visits to websites conducted by the online research agency gemiusAudience⁴. The sample was defined thematically and included the articles published on selected portals in the period from 01. 11. 2013. to 01. 12. 2013. The unit of analysis was published text on portals on the subject of the Referendum.⁵

3. Analysis and Results

Content analysis included analysis of the general appearance of texts, text contents or subtopics of Referendum, value orientations of the authors towards the pre-defined contents, and aspects of the conservative and liberal attitudes with regard to the topics of Referendum. Its application enabled the (re)construction of categories throughout the analysis. Category “general appearance of texts” included analysis of the text equipment i.e. various characteristics such as the size and type of text, the structure of title, the number of photos and subcategory “other” which included the possible appearance of videos or comments. Furthermore, the value orientation is determined by the general approach to the subject, which stems from the authors’ attitudes or editorial policy.⁶

Content analysis of selected texts was related to the analysis of topics of Referendum. At the methodological level, the stated sub-categories (or topics) were grouped into two methodological levels: individual-collective and social. Thus, for example, individual and group levels included topics such as “marriage as a life union of a woman and a man”,

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³Croatian Parliament in November 2013, brought the decision to call a national referendum, which was held on the 1st December 2013, based on the demands of civic initiatives In the name of the family to enter the definition of marriage as a union between a woman and a man in the Croatian Constitution. Based on the results of the Referendum, the State Election Commission of the Republic of Croatia decided to enter a provision by which the marriage is a union between a woman and a man in the Croatian Constitution (see: http://www.usud.hr/uploads/Odluka%20ovu%20postupka%20nadzora%20ostavno%20uto%20%5A1%C4%87%C4%8D%C4%8E%C4%87%C4%91enja%20odr%C5%BEavnog%20referenduma%20odru%C5%BEavnog%201.12.2013.pdf).

⁴http://www.audience.com.hr/.

⁵The sample included five most visited portals in Croatia: 24sata.hr, Jutarnji.hr, Index.hr, Tportal.hr, Večernji.hr. All articles on these portals dealing with the Referendum were analysed. There were 168 analysed articles.

⁶According to the following typology of value orientations of the author retrieved from Šušnjić (1973, 253): positive (+) means any assessment that is affirmative in relation to the subject in question; negative (-) means any negative or critical assessment in relation to the subject matter described in the content; neutral (0) means any general or specific statement of something just described or claimed, but without taking a certain attitude; programmatic (!) means any assessment which proposes something that “should be” in relation to the matter in question.
“marriage is the foundation of the family”, “family stability” etc. On the other hand, social methodological level included topics such as “legal protection of children, marriage and family”, “the existing Family Law”, “the family is the foundation of society”, etc. (see Table 1). Concerning Referendum topics, reading texts and viewing web pages related to the subject of the Referendum enabled the construction of a temporary categorization prior to analysis. However, the categorical apparatus was reconstructed during the analysis.

Table 1. Topics of referendum due to the methodological level

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Methodological Level</th>
<th>Topics of Referendum</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>individual-Collective</td>
<td>C1 (marriage as a life union between a woman and a man), C2 (marriage is the foundation of the family), C3 (family stability), C4 (reproduction depend on man and woman), C5 (family structure is important for a child)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>social</td>
<td>C6 (the legal protection of children, marriage and family), C7 (existing Family Law), C8 (marriage as a generally accepted social norm), C9 (part of the culture and identity of the Croatian people), C10 (family is the foundation of society) C11 (equalization of same-sex partnerships and marriage), 12 (adoption of children by same-sex couples), C13 (protection of children born out of wedlock), C14 (other)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Furthermore, we also conducted an analysis of concepts and terms (i.e. characteristics) that are typical for the conservative or liberal attitudes on a general level. Categories of conservative and liberal attitudes have been taken partly from web pages dealing with conservative and liberal beliefs for the purposes of constructing a categorical apparatus during the analysis. It is important to emphasize that sub-categories imply general features of liberalism and conservatism, in the context of different world-view orientation. For example, attitudes such as “belief in government actions to achieve equality of opportunity and equality for all”, “marriage is a union of people who love each other” and “forbidding same-sex marriages threaten the civil rights” were categorized as characteristics of liberal attitudes on the studied subject. On the other hand, terms such as “belief in personal responsibility, limits of government, free market”, “high value of existing institutions as constructs of customs and tradition”, “traditional values and the defence of national identity” and the like, were related to the characteristics of conservative attitudes (see Table 2).

Table 2. Characteristics of liberal and conservative attitudes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Attitude</th>
<th>Characteristics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>liberal</td>
<td>L1 (the belief in government actions to achieve equality of opportunity and equality for all), L2 (duty of the government to protect the civil rights of the individual and human rights), L3 (natural rights belong to all people), L4 (majority rights are tempered by minority rights), L5 (support to the changes in society), L6 (marriage is a union of people who love each other), L7 (all individuals, regardless of their sexual orientation, have the right to marry), L8 (prohibiting same-sex marriages threaten the civil rights), L9 other (separation of church and state, the issue of abortion as a personal choice, equal rights and freedoms)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>conservative</td>
<td>K1 (belief in personal responsibility, government limits, free markets), K2 (traditional values and the defence of national identity), K3 (high value of existing institutions as constructs of customs and tradition), K4 (faith in supernatural forces that are guiding human affairs), K5 (acceptance of human inequality and the expected consequences of the social hierarchy), K6 (recognition of the need for a sense of community among individuals who will emotionally connect with society), K7 (marriage is the union of one man and one woman), K8 (same-sex unions violate moral and religious beliefs that marriage is a union of one man and one woman), K9 other (government should not restrict faith and religious freedom, abortion as murder of a human being, endangering the traditional family)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Analysis showed that 24sata. hr is the portal with the most published articles on the subject of Referendum, while Večernji. hr is the portal with a minimum of published articles. In other words, 24sata. hr has the largest distribution of referendum topics, and Večernji. hr the least. Almost half of the texts in on all the portals deal with the topic of marriage as a life union between a woman and a man. Less than 2% of the texts (except texts on Večernji. hr) deal with topics such as reproduction, protection and adoption of children, culture and identity, and marriage as the foundation of the family. On the other hand Večernji. hr is much more focused on the above stated topics because the authors of the

7 http://uirebavlja.net/.
articles were writing not only about the marriage as a union between a man and woman, but also about the aspects of education of children, the family as the foundation of society and other social factors that are associated with marriage.

Most common (about 20% of texts on all portals) characteristics of the analysed liberal attitudes are following: “banning same-sex marriages threaten the civil rights”; “belief in government actions to achieve equality of opportunity and equality for all”, “the duty of government to protect the civil rights the individual and human rights”, “the rights of the majority are tempered by minority rights”. It is noticeable that a special emphasis is on the duties of the government, as well as on the protection of existing rights in the context of civil rights. Among the conservative attitudes, the most used characteristics are those that stress tradition, religion and national identity, for example, “protection of traditional values and the defence of national identity” and “belief in supernatural forces that are guiding human affairs”. The analysis of attitudes and their characteristics shows that the distribution of liberal attitudes is higher than the distribution of conservative attitudes in texts on all portals, except on Večernji. hr, where the situation is reversed (see Table 3). 24sata. hr is a portal with the most liberal characteristics.

Table 3. The analysed texts on portals with regard to the liberal and conservative attitudes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Internet Portal</th>
<th>Number of Published Articles</th>
<th>Liberal</th>
<th>Conservative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>f</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24sata. hr</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>31,0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jutarnji. hr</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>21,2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Index. hr</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>24,4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tportal. hr</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>18,7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Večernji. hr</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3,6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Σ</td>
<td>168</td>
<td>165</td>
<td>100,0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results of analysis have revealed that the most prevalent are the negative value orientations of the author, or the negative or critical attitudes of the authors toward the topics of Referendum. In other words, the authors have quite negatively referred to the aspects involving the definition of marriage as the union of a man and a woman, which was the main topic of Referendum. On the other hand, Večernji. hr is the only portal dominated by higher incidence of positive value orientations of the author. The evaluations of the authors are affirmative in relation to the conservative attitudes on the subject of the Referendum. Thereby the fact that Referendum provides legal protection of the children, marriage and family stability is assessed especially positive.

As for the neutral value orientations of the author, Jutarnji. hr and Index. hr have the same number of published articles in which we observe a neutral value orientation of authors toward the topics of Referendum. At the same time the analysis shows that programmatic value orientation of the authors which suggests something that “should be” in relation to the subject matter is the least represented in texts. Specifically, the authors occupy a programmatic orientation toward the voting of citizens in the upcoming referendum. They suggest them to vote but without explicitly saying for or against. Thus, Index. hr is a portal with the most programmatic orientation of the authors.

Finally, the analysis showed that portals differ in the number of published articles and value orientations of the author. Furthermore, the analysed portals are slightly different with regard to the distribution characteristics typical of liberal or conservative attitudes. However, analysis of the general appearance of the texts also showed similarities between them according to the size and type of texts, number of images and the use of multimedia. The analysed texts consist mostly of five or more paragraphs, and most of them are in form of a report. More than 75% of articles per portals have one or two images associated with text, and a negligible number of analysed articles that have video as a supplement. Portals differ significantly with respect to the number of comments on the article. Index. hr stands out with more than half of the articles that have up to 200 comments while the texts on Tportal. hr have no comments. Considering the above stated, it is possible to conclude that the analysed portals use less internet technological capabilities such as multi-media and connectivity facilities, as was shown by some other analysis of daily news portals in Croatia (such as Benković and Balabanić, 2010).

4. Conclusion

By considering the media as a framework for communication in the context of a sociological perspective, we are entering a complex area, which undoubtedly has an impact on everyday life. Defining the media in different ways as well as
ambivalent opinions about new media and communication technologies point out the complexity of media meaning. It is also important to consider the wider context of social and political processes, and place the questioning of media topics in the processes of transformation and democratization of media space, and media content. On the other hand, the process of democratization of the media obviously leads to some necessary changes in social communication.

The emergence of the Internet as a new media and online sphere as a “new” communication space, undoubtedly results with a large number of sources of information, as well as with stated changes in social and political communication. A larger number of web portals and pluralism of media content, more accurately, various topics and styles, create space for a dialogue on the Internet through its transformation. Accordingly, we can speak of pluralism of the media space and understanding of mediated communication space in a different way, while the changes and processes in contemporary society and culture can be conceptualized in the context of the transformation and democratization of the media.

In other words, the reconceptualization of social and cultural communication is enabled through more present and influential factor in the lives of individuals and social groups – through the Internet. The Internet with its interactive dimensions and capabilities for discussion and dialog can serve as a mean for revitalization of the public sphere. Discussions in this regard are going towards the transformation of the space of dialogue where online sphere as a communication space becomes of central importance. Finally, we can conclude that the pluralism of the media space occurs through the development of new media and the process of democratization of the media. In such social atmosphere, the online portals with their specific way of reporting on different issues provide the relevant information and in perspective can reinforce dialogue among interested individuals. Such changes in the area of media become the central interest of contemporary social debates and sociological research and analysis.

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Measuring the Size of Output Gap in Sukuk Issuing OIC Member Countries

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Abstract

The aim of this study is to estimate the size of output gaps for sukuk issuing Organization of Islamic Cooperation (OIC) member countries. The output gap is measured based on univariate Hodrick-Prescott (HP) filter for the period 1980 until 2011. Data are sourced from the World Economic Outlook and SESRIC databases. The findings reveal that Bahrain, Pakistan and Malaysia have smooth trend between real GDP and its trends. Most countries display fewer fluctuations in business cycles and changes in inflation during mid-2000s. The results suggest that output gap estimations contain key information for monetary policy since the estimate of output gap can contribute towards identifying and assessing the effectiveness of monetary policy framework over time. For cross-border sukuk issuance, the ability to sustain economic growth in the long run without inducing inflation will boost investors’ confidence.

Keywords: Sukuk, output gap, HP filter, inflation, Islamic finance, OIC economies

1. Introduction

One of the important issues in macroeconomics is understanding macroeconomic fluctuations. One way to measure the fluctuations is by estimating output gap. Output gap, or business cycle, is defined as the difference between actual and potential output. Potential output is an unobservable variable that reflects the maximum output an economy can sustain without inducing inflation. It is the level of Gross Domestic Product (GDP) that is consistent with full utilisation of all factors of production under conditions of stable inflation. Since output gap is unobservable, it has to be estimated.

Output gap captures the effect of shifts in domestic demand thus represents demand shocks. Higher domestic demand would tend to raise domestic and import prices (Bussiere, 2006). Output gap captures the notion that with increasing sales, firms are more likely to pass-through increases in costs to final prices. The reverse is also true. Therefore, the current output gap estimations should provide information regarding future inflation. Since economic policies have direct impact on the size of the gap, the gap model is central to almost all inflation models.

The present study contributes to the Islamic financial economics literature by investigating whether the degree of excess capacity in the economy is an important determinant of inflation in sukuk issuing Organization of Islamic Cooperation (OIC) member countries. The countries involved in the study are Brunei, Bahrain, Indonesia, Kuwait, Malaysia, Pakistan, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, Turkey and the United Arab Emirates (UAE). Sudan is excluded due to data constraints. Since inflation is one of the key determinants affecting sukuk performance the present study investigate whether output gap estimation is a good indicator of inflationary pressures for these economies. The present research contributes to the Islamic finance literature by attempting to examine the issue from output gap perspective.

The remainder of the paper is organized as follows. Section 2 discusses literature review. Section 3 examines the research method while Section 4 presents the findings. Section 5 concludes the discussion.

1 The research is funded by Universiti Sains Islam Malaysia (USIM) Research Grant PPP/FEM/IWM/30/14112.
2. Background

2.1 Output Gap

There are at least five different methods of estimating output gap namely linear time trends, Hodrick-Prescott (HP) filter trends, multivariate HP filter trends, unobservable components models and a production function model. In general, these methods produced similar broad time profile of the output gap (deBrouwer, 1998). Coe and McDermott (1997) find the estimated output gap is in the range of ±3 percent for the 13 Asian economies under their investigation.

Output gaps are estimated for two reasons. Firstly is to provide information about excess capacity in the economy at a particular point in time. From the perspective of monetary policy, the output gap over the forecast horizon is of most interest. Secondly, time series of the output gap is to be used in modelling exercises. The inclusion of output gap produce better estimates of inflation. For example, given that excess demand pressures are a key driver of rising inflation, the output gap can be included in price or wage inflation equations to obtain a more precisely estimated equation and more accurate forecasts (deBrouwer, 1998). Hence, the importance of output gap in macroeconomic models is due to its importance in assessing inflationary pressure and the cyclical position of the economy.

Potential output and output gap estimates also help to assess macroeconomic policies. The estimate of output gap can contribute to identifying and assessing patterns of monetary policy framework over time. A positive output gap is indicative of demand pressures and a signal that inflationary pressures are increasing and that policy may need to tighten. A negative output gap has the opposite implication.

2.2 Sukuk Issuance

Table 1 below shows the regional break-up of sukuk issuance country over the period 2001 to 2010. The Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC) and Middle East Countries dominate in terms of number of issuance and percentage of total value. The United Arab Emirates (UAE) has the highest percentage of total value (in USD million) of 52 percent, followed by Malaysia and Bahrain each contributed 12 percent and Saudi Arabia - 11 percent. The United States, United Kingdom, Japan and Turkey represent only two percent of the overall international issuance. Based on the current trend, sukuk are most likely to be issued in the Asia and the Far East and the GCC and Middle East economies in the future.

Table 1: Regional Breakdown of Total International Sukuk Issuance, 2001-2010

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Amount (USD million)</th>
<th>Number of Issues</th>
<th>% of Total Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Asia &amp; Far East</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malaysia</td>
<td>5,496</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indonesia</td>
<td>650</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pakistan</td>
<td>600</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brunei Darussalam</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.42%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>6,946</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GCC &amp; Middle East</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bahrain</td>
<td>5,633</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qatar</td>
<td>2,020</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saudi Arabia</td>
<td>5,440</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UAE</td>
<td>25,050</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>52%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kuwait</td>
<td>1,575</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>39,718</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>83%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Africa</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sudan</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turkey</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UK</td>
<td>271</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USA</td>
<td>600</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1,071</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grand Total</td>
<td>47,865</td>
<td>165</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In short, the economic structure and level of development of a country will determine the appropriate exchange rate regime. In developing countries, with fairly new financial systems, trade variables will most likely determine the exchange rate. For the developed economies, the movements of capital and financial assets will affect exchange rates. Hence, selecting appropriate exchange rate arrangements and moving from a fixed to flexible regime requires a good understanding of macroeconomics fluctuations.

3. Method

The sample consists of ten OIC sukuk issuing member countries. Data are annually, covering the period from 1980 to 2011 and are sourced from the World Economic Outlook Database. For annual data, Gross Domestic Product (GDP) is used as the proxy for real output and trend estimates. The study also includes data on annual percentage changes in Consumer Price Index (CPI). Data are in log values, in constant USD 2005 prices. Output gap is measured in growth rates and CPIs are measured in percentage changes.

Output gap is estimated as the log difference between actual output and its Hodrick-Prescott (HP) filter. The Hodrick-Prescott filter (HP filter) decomposes output into permanent and transitory components generating a smoothened trend of output. The generated smoothened series is the estimated potential output. The HP filter is defined as follows.

Suppose a time series \( y_{gap_t} \) can be decomposed into trend (growth) component, \( y_{gap_t}^g \) and cyclical component, \( y_{gap_t}^c \):

\[
y_{gap_t} = y_{gap_t}^g + y_{gap_t}^c
\]

The HP filtering process will choose the growth component, \( y_{gap_t}^g \) that minimize the following problem:

\[
\min \left( \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=2}^{T} (y_{gap_t} - y_{gap_t}^g)^2 + \left( \frac{\lambda}{T} \sum_{t=2}^{T} [(y_{gap_{t-1}} - y_{gap_t}^g) - (y_{gap_{t-1}} - y_{gap_{t-2}})]^2 \right) \right)
\]

where \( T \) is the sample size. The first term is the sum of the squared deviations and indicates the goodness of fit. The second term is the sum of the squares of the trend component’s second differences and measure the degree of smoothness. The parameter \( \lambda \) is the smoothness parameter, set at 100 for the annual data, following the literature in the subject. The \( \lambda \) parameter penalizes the variability in the growth component. If the value of \( \lambda \) is zero, then the second term becomes zero, the sum of squares is minimized when \( y_{gap_t} = y_{gap_t}^g \), and the HP filter would return the original series \( y_{gap_t} \) as the growth component. Meanwhile, the second term is minimized when \( y_{gap_t}^g - y_{gap_{t-1}}^g \) is the same \( \forall t \). The objective of the minimization problem is to select the trend component that minimize the sum of squared deviations from the observed \( y_{gap_t} \) series, subject to the constraint that changes in the trend component \( (y_{gap_t}^g) \) vary gradually overtime.

4. Results

The output gaps are estimated for each country and results are presented below in Figure 1. Real GDP are in log values, constant 2005 USD prices. The countries are arranged according to their monetary policy framework in order to compare their performance. Real GDP and its estimated trends for each country are displayed in the top panels in all figures. Real GDP is measured on the vertical axis in all figures. The annual rates of inflation and the estimated changes in output gaps are displayed in the bottom panels. In all figures, output gap is measured on the left-hand side on the vertical axis in terms of growth rates. Inflation is measured on the right-hand side on the vertical axis in terms of percentage changes. Note that the scale for each country is different.

Based on the visual plots, the estimated trends are relatively smooth for countries under ‘inflation targeting’ and ‘other’ monetary policy framework for the period under study. For the countries under ‘monetary aggregate target’, there are some noticeable deviations between the actual and the estimated trend during certain years, particularly during early 1980s. These might be due to the rising oil price during this time because most countries under this category are oil producers.

There was a large negative output gap spikes during mid-80s in the countries under Exchange rate anchor framework, probably affected by the Persian Gulf War. The highest inflation spike at approximately 16 percent was recorded by Qatar in 2008 during global financial crisis. Indonesia was adversely affected by the 1997 Asian financial crisis in which there was the largest negative output gap and the highest inflation spike reaching almost 60 percent. Turkey, on the other hand, has high inflation and high fluctuations in output gaps estimations. Beginning mid-2000, inflation seems to stabilize at a much lower level. Pakistan shows rising inflation at the end of 2000s while Malaysia, with the largest negative output gap spike during 1997 Asian financial crisis, still have rising inflation even though output gaps
are stable.

On the other hand, visual inspections on the output gap and inflation suggest that most of the inflation spikes tend to be associated with smaller spike in the output gaps. However, there are certain periods where the spikes in output gap are not accompanied by similar rise in inflation for some of the countries. We examine the output gap on level (instead of growth rates as shown here), and found that the rise in inflation in most cases occurred after the spike. This might be due to persistent large output gaps (PLOGs), in which the trade-off between inflation and unemployment is tight when output gaps are large but disinflation decelerates at very low inflation rates (R. A., 2013). This might indicate that inflation, at both level and changes, are equally important to policy makers.

After mid-1990s, most countries under ‘exchange rate anchor’ arrangement, except Qatar, show almost similar patterns in their output gap changes. There is also a smoother trend between real and potential output. However, further empirical works are required to ascertain that output gaps are a good predictor for inflationary pressures for these countries.

Table 2 below shows the GDP and output gap average annual growth rate for the period under study. Based on the estimations, the average growth rate of the output gap estimates is approximately 1% over the period of study. The GDP growth rate is 4% and inflation is 8.58%. Turkey and Indonesia, both adopting Inflation Targeting policy framework, registered double-digit inflation rate. Qatar registered highest average growth rate at 7.19%, followed by Malaysia with 5.97% and Indonesia at 5.16%. For the 2000s period, Turkey inflation management policy saw an almost 300% reduction of the growth rate as compared to the 1980-1990 period. Bahrain, Kuwait, Qatar and Indonesia has annual growth rate in GDP exceeding 5% in the 2000s.

\[ \text{Figure 1: Real GDP and Estimated Trends, 1980 - 2011} \]
Table 2: GDP and Output Gap, Average Annual Growth Rate, 1980 - 2011

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<thead>
<tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Actual GDP</td>
<td>Trend GDP</td>
<td>CPI</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average for all countries</td>
<td>4.06</td>
<td>1.38</td>
<td>8.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Countries under Exchange rate anchor arrangement</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bahrain</td>
<td>3.49</td>
<td>1.45</td>
<td>1.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brunei</td>
<td>0.22</td>
<td>1.08</td>
<td>1.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kuwait</td>
<td>2.92</td>
<td>1.30</td>
<td>3.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qatar</td>
<td>7.19</td>
<td>1.94</td>
<td>3.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saudi Arabia</td>
<td>2.20</td>
<td>1.19</td>
<td>1.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UAE</td>
<td>4.16</td>
<td>1.36</td>
<td>4.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Countries Under Monetary Aggregate Target Framework</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pakistan</td>
<td>4.96</td>
<td>1.60</td>
<td>8.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indonesia</td>
<td>5.16</td>
<td>1.01</td>
<td>10.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turkey</td>
<td>4.30</td>
<td>1.14</td>
<td>47.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malaysia</td>
<td>5.97</td>
<td>1.69</td>
<td>3.13</td>
</tr>
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Notes: The weighted average is based on GDP for the period 1980 - 2011, normalized to 1. The weights are calculated for each individual country based on monetary policy classifications. Figures are average values.

In short, countries under ‘exchange rate anchor’ arrangement might learn from both the ‘inflation targeting’ and ‘other’ monetary policy framework. The literature suggests that output gaps have valuable information content about movement in price and wage inflation (de Brouwer, 1998). However, the information should be used along with other broad set of information in policy setting. Assessing model predictions based on output gap produce better results when policy has clear targets.

5. Conclusion

The study compares the size of output gaps in ten selected OIC sukuk issuing member countries. The findings reveal that Bahrain, Pakistan and Malaysia have smooth trend between real GDP and its trends. Some of the countries under study display similar patterns of business cycles. Towards mid-2000s, most countries display fewer fluctuations in business cycles and changes in inflation. Indonesia seems to be able to track inflation well based on the visual plot of output gaps estimations. Hence, the results suggest that output gap estimations contain key information for monetary policy.

The output gap is an important concept in the preparation of inflation forecasts and assessments of the economic outlook and the stance of macroeconomic policies. The size of output gap helps policy-makers design appropriate policies to sustain economic growth in the long run without inducing inflation. Therefore, more accurate forecasts of inflation should help improve formulation of monetary policy in a particular economy.

For future research, the output gap estimations could be empirically decomposed into observable components such as inflation, unemployment, capacity utilisation or others in order to determine which components are important during high and low business cycle frequencies. The ultimate aim is to be included in the international currency basket. In addition, the output gaps estimations could be included in the empirical inflation equation to reduce ex-post prediction error.

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An Overview on the Freedom of Religion in Albania
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Abstract
If we take a look at the historical course of the independent Albanian state, which is established in 1912, we found Albania divided into two major religions, Christians and Muslims. After the declaration of independence of Albania in 1912, the clergy of the three faiths ranged between political, social and national movement wars arm, to do the best for the country. Albania throughout its history has been an example of how people of different religions have been able to correctly solve the trust relationship with the nation, the nation above all. Even after the declaration of the Republic of Albanian in 1925, again it was sanctioned the state with the principles of secularism and freedom of religion and conscience, principles which will also be reaffirmed in the status of the Albanian Kingdom of 1929. Things changed though with the coming of communism into power. Communists held a criminal attitude towards the religion. We can say that in 1945 the government decided to persecute the religious belief. For years Albanian communist regime deprived the freedom of conscience and religion, violating one of the fundamental rights and human freedoms. The communist regime’s atrocities during his 50 years of worship destroyed indiscriminately facilities such as those of Muslim, Catholic or Orthodox beliefs, being justified as an atheist youth movement. Atheism in Albania concluded with the advent of democracy on 4 November 1990, after a long collapse of atheist rules. Albanian law already protects the freedom of conscience and religion as a fundamental constitutional right.

Keywords: religion, freedom of conscience, law, atheism

1. Introduction
We can say that freedom of religion and conscience is one of the oldest human rights recognized internationally. If we look back through a glance at ancient times, in their infancy Illyrians were pagan who had built their trust over symbols. So Albania can be considered a religious center in the Mediterranean, a place where historically Latin traditions coexisted. Later on it was Christianity that gave a stronger identity to Albanian people. So, before submission to the Albanian lands by Ottoman Empire during the fifteenth and the sixteenth centuries, Albanians had embraced Christianity. With the Ottoman conquest of most Muslim Albanians returned for a variety of reasons ranging from the grip of fear to influence those who gain privileges. George Kastrioti, Albanian national hero Skanderbeg, is a symbol of civilization and Christian-Islamic tolerance. Skanderbeg appreciated more the unity of the nation and the unity of the Albanians. Albanian interests became primary when he came to protect the homeland. Skanderbeg found in people the strength to challenge in the name of freedom everywhere, he found it in the spiritual unity of religious and cultural identity of the Albanian people. Whole Europe, which is the cradle of ancient civilization, has listed Skanderbeg as the most prominent figures of this continent as a symbol of Christian-Islamic civilization. The Albanian Catholic Church, unlike from the counterparts in Europe, was characterized by an independence of its components as the result of the internal situation and powerful patriotic efforts, which made the clergy in our country to give priority to national principles. It is to be noted that same as in the XV and XVI century, in contrast to the eastern rite, the Catholic Church encouraged the use of Albanian language in 1861, which testifies the high sense of patriotic Albanian clergy. The Albanian Independency of 1912 found the country divided into two major religions. Albania throughout its history has been an example of how people of faith have been able to correctly solve the trust relationship with the nation. The First World War period and then during 1918-1920, showed that the existence of religions became vital for maintaining independence and strengthening the state, the nation above all, a reality that was evaluated by the external international opinion. Thus, in the following years the religion was institutionalized more and more in the service of faith and nation. The period of Constitutional Acts of Independence confirmed the separation of religion from the state. These were placed in the Organic Statute of Albania who was a "card donated" by the European Great Powers of the time, and later in the "Statute of the Albanian state" of 1922, which sanctioned that the state had no official religion, was guaranteed the respect of religious freedom and the right to change

1 Myftiu,G;Besim Fetare; Trashigimin Kulturore Shqiptare http://www.shqiperia.com/tr/besim_fetare.php
religion. Even after the declaration of the Republic of Albania in 1925 was again sanctioned, it states the principles of secularism and freedom of conscience and religion, principles which will also reaffirmed the status of the Albanian Kingdom of 1929. The period between 1920-1939 the policy of state aimed to place strict national principles for the activities of religious institutions, but also a state control over religious communities. This policy was developed in order to achieve coexistence and understanding of the three religious communities operating in Albania, and to turn them into supporters of the Ahmet Zogu's regime. So the Albanian politics was linked with the intention to establish a unity of the Albanian nation, to avoid religious disruption, which would be dangerous for the future of terrestrial integrity of the country. For this reason, Ahmet Zogu tried to separate the state from religion, to maintain peace and to understand the religious relations. Clergy were thrown totally against Italian fascism and German Nazism. This was the reason that 1933 Catholic bishop will jointly write Zogu "We are here in Albania for two thousand years, then Catholic and Catholics today, then Albanians and Albanians today and forever". Historical facts also show that in the years 1944-1990 communist ideas in the whole world and in Albania were spreading rapidly. It is clear why the communist ideology was so hostility to the religion. The fact is that with the advent of the ruling communists they held their criminal attitude towards religion. The government decided in 1945 to put the religious faith targeting mainly the Catholic Church. Persecutions and prosecutions of clergy continued, schools and Catholic monasteries were closed everywhere. Despite terrible attempt to eliminate the religious freedom, communist regime never failed to extinguish it. The Catholic and the Muslim clergy became a strong opposition to the communist regime. From 1967 until 1990 the beliefs and religious institutions were forced to cease their activities. By Decree no. 4263, dated 11. 04. 1967 it was decided that the assets of the estate of religious communities become property of the state. While the 4337 Decree, dated 13 11 1967 placed the repeal of Decree 743 of 1949 on religious communities. So religious communities were omitted legal recognition and therefore they cannot develop any activity. Communist regime's atrocities during his 50 years of worship destroyed indiscriminately Muslim, Catholic or Orthodox facilities, being justified as atheist youth movement. Religious institutions were returned to facilities for the development of public activities and other was fully collapsed. About 217 clergy were imprisoned and ended life in prison or being shot, supported by the penal code 1977. According to this code were condemned many former clerics but also secular. Many intellectuals, scholars by name, poets and writers, as at Shtjefën Gjeçovi, Preng Docin at George Fishta, Dom Ndre Mjedën, at Donat Kurti, etc., who had origins of the Catholic Church had suffered a deep blow. Albania was proclaimed atheist being surprised the entire world in which freedom of conscience and religion was a fundamental right. The atheism in Albania concluded with the advent of democracy, in year 1990. Thus began again establishment of churches, mosques, and a right, which was denied for tens of years. Today in the 21st century we have consolidated the systems of protection of the fundamental rights and freedoms. The rule of law is essential and distinctive feature of every society. At the core of every democracy is the government by the people for the people. The most significant feature of the rule of law is the Constitution, which is a public agreement between all individuals. Today in all democratic countries, the respect for freedoms and human rights, general principles of freedom and human rights are affirmed in the Constitution. Our Constitution has specifically stressed the principle of a society in its religious coexistence in its Preamble. The Constitution of the Republic of Albania as the fundamental law which has basic principles of organization and functioning of the state, a special place reserves the freedom of conscience and religion, realizing protection of the right of faith in some of its articles. As a fundamental right, freedom of conscience and religion occupies an important place being enshrined in several articles of the Constitution. Article 3 affirms the "religious coexistence". In Article 24 it is confirmed: Freedom of conscience and of religion is guaranteed, everyone is free to choose or change his religion or belief, and to express them individually or collectively, in public or in private life through religious education, practice or observance. Also the third paragraph of this article states that no one may be compelled or prohibited to take part in a religious community or its practices, and to make public his opinions and beliefs. In Article 24, freedom of conscience and religion is presented with its dual character. In the first place it means that everyone is free to choose not only religion, but also to change his religion or beliefs individually or collectively, in public or in private life through religious teaching practice or observance. The last paragraph of Article 24 states: "No one may be compelled or prohibited to take part in a religious community or its practices" seems to have reinforced the second aspect better. This is not only the affirmation of the right to practice the religion or religious beliefs, but also adds participation in a religious community and its practices. The right to worship is based not simply on the human right to associate and to form associations in general, which in fact is quite concerning, but sanctioned the right to participate in the life and practices of religious communities, as a personal right. It seems that freedom of conscience and religion is ranked in parallel with

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2 Anastas, i A; (2003) Fetë dhe Civilizimet në Mijëvjecarit e Ri-Rasti Shqipërisë; Tiranë;
3 Holova, M; (1996) Toleranca burim i hapsirës ekumenike dhe ia artit ekumenik në Ballkan; Tiranë;

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other fundamental rights such as freedom of speech and assembly\(^4\). Every citizen may freely choose his faith and to manifest religious beliefs freely. The individual in each institution and public space has the constitutionally legitimate right to respect and declare his or her religious faith without fear of discrimination. The declaration or application of religion in the above article cannot be limited in any space. Article 10 establishes the Albanian state neutrality in relation to religious communities and to report on matters of faith and conscience in general. So, a Secularism state means that the Constitution does not recognize the official religion. The Constitution of Albania creates the same opportunity for equality between religious communities. The state also recognizes the freedom of each individual to participate in a religious community and to attend its practice. This is an individual freedom. In addition, the right of freedom of religion evolves the personal right to participate in the life and practice of religious communities. Also, in the first part of the Constitutional, precisely in its Article 10, it states inter alia that: State and religious communities mutually respect the independence of one another and work together for the good of each and everyone. The relationships between the state and religious communities are regulated on the basis of agreements signed between their representatives and the Council of Ministers. Not all states are enshrined in the Basic Law of the State the right of religion or the right to choose one's religion. Article 18 is the classic article of equality, prohibits unfair discrimination on religious grounds. Also the national minorities have the right to express freely without being stopped or forced their religious affiliation, have the right to preserve and develop it by guaranteeing this right in Article 20 of the Constitution. Moreover, Article 9.2 prohibits political parties and other organizations whose programs are based on totalitarian methods that promote hatred or support races, religious, regional or ethnic due to religion or religious beliefs are unconstitutional. Inciting hatred and religious strife constitutes a criminal offense punishable by the Penal Code with a fine or imprisonment up to ten years. Also, destruction or damage of religious objects and prevention of religious ceremonies, considered as offenses, are punishable. Albanian state within its budget allocates funds from the state to come to the assistance of religious communities. So bilateral relations between the state and religious communities are regulated on the basis of relations connected between their representatives and the Council of Ministers. These agreements are ratified by the Parliament. So religious communities are independent from the state. From the standpoint of internal religious communities, they are considered as an element of the social body, equipped with its own legal personality and organizational and managerial autonomy, under the rules of general law\(^5\). As legal sources, regulating the relations of religious communities, are signed and ratified the four agreements. It ratified the agreement between the Government of Albania and the Holy See Vatican in 2005. It also ratified the Law no. 10056, dated 22. 01. 2009 *On ratification of the Agreement between the Government of the Republic of Albania and the Albanian Islamic Community. *On ratification of the Agreement between the Government of the Republic of Albania and the Albanian Orthodox Church, is another law for the regulation of bilateral relations. And Law no. 10056 dated 22. 01. 2009 *On ratification of agreements between the Government of the Republic of Albania and the World Bektashi, for regulation of bilateral relations. As it was noted above the special thing about this is that these rates are external sources of law, very similar to the international acts that become part of the internal system. This is because law in Parliament ratified the agreement between the Government and Communities. The state cannot interfere in the affairs of religious communities, but through agreements mentioned above place the independence of religious communities, implying somehow that they are considered as foreign troops to the state. Regarding the scope of these agreements can say that they guarantee the exercise of rights guaranteed by the Constitution and laws relating to freedom of conscience and religion: to recognize and guarantee respect for the rights of the religious community, institutions and its structures, as well as legal persons established by them, to freely develop their mission religious, educational and charitable. The state recognize and guarantee the integrity of the freedom of conscience and religion, institutions of worship as far as their activity does not clash with the Constitution and the laws. To ensure the freedom of the individual to choose or change religion, to manifest it individually or collectively religious institutions, or outside them, through worship, education, practices or the performance of religious rites. To ensure the freedom of the individual to not stop and neither compelled to belong to a religious community, or participate in practices, rituals and its management structures. Through this agreement, the parties commit to ensuring freedom of thought, conscience and religion. This freedom cannot be made subject to restrictions other than those provided for by law, which contains measures necessary in a democratic society, public safety, for the protection of public order, the state of health of morals. Albania has a great religious tolerance between Catholics, Muslims and Orthodox Albanians. In Albania, although there are three religions and four communities, religious conflicts haven’t been noticed. While religious phenomenon has emerged that when beliefs and religions were born, one religion is tolerant of other religions\(^6\). It should be noted that religious beliefs in Albania has always

\(^4\) Anastasi, A; (2003), Fetë dhe civilizimet në mijëvjecarit e ri- rasti i Shqipërisë;

\(^5\) Anastasi, A(2003); Fetë dhe civilizimet në mijëvjecarit e ri; Rasti i Shqipërisë;

\(^6\) Hetova, M; (1996) Tolerance buririm i hapësirës ekumenike dhe i artit ekumenik në Ballkan; Toena,Tiranë;
characterized a strong feeling and sincere harmony which is reflected in the relations between people with different religious beliefs, as well as between religious people and atheists. Albanians are both Christian and Muslim; they are Catholic and Orthodox, Sunni and Bektashi. In Albania there is a remarkable religious pluralism. Religions have not been and are not a source of conflict in society. If we have a look in the history of the religious communities in Albania, they have always succeeded⁷. This tolerance stems from the awareness of the Albanians that they belong to the same nation having a strong ethnic identity regardless of external factors affecting the determination of the various religious in Albania. Albanians have always been aware that they belong to the same nation, have never had conflict between their religious natures. Also, Enver Hoxha followed another factor that contributed to the consolidation of tolerance and intelligence cooperation between religious communities atheist policy. The spirit of good will and harmony that characterizes traditional religious communities are affected by common difficulties they have encountered in the communist past. Religious tolerance has always been present in the Albanian lands. Believers of different religions did not only respect religious holidays, but they were often also a cause for celebration regardless of which religion you belongs. Specifically, Shkodra is a concrete example of tolerance and coexistence that characterizes also the whole Albanians. We can say that in Albania you can often find two different religions within the same family or a tribe, or it’s no wonder that even one person follows the rites of religious holidays for both religions whether Muslim or Catholic. Tolerance and understanding exists between communities by making Albanians proud of the relationships that exist between them. At the end we can say that religious tolerance in the Albanian national tradition is one of the main characteristics of the morality of the Albanian people. The vast majority of the Albanian people are of Islamic faith, but everyone knows that their fathers were Christian and one of them does not deny this historical fact. Albanians belong mainly to three religions, and this has contributed into that they do not dominate social life and in any period of time religion was not a state component. They have been separated from the state who respect them, except dark period of dictatorship, the communist regime of Enver Hoxha during 1945-1991 when religious tolerance was heavy tread, when Albania necessarily turned in to an atheist state. It seems that the Albanians throughout their history have been and are oriented towards Western Europe, towards its Christian culture, democracy, politics, economy and their national interest. The interest of the nation has always been primary in relation to religious matters as well said from Pashko Vasa in the nineteenth century, …“ the religion of Albanians is albanism”⁸. Tolerance is in interest of every individual, every family and every state. It creates a humane atmosphere and opens the way for peace and friendship between people not only in Albania but worldwide.

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⁷ Morozzo della Rocca, R; (2003) Fetë dhe Civilizimet në mijëvjecarin e ri; Botim i Qëndra shqiptare për të Drejtat e Njeriut;
⁸ Krasniqi, M; Toleranca në traditën shqiptare; Botime te Shkencave; Prishtine
Usage of Promotional Activities in the Service Sector -
A Case Study on Bank Services Sector in Shkodër, Albania

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Abstract

This theme is an attempt to investigate and analyze how the use of promotional activities can help the development of the banking sector. As an important element of the marketing mix, promotion plays a vital role in the marketing of any product and service. And service banking system has no exception because customers want to know about the services and facilities for making their special offered by banks. As a result the spread of information and persuasion on the benefits of the services offered by banks are very important to attract the market to them. By the use of various means of promotion, banks try to serve this purpose and to influence consumers attitudes and increase potential interest to obtain these services back to their banks and reduce the risk that accompanies the product/service purchases. Although promotion plays an important role in marketing the product to the banking sector, the level of the banking system in our country is not in the parameters set out objectives for economic development. The main purpose of this study is to analyze the current situation and future possibilities banking sector operating in Shkodër, Albania and highlights as promotional activities can play an important role in the development of the banking system of a country like Albania. In the end of paper, based on the findings, are some suggestions for measures to improve policy management of banking. This system is a combination of theoretical and empirical research.

Keywords: Manager perceptions, promotion, banking services, Shkodër/Albania

1. Introduction

World economy is becoming overpowerd by the the industry of services. It consists of the economic sector with the fastest development in all the world, giving its contribution in the economic growth and in the growing of employment level. It is an industry that has its mayor support in an intensive use of manual work, in a close relationship with the client, and as a consequence of this it leads to the opening of new working places. In the conditions of a growing competition in the service sector and the usage of always more and more of these advanced technologies, this sector is being faced with new challenges. To deal with these challenges the service organizations are exploring the role of the marketing. The mixed marketing is a group of tools that are being used by the leaders of a service organization to model its offer for the consumers. The decisions for one of the elements of a mixed marketing is taken only being referred to the other elements because only in this way it can secure a stable position of the product. Due to the nature of services, the mixed marketing is an expansion of the 4 traditional Points of the product (product, price, promotion and place) in the 7 Points (product, price, promotion, place, people, physical evidence, and processes) of the mixed marketing of the services. (Elmazi, 2003). The need for expansion of the traditional mix of the services is connected with a high direct contact between the service organization and the consumer, with a compliance in time between the production and the consume. In order to have the biggest share in the market, to answer the market requests, to maximize their profits, it is necessary for the companies to make an effective advertising campaign. This happens because the potential market needs to be informed about the existence of the product, its nature, positive sides, otherwise it will not react. It can be considered a key feature the ability of the company to have a communication with its clients. Promotion has this role of communication. “The promotion can be defined as a summary of activities through which the enterprise aims to communicate with the market, in order to advertise its products and services” (Koja, V. 2006:13). To make these aims possible it uses a variety of promotional instruments. The mix promotion includes the combination of various instruments to satisfy the needs of the target market and to maximise its profits. The components are: publicity, personal sales, promotion of sellings, direct marketing and public relationships (Koja, V. 2006). The companies have to know how to divide the general investments of the promotion into its components. Even inside inside the Same sector we can see big changes between the different entities and the special expenditures made for different instruments of the promotion. The companies are in constant search in order to obtain the most efficient combination of the promotional mix and they very often modify the importance
of special elements every time their efficacy changes. Banks are an important part of the market economy and the service sector. They can play an unsustitutable role as a way of investment and as a form of profit of a safe financial service for people and organisations. A vital channel of communication between the bank-ist services and the clients is the marketing sector in these banks. It has an important role during the campaign, the promoting and selling activities and in maintaining the image of the bank. To help them in selling the products, banks use the different points of the mixed marketing, which helps them send information, identify and differentiate the service, promote the usage of new services by new clients and suggest rebuying it by the existing ones, develop the brand preference and the fidelity toward it. While people and organisations who in their everyday lives have the tendency to take decision on how to use money, where to deposit it, to do transactions, to find funds for investments or to be orientated to promotional banc means to take information on the existence and nature of the service product, the positive sides, they will receive from these services, information that they could use to take the decision of buying. The considerable consequences in the real sectors of the global economy caused by the last financial crisis that begun in the USA, the aggravating situation by means of this crisis, continuing with the aggravating situation in Greece, Italy, that are important commercial partners with our country and places where a lot of Albanian immigrants live, surely will have consequences in the Albanian economy and in the activity of the operating banks. The Reports Publicated by the Banc of Albania tell that the degree of usage of the banking system in not enough to have a developed economy. Also, the use of cash in the economy is too high. All these phenomena feed the informality and reduce the efficiency of monetary politics. From the other side the world financial crisis has lessened the trust of the clients in the banking system. Also in the conditions where the first money sending by the immigrants are seen as a target with enough profit for the activities of the banks and when they constitute a big influx of funds in the Albanian economy, IOM (International Migration Organization in Albania - 2014) notes that due to the financial and economical global crisis, a great reduction is seen in the immigrant sendings during 2009 and in continuance, especially of those living in Greece and Italy and also a considerable part of these funds circulate outside legal channels and in most cases are used to provide basic needs for the families and relatives of the immigrants. So, these funds that enter from the immigrants do not play a considerable role in the economy and the financial investment in Albania, partially because the Albanian financial institutions, in fact these funds that enter from the immigrants do not play an important role in the economic expansion, and the financial investment in Albania, partially because the financial Albanian institution lack financial products missing, directed toward the first sending of the immigrants and the services that urge the services be done through legal channels of in a formal way. This is even more vital at the same time, according to the annual reports of 2013 tè AAB (Association Albanian Banks- Shoqata Shqiptare e Bankave) deposits are the vital source of the funds, which has lessened during this economic year, being compared to 2011. With the scope of affronting these challenges, by which the banks play a vital role as a form of investment and as a form of profit, of a safe financial service for people and, and also in the conditions of a growing competition, and because of the un concrete nature of the bank products, and the need for information before buying the service for the potential clients, the promotional measures of the banking system, where banks play a vital role in the performance of this sector. Are the promotional activities those that constitute the targeted market of the banks. Through promotion the banks inform the client for the bank and its product services; to convince the clients that the offered product by this bank offers the best choice for the clients needs; it remembers the clients urging their attention to buy a special product, above all when it is offered in a specific time, so helping the banks to attract as more clients as possible and to also attract monetary values. Also the promotion of banking services shifting the attention on concrete elements to reduce the high risk level in the process of buying the bank service, making the clients look for the long effects, and to running toward higher interests. In the conditions of the financial global crisis and of the possibility of its influence in our country, taking as a study case the banking system is a courage per se, for the efforts of taking measures to resist this crisis. The article tries to help in the development of the banking sector, with its intermediary role gives an important contribution in the national economy. Banks can play an insostituible role as a way of investment and as a form of profit for people and organisations. It values and contributes in the close connection of banks with the targeted market by means of usage of promotional activities. The findings of this article can be generalized in all the sector of second level bancs operating in Albania.

2. Research’s Hypothesis and Methodology

Starting from the general case examines the scope of research to recognize the usage of promotional activities in the banking system, this case deals with hypothesis to be verified.

a. The undertaken promotional activities by the second level banks operating in Albania were not enough.

This research deals with the second level banks in the municipality of Shkodër, bct the because here exist a
considerable number of residents that have immigrated and that are a potential market to sell the service products the banks offer. The research is initially based on secondary information and then in primary ones. But, by examining these secondary resources exist many discussions on promotion usage in our banking system and less than that empirical research. So this case is based on primary data gathered through survey using as a scientific instrument the questionnaires on the usage of promotional activities by the operating banking system in Shkodër. This questionnaire is half structured. In the questionnaire are used questions with alternatives, like Likert scale, and free questions. The way of organizing the collection of data is the complement of the given questions. The population taken in this case are all banks of secondary level operating in the municipality of Shkodër. There are 12 operating banks in this municipality. The questions are designed and analyzed to have a clear view on the aspects of promotional activities from the operating banking system in Shkodër. In the quantitative analysis are used means of describing statistics, and the results are shown in tables and illustrated graphics.

3. Analysis

3.1 The profile of the respondent population

After 1997, from 3 that operated in Shkodër and 4 in all Albania till 1997 we have a sensitive growing number of private operating banks, 12 of second level and 16 in all the country. So most of the banks are new in their marketing activity, and as a consequence lack experience and capital directed toward necessary promotional activities to mark the banking services. From all the operating banks in our country only 3 are with a totally local capital, which operate in Shkodra too, and the others are with 75% foreign capital.

3.2 Types of promotional activities undertaken from the banks

Almost all the banks use all the means of the mixed marketing to promote their activities. They make advertisements in newspapers, local magazines, electronic media. They also use printed materials in order to publicate the information to potential clients in order to attract the attention to the potential consumer. But they do not use any international medium to advertise their services in the neighbor countries where there might be immigrants interested to take advantage of the banking services. It is paid attention to the personnel of contact to have a good interaction and to keep good relationships with important clients and to motivate them to make use of the bank in order to satisfy their needs. They also pay attention to the environment and the internal atmosphere as important and welcoming signs that could help in the appreciations of the bank services. They also pay attention to the techniques of sales promotion during the summer season to attract immigrant clients, or make use of preferential service packages for loyal bank clients. Some exploit different spaces for free publicity in the electronic media, tv shows, seminars and conferences to be promoted, to create an image and grow trust in the potential market. To create good relationship with the public and the community, to reach new segments of market banks sponsor different community activities.

3.3 The period of undertaking promotional activities

Most of the banks (83.4%), make promotional activities during all year long, and the other remaining part, 2 banks, (16.6% of the total) do not. From the last two, only one promotes during the summer, which can be considered as a partial attempt to attract the potential market toward itself, a thing to be considered the insufficient amount of funds.

3.4 Methods of defining promotion budget

Most of the banks (33.3%) use the method according to the financial possibilities in defining the promotion budget. This is the most common used method in defining the promotion budget, followed by three other banks or 25% of the total, that use the method based on the objectives and duties, which is the rightest method to define the promotion budget. While the other banks which constitute 16.7% of the total of the banks use the method of fixed percentage on last year total sales and of arbitrary definition. Only one bank keeps the promotion budget same as that of the last year. From this view results that only ¼ of the banks take into consideration the objectives of marketing and those of the promotion and give funds to reach these objectives.
3.5 Perceptions on the sum spent in promotion

When the banks were asked to tell about their perceptions if the spent sum for promotion, by means of their bank was enough or not, 50% of the banks expressed the opinion it was the maximum. While 2 other banks which constituted 16.7% of the total were neutral, which shows that the promotion budget was not enough or either it is possible the asked person has no clear idea to express his opinion on this case. While 4 of the bancs (33.3% of them) think the budget is insufficient. In a situation like this it is explainable why from the publications results that some banks lack liquidity and need for depositing market and also for a growing trust toward the bancs in the conditions of a global financial crisis, that is why they feel the need of promotional activities to attract potential market toward the bancs.

3.6 Perceptions on the efficacy of the promotional activities undertaken by the bancs

Nearly 50% of the banks accept the efficacy of the undertaken promotional activities. While the other half think that the undertaken promotional activities are not too effective, so give a neutral attitude, or can tell that the asked person has no idea on this issue. But according to a study IOM made most of the money sent by the immigrants constitute the biggest afflux of the funds in the Albanian economy, circulate outside the official channels (nearly 77% of them). This shows that the promotional activities are not as effective as enough. They do not use any intermediary outside Albania to attract the immigrants deposits and use legal ways to sent their money home.

3.7 The attitude toward the role of promotional activities in the banking system

Almost all the banks agree of completely agree that promotion plays an important role in the banking sector as a sector of service products. They see it as an investment for a better banking performance.

3.8 The attitude toward the need of growing promotional activities for the development of the operating banking system in Shkodër

Most of the asked people (83.4%) agree to undertake more promotional activities for a further development of the banking system, in order to exercise its successful function, that of financial intermediate and that of economy supplier with payment instruments. Only 8.3% have a neutral attitude.

3.9 General perceptions on promotional activities of the operating banking system in Shkodër

The promotional efforts for goods and services are made to reach a better performance in order to accomplish the organisation goal. Exactly for this, this case tries to evaluate the undertaken promotional activities to have a clear meaning if they are performed in the right way or not. This evaluation will help to find if the promotion activities have played any role or not in the marketing of the products of the banking service, if the bancs spend enough funds in the promotion activities or not, are these activities effective or not. The below table shows the general perceptions on promotional activities for the operating banking sector in Shkoder.

Table 3.1: Perceptions on the promotional activities of the operating banking sector in Shkodër

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Completely agree (%)</th>
<th>Agree (%)</th>
<th>Neutral (%)</th>
<th>Do not agree (%)</th>
<th>Do not agree at all (%)</th>
<th>Average</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Promotional budget is enough</td>
<td>3 (25)</td>
<td>3 (25)</td>
<td>2 (16.7)</td>
<td>4 (33.3)</td>
<td>0 (0)</td>
<td>3.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The undertaken activities of promotion are effective</td>
<td>2 (16.7)</td>
<td>4 (33.3)</td>
<td>6 (50)</td>
<td>0 (0)</td>
<td>0 (0)</td>
<td>3.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promotion has an important role on bancs</td>
<td>8 (66.7)</td>
<td>4 (33.3)</td>
<td>0 (0)</td>
<td>0 (0)</td>
<td>0 (0)</td>
<td>4.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There are needed more promotional activities</td>
<td>6 (50)</td>
<td>4 (33.3)</td>
<td>1 (8.3)</td>
<td>1 (8.3)</td>
<td>0 (0)</td>
<td>4.25</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As it is seen by the above table, the highest reached average is 4.66, far away from the medium average 3 and near the maximum 5 of acceptance which shows that the bancs believe that promotion plays an important role to attract potential clients toward themselves. While the average 4.25, so above medium level 3 shows that most of the bancs 83.3% of
them believe that they should undertake more promotional activities in defining the products of the banking services. The average of efficacit of the undertaken promotional activities, 3.66, shows that 50% of the bancs accept the efficacit of the undertaken promotional activities, while the other half keep a neutral attitude. This neutral attitude does not permit us to exactly judge if these activities were effective or not. While the lowest average 3.41, very close to the minimal acceptance degree 4 and far away from the lowest degree of insuficient 2 shows that (50% of the bancs) se think that the budget is enough and 33.3% think it is not, 16.7% take a neutral attitude. But again, the response level for enough funds from 50% of the bancs seem to be contradictory with the level of answering from 83.3% for the need from the bancs to do more promotional activities, which need more promotional budget. According to the suggestions for successful promoting activities from the bancs, all the asked people suggested more innovations in the products of banking service and in a marketing activity in order to avoid samepolitics between the bancs.

4. Conclusions

The conclusions given by the findings of the research as a reflecting of the main principles of research are: The industry of service constitutes the fastest growing service, which is giving its contribution in all the world, making possible the growing level of employment, the banking sector is an important part of the market economy and of the service sector. It can play an iunsubstituted role as a way of investment and as a form of profit of a safe financial service for people and organisations; the activity of the financial mediation in the economy of the banks in our country is being conditioned by the contraction of financial resources, the fluctuations of trust in the financial institutions and the declining request for loans, our banking system continues to be mainly financed by the public deposits being mainly concerned in the activity of loan giving for the businesses; the first sending of the immigrants constitute the biggest afflux of funding in the Albanian economy, leaving in second place the foreign investments and the exports; the degree of bank usage in our country it is not in the best parameters established to have a growing economy; banks lack financial resources designed and directed toward money sending by the immigrants or services that promote to send these sums of money in a formal way; banks do not give loans to small businesses which constitute the main part in the Albanian economy; in the conditions of a financial global crisis, of a more and more challenging market, of advanced technology usage, this sector is being directed toward the role of marketing; the promotion is an investment for a better banc performance; companies of banking service it is very important the development of effective promotional measure requests of the market, to attract potential clients, to maximixe their profits in a growing competition between themselves and the nature of the products they do not make use of; there is not empirical research connected to the usage of promotional activity in the operating banking system in our country; here these are immigrants who promote their service offers and to facilitate transactions for these immigrants; the budget of promotion it is not enough, and it does not take into consideration the marketing objectives and especially those of the promotion. Banks lack that kind of innovative technology which would make possible to promote qualitative and innovative activities toward the potential market.

5. Recomandations

Based on research finding below are given some modest recomandations for managerial measurements in order to improve promotion in the operating banc sector in Albania:

Fluctuations of trust in the operating bancs in Albania is a result of the financial global crisis and the distrust of the immigrants in these banks, and also the belief that the added transparency is translated in the integrity strengthening of the operating banc system in Albania together with the other reciprocal governmental orghans, it is required, the Bank of Albania to pay special attention to the education of the public. For this reason they must provide more information and publicate them in the reciprocal web-sites. Together with the banks of the second level operating in our country to hold more conferences and seminars, to give programs more frequently that serve this mission in the electronic media. Internet can play an important role in the international exchange of information.

It is necessary to have a bigger promotional activity for promotional offers for the faithful clients. For example, they can redact new products, with preferential prices for those clients that take their salary in these banks, or that keep their accounts of businesses in these banks. This kind of strategy of offering incentives to the existing consumers, can also play the role of advertising. They also have to take part in local fairs, national and international to promote new offers and to have potential markets. There must be done sponsoring of activities in the community, which help the image of the bank. There must be more innovations in the products of banking service and in the marketing activities especially in the promotional ones in order not to have the same service between banks. Different forms of promotion should be widespread through all the year and not only in the summer season.
Banks should do a bigger promotion toward the specific markets like immigrants and small markets. They should create financial products directed in the money sending and services that promote bringings in formal ways. In this way, beside the usage of internet, they should make publicity into our neighbour consulates and embassies, where most of these immigrants are gathered, or sponsor concerts of our artists in these countries, with the right to make publicity for these banks in the immigrant audience. Banks through promotional measures should encourage small businesses to take loans in these banks facilitating the procedures. Improvements should be done in the timing system of taking into consideration these applications and the answer giving, in the information required from the clients and the grounds of decision taking in order to publicate new offers which make easier the approach of small businesses in these banks. To specify the budget of promotion, banks should take into consideration the marketing objectives and especially those of the promotion to give funds for what is important to reach these objective.

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The Impacts of Political and Economic Uncertainties on the Tourism Industry in Turkey

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Abstract

Turkey is one of the most visited countries by international tourists in the world. In 2013, the tourism receipts in the country increased by 11.4% compared to the previous year. More than 4 million Russian tourists visited Turkey in 2013, mainly on the Mediterranean region. Utilizing a case study approach, this study examines the impacts of the political and economic uncertainties on the tourism market in Turkey. The uncertainties are identified as follows: (1) global economic crises, (2) political instabilities between the EU and Russia, and (3) domestic and regional political instabilities. Based on the number of tourist arrivals and statistics on tourist flows, the study reveals that the tourism market in Turkey is indirectly affected by the political instability and following economic crisis in Russia. Furthermore, the domestic and regional political instabilities surrounding Turkey have not negatively affected tourist flows. This study contributes to the literature with an analysis on how uncertainties in state policies have an impact on the tourism market. The paper is based on secondary resources such as in-depth statistical data, country reports, industry forecasts as well as risk/reward and security ratings.

Keywords: Tourism, uncertainty, policy, market, political instability, economic crisis

1. Introduction

This study analyzes how the country’s incoming tourism is affected by political and economic uncertainties by examining political instabilities and economic crises during the period of 2014-2015. This study provides two arguments: first, the existing literature on the relationships of tourism in regards to political instability and economic crises examines political instability and economic crises as two separate factors. Moreover, these studies examine these factors within a given country or region by observing their impacts on the concerned country or region; however, there is little literature that analyzes the interaction between political instability and economic crisis. This paper analyzes how political instability and economic crises are inter-related and how the interaction between these two factors has diverse impacts on the tourism sector. Second, this study contributes to the literature with an analysis on how uncertainties in state policies have an impact on the tourism market, specifically in Turkey. As such, the study analyzes uncertainties and risks as distinct constructs and identifies risk as “a state in which the number of possible events exceeds the number of events that will actually occur, and some measure of probability can be attached to them” (Stone & Gronhaug, 1993, 40, quoted from Quintal, et al., 2010, 798), and uncertainty has “no probability attached to it. It is a situation in which anything can happen and one has no idea what” (Hofstede, 2001, 148, quoted from Quintal, et al., 2010, 798).

Turkey has a mature and developed tourism market, which is based on culture and mass-market beach tourism. As tourism receipts and hotel occupancy statistics show, the sector is growing. According to the BMI forecast, it is expected that overall tourism receipts increase from an estimated USD 38.2 billion in 2014 to USD 48.3 billion by the end of our forecast period, which also signifies an increase on previous forecasts (BMI 2015, 19). In parallel to this statistics in growth trends, it is expected that the value of the hotel and restaurant industry will increase from USD 20.3 billion in 2015 to USD 25.3 billion in 2018 (p. 22). As these aforementioned statistics demonstrate, the tourism market in Turkey is characterized with a potential of strong growth (p. 27).

This study, providing a case study approach, examines the tourism market in Turkey in relation to the current regional political instabilities and economic crises. This study specifically analyzes the impacts of the political unrest in Crimea (started in February 2014) which resulted in an economic crisis in Russia. The political tension between the EU and Russia led to the decreasing number of Russian tourist arrivals to the EU. These developments, as deficits for the EU, actually created opportunities for tourism in Turkey. On another note, the increasing tourist arrivals to Turkey points outs that tourists do not perceive a threat in relation to the regional political unrests in Syria and Iraq. Based on the number of tourist arrivals and statistics on tourist flows, the study reveals that the tourism market in Turkey is indirectly affected by the political instability and following economic crisis in Russia. Furthermore, the domestic and regional
The tourism industry has a complex nature, which shows how political, economic, social and cultural factors are interrelated with each other (Bergner & Lohmann, 2014). This study relates the impacts of political instability and economic crises on tourism to uncertainty. In the literature, political instability is mostly identified with terrorism, unrest and political conflict in contrast to peace and stability (Sönmez, 1998; Sönmez & Graefe, 1998; Helmy, 2014). Morakabati (2013) identifies political instability in relation to conflicts, crises, instability, war, hostilities and instabilities. While Teye (1988) relates political instabilities to government changes and coups, Hall & O’Sullivan (1996) provide different dimensions of political instabilities such as international wars, civil wars, coups, terrorism, riots/political protests/social unrest, strikes (quoted from Sönmez, 1998, 448). Consistently, political instability is defined through political violence (Neumayer, 2004).

Yap & Saha (2013, 597) and Helmy (2014) identify political instability with uncertainty. Uncertainties are related to unexpected events that affect tourism demand such as “wars, terrorist attacks, natural disasters, epidemics, and financial crises” (Song and Lin, 2010, 17). Likewise, Hoti et al. (2005) analyze uncertainty in relation to “unexpected domestic and foreign economic, financial and political factors” (p. 2241). Bhattachari et al. (2005) identify political instability with political turmoil, “a situation that has created a crisis of authority in governance, and directional uncertainties in daily life” (p. 671) as well as a lack of stability and security (p. 686).

Dolnicar (2007) relates the term uncertainty to the “intangible nature of the tourism product” (p. 98) and associates the term with risk and perceived risk by tourists in their choice processes. Similarly, Fletcher and Morakabati (2008) analyze the effects of terrorism and political instability on the level of tourism activity and associate uncertainty with personal safety and security as well as risk perception. Floyd et al. (2004) examine the relationship between perceived risk and travel intentions and identify risks as financial risk, health risk, physical risk, crime risk, terrorism risk, social risk, psychological risk and risk of natural disasters.

Evans and Elphick (2005) study financial crises and crisis management in relation to uncertainties, which are identified as risks and vulnerabilities (p. 135). Steiner (2010) examines the impacts of political risk and violent political unrest on tourism FDI. As such, political unrest is related to political risk, which is differentiated from political instability; and this differentiation is embodied with the distinction between violent and non-violent political unrest. Steiner (2010) identifies international non-violent government interference as economic sanctions, foreign trade embargos, blockades and travel restrictions (p. 729). Uncertainty is defined in relation to high levels of anxiety, high levels of financial barriers, and low levels of benefits (Minnaert, 2014).

Smeral (2009) examines financial and economic crises in relation to tourism and analyzes the impacts of the crises on consumer behavior. Kozak et al. (2007) found that travelers change their travel plans on the basis of their risk perception such as the fear of disease, the lack of sanitation, the perceived risk of natural disaster or political dispute. Williams & Balaz (2014) use the concepts of uncertainty and risk interchangeably and argue that the two concepts are inherent to tourism in relation to the limited knowledge, such as the impossibility of storing unsold tickets and unoccupied accommodation (p. 1).

Silva et al. (2010) study risk in relation to unknowns. Uncertainties are identified as future unknowns in indicators, projections, and expectations (Smeral, 2010). Similarly, Hunter-Jones et al. (2008) relate uncertainty to unknowns and the lack of knowledge during the decision making process of tourists, which lead to the perceptions of fear and risk. Again, Bergner & Lohmann (2014) identify uncertainty with change and unforeseeable events such as climate change, changes in technologies, demographic change as well as changes in work situations and changes in tourist behavior, needs, and aspirations (p. 426-428). Minnaert (2014) associates uncertainty with risk, travel inexperience, lack of knowledge and financial uncertainty.

Quintal et al. (2010) differentiates perceived risk from perceived uncertainty. Uncertainty and risk are rarely examined as “distinct constructs” (Quintal et al., 2010, 797; Ghosh & Ray, 1992, 1997). However, this distinction is limited to the factors of financial loss, performance loss, physical loss, psychological loss, social loss and convenience loss; as well as their impacts of the probability of perceived risk and the perceived uncertainty.

The studies that measure the extent to which the factors of political instability and terrorism affect tourism market reveal different ranking of variables. For instance, according to the study on tourist concerns that would prevent tourists from booking their trip; war/military conflict ranked at 79 percent; life threatening diseases with 59 percent; an act of political instabilities surrounding Turkey have not negatively affected tourist flows.

2. Literature Review

The tourism industry has a complex nature, which shows how political, economic, social and cultural factors are interrelated with each other (Bergner & Lohmann, 2014). This study relates the impacts of political instability and economic crises on tourism to uncertainty. In the literature, political instability is mostly identified with terrorism, unrest and political conflict in contrast to peace and stability (Sönmez, 1998; Sönmez & Graefe, 1998; Helmy, 2014). Morakabati (2013) identifies political instability in relation to conflicts, crises, instability, war, hostilities and instabilities. While Teye (1988) relates political instabilities to government changes and coups, Hall & O’Sullivan (1996) provide different dimensions of political instabilities such as international wars, civil wars, coups, terrorism, riots/political protests/social unrest, strikes (quoted from Sönmez, 1998, 448). Consistently, political instability is defined through political violence (Neumayer, 2004).

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Evans and Elphick (2005) study financial crises and crisis management in relation to uncertainties, which are identified as risks and vulnerabilities (p. 135). Steiner (2010) examines the impacts of political risk and violent political unrest on tourism FDI. As such, political unrest is related to political risk, which is differentiated from political instability; and this differentiation is embodied with the distinction between violent and non-violent political unrest. Steiner (2010) identifies international non-violent government interference as economic sanctions, foreign trade embargos, blockades and travel restrictions (p. 729). Uncertainty is defined in relation to high levels of anxiety, high levels of financial barriers, and low levels of benefits (Minnaert, 2014).

Smeral (2009) examines financial and economic crises in relation to tourism and analyzes the impacts of the crises on consumer behavior. Kozak et al. (2007) found that travelers change their travel plans on the basis of their risk perception such as the fear of disease, the lack of sanitation, the perceived risk of natural disaster or political dispute. Williams & Balaz (2014) use the concepts of uncertainty and risk interchangeably and argue that the two concepts are inherent to tourism in relation to the limited knowledge, such as the impossibility of storing unsold tickets and unoccupied accommodation (p. 1).

Silva et al. (2010) study risk in relation to unknowns. Uncertainties are identified as future unknowns in indicators, projections, and expectations (Smeral, 2010). Similarly, Hunter-Jones et al. (2008) relate uncertainty to unknowns and the lack of knowledge during the decision making process of tourists, which lead to the perceptions of fear and risk. Again, Bergner & Lohmann (2014) identify uncertainty with change and unforeseeable events such as climate change, changes in technologies, demographic change as well as changes in work situations and changes in tourist behavior, needs, and aspirations (p. 426-428). Minnaert (2014) associates uncertainty with risk, travel inexperience, lack of knowledge and financial uncertainty.

Quintal et al. (2010) differentiates perceived risk from perceived uncertainty. Uncertainty and risk are rarely examined as “distinct constructs” (Quintal et al., 2010, 797; Ghosh & Ray, 1992, 1997). However, this distinction is limited to the factors of financial loss, performance loss, physical loss, psychological loss, social loss and convenience loss; as well as their impacts of the probability of perceived risk and the perceived uncertainty.

The studies that measure the extent to which the factors of political instability and terrorism affect tourism market reveal different ranking of variables. For instance, according to the study on tourist concerns that would prevent tourists from booking their trip; war/military conflict ranked at 79 percent; life threatening diseases with 59 percent; an act of political instabilities surrounding Turkey have not negatively affected tourist flows.

1 Similarly, Rodríguez & Estevez (2007) associates perceived environmental uncertainty to a function of both complexity and dynamism.
terrorism with 56 percent; the lack of access to clean food and water with 46 percent; and political instability with 46 percent (Dolnicar, 2007). According to another study, while war and political instability are the most weighted risks to pre-travel decisions, terrorism is the least significant (Hunter-Jones et al., 2008, 245). Similarly, Yap & Saha (2013) evaluated the effects of political instability, terrorism, and corruption on tourism development and their study revealed that although terrorism has negative impacts on the market, its effect on tourism is lower than that of political instability. Ranga and Pradhan (2014) show that despite terrorist attacks, tourist arrivals increased and tourism flourished in India. Similarly, the figure below shows that despite political instabilities, the number of tourist arrivals in the Middle East increased between the years 1950 and 2010 (Morakabati, 2013) (Figure 1).

3. Political and Economic Uncertainties

This section examines political and economic uncertainties as global economic crises, political instabilities between the EU and Russia, and domestic and regional political instabilities.

3.1 Global Economic Crisis

The relationship of tourism and economic crisis is associated with uncertainty in “the duration, depth, and implications of the global economic crisis” (Papatheodorou et al. 2010, 39) and how such uncertainty is transmitted into the tourism industry as economic volatility (p. 44). Since the global economic crisis, inbound travel to Turkey increased from 31.7 million arrivals in 2012 to 37 million in 2014. According to the BMI forecast, the arrivals to the country are expected to increase to 44.9 million by 2018. It is also estimated that Europe will continue to be the main region to constitute Turkey’s inbound tourism; yet, other regions such as the Middle East and Asia Pacific will send more tourists to Turkey by 2018 (BMI, 2015, 15). The diversity in the source of tourist arrivals to Turkey is seen as an advantage for the country in relation to the political and economic instabilities.

The 2008–2009 global economic crises resulted in a decrease of international tourist arrivals by 4 percent and a decrease of international tourism revenues by 6 percent in 2009 (UNWTO, 2013). Despite these declines, the tourist arrivals to Turkey continued to increase in 2008 and 2009 (Turizm, 2015) (Figure 2).

The intensity and duration of the impacts of the global economic crisis on the tourism market vary dependent on the region. Similar to Turkey, the Middle East and the Caribbean countries were less affected and managed to recover the negative affects at a quicker pace. Likewise Africa’s international tourism industry was not affected by the crisis (UNWTO, 2013).

3.2 Political Instabilities between the EU and Russia

Russian travelers have become the main source of tourists for both the EU and Turkey. In 2013, 32 million Russian travelers visited Europe, composing the third largest source for Europe (ETC, 2014). Similarly, with more than 4 million tourist arrivals, Russians make-up the second largest source for Turkey (BMI, 2015). However, the political instabilities between Ukraine and Russia over Crimea, which resulted in economic and political crises, have changed travel trends in these markets (ETC, 2014). According to the report published by the European Travel Commission,

“While the European tourism sector is not a direct target of international sanctions introduced in response to the crisis, it does suffer indirectly. The weakening Rouble, partly a by-product of deteriorating trade relationships, has progressively reduced outbound travel from Russia. The climate of economic uncertainty, fear of hostile attitudes towards Russians and deteriorated visa processing, amplified by media coverage, contribute to diverting travel from Russia to non-European destinations. (ETC, 2014)”

The impacts of political instabilities on the tourism market vary in different countries. Whereas the top tourism destinations for Russia, which are Finland, Lithuania, Switzerland and Czech Republic, were mostly negatively affected; Latvia, Cyprus and Turkey, which pose neutral positions, received an increasing number of Russian tourists (ETC, 2014). Russian tourist arrivals to Turkey have dramatically decreased in 2014 due to the decrease in consumer spending confidence in Russia, which is based on the decrease in global oil prices. Additionally, due to the impacts of the EU’s sanctions and visa complications for Russian nationals, tourist arrivals from Russia is expected to grow, by almost a million between 2014 and 2018. Moreover, the close political and economic ties between the governments of Russia and Turkey may result in increasing touristic activities between the countries (BMI 2015, 17).
According to the report published by the European Travel Commission, the change in the travel flows from Russia has also been affected by the decreasing purchasing power of Russian travelers due to the depreciation of the Rouble against the Euro (ETC, 2014). For instance, it is expected that Finland will be most affected by the depreciation of the Rouble due to the country’s close proximity to Russia and the significance of daily trips and shopping of Russian travelers to Finland (EurActiv, 2014). However, it is also expected that the depreciation of the Rouble will lead to an increase in tourist flows to European destinations that are not as costly to visit, such as Turkey, Greece and Hungary (ETC, 2014).

Turkey has been receiving an increasing number of Russian tourists. During the political instability between Russia and the Ukraine, Turkey refused to apply sanctions despite the fact that EU candidate countries are invited to share in sanctions being imposed. Therefore, Turkey has emerged as a main destination for Russian travelers. As a result of current sanctions, every country shows diverse results of Russian tourist arrivals. Turkey showed a significant increase as well as Greece and Cyprus, compared to the overall performance of the EU countries (ETC, 2014).

Spain, which is the second largest destination of Russian tourists after Turkey, has been experiencing a slowdown in Russian arrivals at almost a 5 percent decrease in growth in the early months of 2014. Poland is another country that is expected to experience the highest decrease in tourist arrivals from Russia, which corresponds to almost a 32 percent decrease in the number of Russian travelers. Similar to Poland, Germany and Italy experienced significant decreases in Russian tourist arrivals (ETC, 2014). According to the report of the European Travel Commission, the removal of the economic sanctions may have a negative impact on Turkey. It is forecasted that even a small change in percentage growth rates might be associated with a large number of people and changes at the total European level (ETC, 2014).

### 3.3 Domestic and Regional Political Instabilities

Turkey is a well-developed destination that offers a variety of options ranging from historical, cultural and natural attractions to sea-sun-sand tourism with beach resorts, festivals, activity holiday options and medical tourism (BMI 2015, 27). Despite this strong positioning, the forecast reports mention that “these developments are dependent on the maintenance of a stable political and security environment in the country over the forecast period” (p. 27). The possible threats to the stability include political instabilities such as anti-government protests; the treatment of PKK; and the conflict in Syria and Iraq, with their spillover effects. Nevertheless, it is expected that none of these threats will have a direct impact on tourism outside Istanbul (p. 27).

On 6 January 2015, a police building in Sultanahmet, one of the main touristic places in Istanbul, was attacked by a suicide bomber. A police officer and the assailant were killed. Following this terrorist attack, many travel warnings were published by government agencies. According to the Australian Government’s Department of Foreign Affairs and Trade, the advice was published on their website on 07 January 2015:

“… The overall level of advice has not changed. We advise Australians to reconsider their need to travel to within 50 kilometres of the borders with Syria. We continue to advise Australians to reconsider their need to travel to the provinces of Hakkari, Sirnak and Siirt, which border Iraq and Iran and to exercise a high degree of caution elsewhere in Turkey because of the threat of terrorist attack (Smarttraveller, 2015).”

Similarly, according to the UK Government’s foreign travel advice, the threats of demonstrations and terrorism were explained and the advice was as follows:

“The Foreign and Commonwealth Office (FCO) advise against all travel to within 10 km of the border with Syria. The FCO advise against all but essential travel to:
- the remaining areas of Sirnak, Mardin, Sanliurfa, Gaziantep, Kilis and Hatay provinces
- Siirt, Tunceli and Hakkari provinces.

Over 2,500,000 British nationals visit Turkey every year. Most visits are trouble-free. (GOV. UK, 2015)”

While regional political instabilities can threaten Turkey’s tourism, there are avenues for growth. For instance, political upheaval in competitive countries in tourism, such as Egypt, may lead to increases in tourist arrivals in Turkey, which may result in the growth in the hotel sector. Terrorist attacks and the political instabilities in Syria and Iraqi borders constitute a main threat for inbound tourism to Turkey but these threats have yet to come to fruitions.

### 4. Tourism Market Forecasts

According to the forecast reports, the investment plans of the top hotel chains declare confidence in the strengths of Turkey’s tourism market and the popularity of Turkey as a tourism destination. More importantly, the increase in tourist
arrivals, especially among high-spending tourists from the Middle East and Russia sustains the growth in tourism investment in Turkey.

According to the BMI report, the top 10 hotel chains have currently a presence in Turkey, which signifies a well-established environment for tourism. The top hotel chains include Accor Hotels, Best Western, Carlson Rezidor Hotel, Choice Hotels International, Hilton, Hyatt, Intercontinental Hotels, Marriott, Starwood, and Wyndham. More importantly, the investments of these chains have planned to expand in 2015. For instance, Wyndham operates 34 hotels in Turkey as of 2015, up from just 14 hotels in 2014. Similarly, Hilton has rapidly expanded in 2015 with 34 hotels including the new Hilton Istanbul Bomonti Hotel and Conference Centre located in Istanbul. In addition to this, Hilton plans to open its 50th hotel in Turkey, the 147-room Hampton Izmir, in early 2016. Accor and Best Western have also planned to continue expansion in the next two years (BMI, 2015).

Domestic investors have in parallel, boosted Turkey's tourism sector. For instance, Dedeman opened new hotels in Antalya, Zonguldak, Istanbul Bostanci, Gaziantep as well as in Kazakhstan and Erbil. Also, new hotels are under development in Istanbul Levent and Istanbul Bostanci. It is expected to see an increase in hotel numbers of more than 1,300 between 2015 and 2018; and thus, a slight decline in occupancy rates to over 31 percent is expected (BMI, 2015, 21) (Table 2).

According to the BMI forecast, Turkey has a Tourism Risk/Reward Index score of 53.7, placing the country in 13th place in the region of Central and Eastern Europe. The reward scores for tourism take into account the numbers and percentage growth of tourist arrivals over the past year and the BMI's forecasts for future growth. Turkey receives a tourism market score of 60.00, which is above average for the region (BMI 2015, 25).

Despite the strong presence of Turkey’s tourism industry, the risk/reward ratio takes into account weaknesses such as the anti-government protests and “the poor state of parts of the domestic infrastructure” (p. 25). These factors decreased the reward ratio of potential returns to 53.4. Similarly, since there are also weaknesses in the country structure, the reward ratio is decreased to 43.5 (Table 3).

As regards to risk scores, this score “offers an evaluation of industry-specific dangers and those emanating from the state’s political and economic profile that call into question the likelihood of anticipated returns being realised over the assessed time period” (BMI 2015, 25). Turkey has a risks to realisation of potential returns score of 54.3.

The market risks score considers short-term political stability and regional stability, as well as vulnerability to external factors. The score for Turkey is better for domestic political stability with the score of 51.5 in the market risks column. As regards to country risk score, it covers aspects such as legal framework, bureaucracy, market openness and security risks. Country's risk score of Turkey is fairly well with the score of 56.5.

5. Conclusion

This study analyzes the impacts of political and economic uncertainties on the tourism market in Turkey. The factors of political instabilities and economic crises intertwine with each other and their impacts have been differently in Turkey than in other countries. While the economic sanctions of the EU applied to Russia negatively affected the Russian tourist flow to the EU, it positively affected the tourism market in Turkey with an increase in Russian tourist flows.

This study analyzes how the country's inbound tourism is affected by political and economic uncertainties by examining the dynamics of the political economy with a particular attention to political instabilities and economic crises. This study contributes to the literature with an analysis on how uncertainties in state policies have an impact on the tourism market in Turkey. This study does not assume a priori that risks and uncertainties are inherent in tourism.

Despite political and economic uncertainties such as global economic crises, political instabilities between the EU and Russia, and domestic and regional political instabilities, the tourism market in Turkey has not been impacted negatively. According to the BMI forecast (BMI, 2015), it is expected that overall tourism receipts will continue to increase. The tourism market in Turkey is characterized with a potential of strong growth. Based on the number of tourist arrivals and statistics on tourist flows, the study reveals that the tourism market in Turkey has indirectly affected by the political instability and following economic crisis in Russia. The domestic and regional political instabilities in Turkey have neither affected the tourist flows. In parallel to the current literature, the impacts of political instabilities on tourism are more significant than the impacts of terrorism. As regards to risk ratios, the tourism market in Turkey secures its strong position. However, despite its position of strength, the positive growth expectations are dependent on the maintenance of a stable market environment in Turkey.
References


### Tables and Figures

#### Figure 1: Middle East tourist arrivals and political instability, 1950–2010
**Source:** Morakabati, 2013, p. 377.

#### Table 1: Inbound Tourism, Top 10 Markets by Arrivals ‘000 (Turkey 2011-2018)

<table>
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<tr>
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<td>5,041.3</td>
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**Source:** BMI, 2015, 17.
Table 2: Hotel Accommodation (Turkey 2011-2018)

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Source: BMI, 2015, 22.

Table 3: Reward and Risks Ratios

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<th>Country structure</th>
<th>Risks to realisation of potential returns</th>
<th>Market risks</th>
<th>Country risk</th>
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Different Aspects about the Position of Albanians in Montenegro

Dr. Sci. Veton Zejnullahi

Doi:10.5901/mjss.2015.v6n2s5p273

Abstract

Albanians of Montenegro as an integral and indivisible part of the Albanian nation in its land in Montenegro constitute 4.91% of the total population of the state. The Albanian population in Montenegro is characterized by a powerful diaspora primarily located in the United States of America, and after the war in Kosovo many Albanian citizens from there settled in Kosovo looking for a better life. Although a small percentage in number compared with other nations, Albanians in Montenegro have played an important role in political life and for the future of the state. We must ascertain role and the importance of the Albanian vote in the referendum organized for secession of Montenegro from the State Union of Serbia, which was decisive in achieving the final result in favor of independence. Albanians were the first nation who formed their own political parties, thus supporting Montenegro to become a multiparty state. During the war for the liberation of Kosovo, Albanians in Montenegro played a tremendous role ranging from financing, direct participation in the war, especially in accommodating, hospitality of Kosovo Albanian IDPs in their private home, public buildings, and mosques. The same roles played also the Bosnians population living in Montenegro. Albanian political organization starts with political pluralism and there currently operate several political parties but also the National Council of Albanians.

Keywords: Montenegro, referendum, Albanians, national rights, the National council

1. Introduction

Republic of Montenegro after the Second World War was part of the SFRY, consisting of six republics and two provinces. Montenegro was the smallest republic for the territory and for the number of population, but with a very favorable geopolitical position, because among other things also has access to the Adriatic Sea. Since the beginning of the dissolution of former Yugoslavia, the tiny republic of the Yugoslav federation became the target of attacks by Serb nationalists. In the so-called "Ant bureaucratical Revolution" after massive protests in Titograd (Podgorica today) in January 1989 party and state leadership of Montenegro resigned, replaced by allies of the Slobodan Milosevic. After the Yugoslav federation was dissolved in April 1992 with the independence of the republics of the then, in the federation remained only Serbia and Montenegro, announced the Federal Republic of Yugoslavia (FRY) on 27 April 1992. After this period, although the former allies and relation between the two republics began to fester, especially after NATO's intervention during the war in Kosovo. In 2003, the Federal Republic of Yugoslavia was reconstituted and changed its name to the State Union of Serbia and Montenegro, but the union was not long-lived, and was dissolved by the declaration of independence of Montenegro on 3 June 2006. For this reason the referendum was organized, which led to the mobilization of non-Serb peoples of Montenegro for a massive participation. Precisely in the referendum held on 21. 05. 2006 Albanian citizens traveled from Europe, America and many remote locations with the intention of declaring independence of Montenegro. Albanian vote increased this value due to the fact that the international community demanded from Montenegro to declare independence, not 51% as usual, but 55% of the citizens. The results demonstrate the importance of the Albanian vote, because in the end it turned out that 55. 5% of the citizens of Montenegro declared the independence of their country. Viewed in municipalities where Albanians live observe a massive output and a deep result in favor of independence as for example in Ulqin 88. 50%, in Plavé 78. 92%, and 91. 33% in Rozhaje1. It is very interesting that this referendum joined the Albanian political factor and acted in the interest of the declaration of independence of Montenegro, even being decisive in the final outcome, but otherwise never managed to join and appear unique and a joint list for the national elections and that in turn will bring the greatest number of Albanian MPs in the Parliament of Montenegro.

1 http://www.osce.org/sr/odihr/elections/montenegro/20099?download=true
The purpose of this paper is to show the state of Albanians in Montenegro, focusing on the historical, political, economic, education, health, national rights - the symbols and language, information, migration and many other problems facing Albanian population in this Republic. Also, will emphasize the role of Montenegro during the war that led to the breakup of the Yugoslav federation and the process of independence of Montenegro and the role of Albanians in the process.

Viewed from the historical aspect Montenegro has a sensational stories ranging from ancient times when it was Illyrian territory to the rule of the Ottoman Empire centuries was part of the Vilayet of Shkodra, which in itself had four Albanian and Montenegrin kaza up the Treaty of San Stefano in 1878 and the Congress of Berlin that year when was recognised as Slavic state. Thanks to the Treaty of San Stefano and Berlin Congress, Montenegro were added thousands of square miles including much land that today is part of Montenegro? Ulcinj, Bar, Tuzi, Hoti, Gruda, Rozaje, Plav, Gucia are Albanian lands were given to Montenegro.

In general, the Treaty of San Stefano Montenegro will be given a territory of 15,700 km2. And included a threefold greater territory, but which would revise the Treaty of Berlin was given an area of 9,100 km2. 

Map of Montenegro

2. The Purpose of the Paper

The purpose of this paper is to show the state of Albanians in Montenegro, focusing on the historical, political, economic, education, health, national rights - the symbols and language, information, migration and many other problems facing Albanian population in this Republic. Also, will emphasize the role of Montenegro during the war that led to the breakup of the Yugoslav federation and the process of independence of Montenegro and the role of Albanians in the process.

Viewed from the historical aspect Montenegro has a sensational stories ranging from ancient times when it was Illyrian territory to the rule of the Ottoman Empire centuries was part of the Vilayet of Shkodra, which in itself had four Albanian and Montenegrin kaza up the Treaty of San Stefano in 1878 and the Congress of Berlin that year when was recognised as Slavic state. Thanks to the Treaty of San Stefano and Berlin Congress, Montenegro were added thousands of square miles including much land that today is part of Montenegro? Ulcinj, Bar, Tuzi, Hoti, Gruda, Rozaje, Plav, Gucia are Albanian lands were given to Montenegro.

In general, the Treaty of San Stefano Montenegro will be given a territory of 15,700 km2. And included a threefold greater territory, but which would revise the Treaty of Berlin was given an area of 9,100 km2.

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2 http://www.cgautentik.com/index_o_cmoj_gori.php
3 Puto, Arben, Cështja shqiptare në akët ndërkomëtare të periudhës së imperializmit (1867-1912), vëllimi I, Tiranë 1984, pg.16
4 Po aty, pg.16
3. Political Developments in the Nineties of the 20-th Century

After the collapse of communism and the introduction of political pluralism throughout Eastern Europe and the former Yugoslavia and, consequently, Montenegro was involved in this huge wave of change moving from one-party system of state organization in the pluralist parliamentary democracy. Albanians were the first who formed their own political parties initially with the Democratic League of Montenegro and later was enriched with other political parties. Otherwise past two decades pluralist lives in Montenegro are formed over a hundred political parties, but most of them were short life.

Montenegro as part of the Federal Republic of Yugoslavia along with Serbia could turn the bloody wars that led to the breakup of the former SFRY, the more so since the beginning of the war in Croatia more volunteers peered Montenegrin side by side with the Serbian military and paramilitary formations in the war against Croats claiming to participate Croatian territory respectively strategic part called Konavle and Prevlaka, and were marked especially during the bombing of the city of Dubrovnik. However, after the departure of Momir Bulatovic from Montenegrin political scene, Milo Djukanovic's government distanced itself from invasive wars concentrating on preparing Montenegro for secession from Serbia. In the meantime, position of Albanians was getting worse as a result of anti-propaganda led by Belgrade.

With the pretext of the call to military service and sending Albanian youth in war fronts, many young people were forced to leave and settle in different Western countries and in the USA, which greatly influenced the further reduction of the number of Albanians in Montenegro.

During the campaign of NATO air strikes against the Federal Republic of Yugoslavia, that the attack had targeted many naval and air bases where the Yugoslav army stationed on the territory of Montenegro, Montenegrin government held a constructive attitude being distanced from the federal government and giving support to Serbian opposition, even though their accommodation in Montenegro after being the target of persecution of the regime of Slobodan Milosevic, as happened with the Democrats leader Zoran Djindjic, who some years later was elected Prime Minister of Serbia but that was executed in a assassination of Serbian nationalists.

5 http://www.pashtriku.org/?kat=60&shkrimi=1027
4. The Political Organization of the Albanians in Montenegro

After the introduction of political pluralism in Montenegro, the Albanians were they among the first who formed their own political parties. Democratic League of Montenegro is the first Albanian formed in Montenegro. Currently there are ten Albanian political parties: This is a list of Albanian political parties based on the last election coalitions:

The Coalition "For the Union" has three political parties: New Democratic Force (FORCE), Civic Initiative Party and Movement "Perspective". Other political grouping "Albanian Coalition" with three other parties: Democratic League, the Democratic Party and the Albanian Alternative. It is the party's long-standing ethnic Albanian Democratic Union (UDSH), then Albanian Youth Alliance, and now two new parties: Civic Initiatives Albanian Party ("Party of Plav") and the Alliance Party of Albanians ("Party of Gucia), what really gets that for every 2,000 Albanian voters exists a political party.

Since the first elections held in 1990 and until last elections Albanians have always been represented in the Assembly and the number of members varies depending on their organization. The largest numbers of deputies have had in the elections of 1996 with a total of four members7. It is important to note that the Albanians consistently included in the Montenegrin national party lists, thus giving citizens the character of these parties even some of them have managed to be elected deputies. The case of representation usually occurs with the Prime Minister Milo Djukanovic's party - the Democratic Party of Socialists (DPS).

What characterizes the Albanians in Montenegro as the Albanians in Macedonia and the Presevo Valley is disunity and division into many smaller parties to fully suits the power. Albanians never come out with a list of national elections or local municipalities in which endanger eventual defeat. For more recent local elections for the municipality of Ulcinj Albanian parties lost their majority by the ruling DPS and if it were not great pressure of public opinion by the citizens there as well as pressure from Pristina and Tirana to create a post-election coalition was risk that the only municipality governed by Albanians be lost and fell into the hands of Montenegrin parties.

5. The Role of Albanians in Montenegro during the Kosovo War

KLA war for freedom and independence of Kosovo as a challenge -century helped and supported in various forms by the Albanians of Montenegro. Montenegrin Albanians were very active in accommodating Albanian citizens evicted by Serb forces especially the Dukagjin valley, then direct participation in the war of giving donations to numerous war service.

City of Rozhaja was as gateway to evicted citizens who settled in private homes of Albanians as well as religious and cultural facilities. With tens of thousands of Kosovo Albanians settled in Albanian cities in Rozhaja up in Ulcinj or through them crossed into Albania. Besides accommodation citizens became the supply of food and medicines to the KLA soldiers to the Dukagjin Operational Zone based in Rugova Mountains and in many cases the transfer of wounded soldiers and their medical treatment was done at Albanians houses in this cities.

7 http://www.pobjeda.me/2012/03/06/visestranacki-zivot-u-crnj-gori-od-stotinak-partija-prezivjela-petina/#.VApm2PmSydg
It should definitely be noted that any institution from Kosovo did not see reasonable at least express a public thanks to the Albanians of Montenegro for their contribution during the war for the liberation of Kosovo as it did with Albania and Albanians in Macedonia. Setting a grateful slab to Rozhaje or Ulcinj would be justification for all the activity and a message for future generations witnessing that their ancestors have contributed to the freedom and independence of Kosovo.

6. Current Problems of Albanians in Montenegro

Even after the independence of Montenegro Albanian citizens are faced with many problems that are the basic terms of national rights. The problem that worries is that of higher education in the native language so the lack of a University that will meet their needs with new cadres. So the only option is to study in Pristina and Tirana. Even after many requests, still not opened any institution of higher education in the Albanian language. This region is known as a very strong educational and argued that the school first was opened in 1892 in Skje-Kraja8 followed in the coming years with the opening of schools in other Albanian areas. Otherwise, from these areas is also the author of the book John Buzuku first Albanian "Meshari" in 1555.

Another problem is the health because there is no single hospital as seen from the official list of hospitals published by the Ministry of Health of Montenegro9, in the region except a certain number of ambulances that in no way that do not fulfill the needs, so for any serious health problem people have to make tens of kilometers to receive necessary medical services. Not the best situation is also with information, no information in their mother tongue, where besides several local televisions there is no television or newspaper which would cover the entire territory in order to inform as quickly and efficiently to citizens.

Albanian citizens are deprived from their right to use their national symbols such as the use of the national flag and official use of Albanian language. The official documents today issued only in Serbian and Albanians do not enjoy any right in this regard. In this area occurs even greater discrimination for Albanian citizens because adjective of Albanian citizens was added Slav suffixes - iq and viq.

Currently the most preoccupying problem of this region is a migration which has taken off, especially after the visa liberalization that the EU decided to Montenegro. The causes of this migration are numerous ranging from security issue, then the lack of perspective and economic development of the region has influenced young Albanian people which have been educated in the Kosovo and Albania, based on the lack of perspective the youth remain there because the opportunity for employment is greater.

In addition to migration in western countries and the USA, Albanians from there after the liberation of Kosovo have started to settle with their families in Kosovo that is impacting greatly reduce further the number of Albanians in Montenegro.

7. The Economic Development Perspective

Albanian regions in Montenegro in addition of being important in geo-strategic terms are rich with underground wealth and provide favorable conditions for economic development. The main branch of the economy is tourism. In Albanian areas is developed summer tourism on the coast of Ulcinj beaches and winter tourism in the wonderful slopes near Rozhaje that appropriate investments would become attractive places for foreign tourists who practice the sport of skiing.

Another important branch is agriculture, particularly livestock because climatic conditions are such that enable the development of a highly production and processing industry of dairy products.

Characteristic of the Albanian lands in Montenegro is of Wood production and processing, especially the construction of wooden houses. It is up to government bodies to invest in forestation of high mountains which offer high-quality trees with the only purpose that this area transform into an industrial wood processing which in turn will also generate new work places.

Another important sector is energy and wind energy production as a product which is supported and favored by Kiotos agreement. Knowing that Montenegro is the only ecological country in the World, this form of production is favored also by the state because it does not cause environmental pollution.

8 http://vargmal.org/lg/dan2529
9 http://www.mzdravlja.gov.me/ministarstvo/linkovi
8. Conclusions and Recommendations

- Albanians should join the National Council and elect all its organs ranging from the Assembly of the Council. The role of the National Council as the government should be in the shade and will have the following duties:
  - Design and development of policies such as economy, politics, education and health and in all areas of life where Albanians remain unrepresented
  - To prepare the projects for the opening of a higher education institution and the opening of new hospitals
  - Establish News Agency, Radio and the daily newspaper in order to inform the internal and external public
  - To request from two Albanian states (Republic of Albania and the Republic of Kosovo) to open offices of the Council, respectively in Tirana and Pristina especially with the aim of trade and tourism promotion
  - To request the Government of Albania that to Montenegro Albanians equipped with double citizenship by given to them Albanian passports.
  - To prepare the project for establishment of the Association of Albanian Municipalities (including the municipality of Tuzi) that would enable the special status of political, administrative, etc., a position which would improve the position of Albanians in particular in relation to the treatment of the Republic Montenegro for this region.
  - To request the Government of Kosovo to condition the establishment of diplomatic relations with Montenegro to the advancement of human rights and the constitutional position of Albanians
  - To organize the regional and international donors and potential investors conference who would allow economic development of Albanian municipalities a step that would open the way to further development in all areas taking into account the importance of economic development and its impact on sectorial policies that would increase the number of employees as well as social welfare of citizens but that will affect and the return of those who are moved.
  - To establish institutional and social cooperation in all possible areas of cooperation and all levels of representation with the Republic of Kosovo, the Republic of Albania, Albanian diaspora, the Albanians of Macedonia and the Albanians of Presevo Valley
  - To make the opening of higher education institutions with regional and international character which will enable not only national integration of Albanians from all Albanian territories but also the citizens of neighboring countries by promoting regional cooperation as a condition for European integration and conflict prevention.
  - To develop projects for the urbanization of the Albanian lands as a precondition for the development of tourism and its promotion as an opportunity for economic development and growth of living standards.
  - Request by the Government to stop the application of the introductory fee for Albanians in Kosovo and Montenegro, as did the Albanian citizens of Presevo Valley

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Functional Textile Preferences of Elderly People

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Abstract

Aging is an inevitable stage of lifetime bringing along physical and emotional deterioration. Rate of aging population in the world has been constantly rising with the contribution of technological improvements on life quality, and medical services. Depending on the unavoidable physical and emotional changes of aging human body, clothing preferences and needs become different than needs of other textile and clothing consumer groups. Textile and clothing products are one of the basic needs of human kind. Sufficient and appropriate clothing is especially important for life quality improvement at elderly stage of human life. New generation functional and smart textile and clothing products bring new opportunities to improve life quality of elderly people with such wide range products of mobility support clothing, medical help, hygiene, and health monitoring textile and clothing products. This survey based research work is aimed to search the awareness level and priority of society about the functional and smart textile products for elderly people. It has been found that gender difference has significant influence on preference level of functional textile products, where women has higher interest then men about functional textiles. It can also be stated that comfort properties are primarily preferred preferences comparing to the fashion and functionality properties of textile products.

Keywords: Elderly people, functional textiles, smart textiles

1. Introduction and Literature Review

Average living time of human being is steadily increasing. As result of the longer life time the number of people in the aging group is also increasing. Currently 8.3% of World population is over 65 years old and it is estimated that this rate will be about 16% in 2050 (Url 1).

Consumer based needs of aging population is different than other consumer groups. There are several studies concerning their behaviors and special needs of elder consumers. In the study of Richards (1981) clothing preferences and problems of elderly female consumers are researched. Jackson (1992) had studied spending patterns of elderly consumers (age 60 and above) on personal apparel. Shim (1993) had researched differences in satisfaction with the fit of apparel purchased through catalogs and catalog attributes among three groups (petite, medium, and tall) of women 55 years and older. Goldsberry (1996-a, 1996-) had focused on women 55 years and older about their current body measurements and overall satisfaction and dissatisfaction with the fit of ready-to-wear clothing. Vural (2008) had studied body size standardization in terms of underwear production of women over 60 years old. In the report of Meinander (2002) problems that can occur concerning clothing and textiles for disabled and elderly people are identified and suggestion has been offered to solve their problems where possible. Civitci (2004) has focused on the ergonomic garment design for elderly Turkish men that she has determined elderly men’s demands, needs and problems in regard to clothing and to design an ergonomic garment in the light of the knowledge. Joung (2006) has questioned the factors of dress affecting self-esteem in older females. It has implemented that in order to maintain self-esteem in old age, individuals should be encouraged to participate in social activities and appearance management activities; the fashion and personal care industry should have an awareness of older female consumers’ needs and develop and provide age-related products and services. Pisut (2007) has studied fit preferences of female consumers in the USA. Mona, Mak Man Nga (2011) has completed a thesis, namely “Study and design of elderly aesthetic apparel”, in Bachelor of Arts (Honors) In Fashion & Textiles program in Institute of Textiles & Clothing the Hong Kong Polytechnic University. Her aim was to

1 At the moment, there is no United Nations standard numerical criterion, but the UN agreed cutoff is 60+ years to refer to the older population (Url 2).
understand the elderly clothing in general, including wearing requirements, wearing difficulties, clothing preferences and
design an aesthetic-oriented elderly apparel which helps to improve the design, materials usage and address potential
problem; and find out the real situation and demands toward garments of elderly in Hong Kong. Chattaraman (2013) has
focused on the age, body size, body image, and fit preferences of male consumers in their statistically study. They have
offered important implications and created actionable market information on fit strategy for male consumer segments.
Twiggy (2014) had addressed debates around the changing nature of old age, using UK data on spending on dress and
related aspects of appearance by older women to explore the potential role of consumption in the reconstitution of aged
identities.

Textile and clothing products are one inevitable consumer product for human being. Beside the basic use purposes
of covering and protection; textile and clothing products had started to have some more additional features. Classical
form of textile and clothing products are in significant progress stage that moves forward becoming technical, functional,
and smart textile products. The expertise gained from many years of research is being more intimately married with
expertise from other engineering, scientific and design sectors, giving rise to a new breed of functional and smart
technologies (Tang 2005). The term “smart” in textile and clothing products includes meaning of functionality and has
been used to refer to materials that can sense and respond in a controlled or predicted manner to environmental stimuli,
which can be delivered in mechanical, thermal, chemical, magnetic or other forms (Tao, 2001). The difference between
functional and smart textile products can be defined as responding ability presence of the product. Functional textile
products are those products that may only provide permanent or temporary additional features of antimicrobial, fire
retarding, stain resistant, antistatic, quick drying, odor resistive, etc. properties; where smart textile products provide direct
and indirect responses.

Interest of functional and smart textile and clothing product has lately grown exponentially. Promising sub divisions
of functional and smart textiles are military textiles, geotextiles, medical textiles, sport and leisure textiles, wearable
electronics, and transportation textiles. Special products designed to improve and help elderly people is also one rising
sub sector of functional and smart textiles. This product group is an intersection of other current functional and smart
textile product groups which are medical textile, wearable - electronic textiles, sport textiles, and protective textiles.
Market penetration and commercialization of such special products are rising as result of gradual reduction of component
costs, rising consumer interest and improving technologies.

Market share of those special textile products for elderly people is also growing as result of increasing share of
elderly people in the society. Another main driving force behind the market growth is consumer purchase power in the
developed countries. Especially baby boomer generation has become retired with their cash build up and pensions that
is easily spendable for their own health care and any other expenses to improve their life quality and help them to live
independent and longer.

Survey suggests that aging is associated with physical and emotional changes which can be repaired,
accomplished and cared using some external products. Gender, age group, and education level are selected as
dependent variables questioning preferences and awareness level about functional and smart textile products for elder
people.

2. Objectives of the Study

Presented study is aimed searching the following objectives:

1. Exploring the attitudes of the society about functional textile and clothing products regarding the gender, age
and education differences.
2. Exploring the significance of product properties and consumer performance criteria expectations among
society regarding the gender, age and education differences.
3. Comparing the general expectations and views of participants based on their own knowledge about elderly
functional and smart textile and clothing products.

3. Method of the Research

Questionnaire form has built up in three parts of demographic data, five levels Likert Scale measurement of textile
product property priorities, and five level Likert Scale measurements of elderly textile products. Participants are answered
39 questions of three parts in total, using face to face survey method. In total 212 valid participants from Pamukkale

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2 The Baby Boomers are defined as those born between 1945 and 1964 in USA and in Europe.
University-Denizli/Turkey, and Retired Teacher House in Muğla/Turkey is responded to the questions. Five level Likert Scale data and its weight values are given in Table 1.

**Table 1:** Five level Likert Scale and weights of responses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1. Responses</th>
<th>2. Weights</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3. certainly not agree</td>
<td>4. 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. not agree</td>
<td>6. 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. uncertain</td>
<td>8. 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. agree</td>
<td>10. 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Strongly agree</td>
<td>12. 5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Questionnaire has four main parts, which are part I: demographic data of gender, age, and education level; part II: 20 questions about general awareness level of functional and smart textile products; part III: 9 questions of general expectations about functional and smart textile; and part IV: 10 questions about awareness and interest to functional and smart textile products designed specifically for elderly people. Likert scale based answers of the questions are then recorded, and used for the estimation of median, standard deviation, and significance (at %95 confidence intervals) values.

**4. Findings and Results**

Demographic data of the participants are presented in Figure 15, for total of 212 participants. Rate of female participants in total is 55%; rate of participants aged between 18-25 is 38 %, 25-40 is 8 %, 40-60 is 37 %, and 60+ is 17%; and education level of participant rates are elementary school is 7%, high school is 11% and university graduates is 82%.

![Figure 1: Demographic data of participants](image)

Responses of participants to the questions in Part II of the survey Part II are given in Table 2. There are 20 statements presented to the participants, in order to control and compare the general awareness level about functional and smart textile and clothing products. The participants are required to choose their agreement levels of each statement in Likert Scale. 11 statements out of 20 is found non significantly different among the participant responses, where they are defined as having homogenous variances of all participants. Statements that are determined as having homogeneous variance are “Dirt and stain repellency in T & C is important for me”, “Size stability in wool T & C is important for me”, “Shiny surfaced fabric use in T & C is important for me”, “Anti-static ability in T & C is important for me”, “Wound healing ability in T & C is important for me”, “Heat storage and management ability in T & C is important for me”, “Cooling in T & C is important for me”, “Head ache curing ability in head covering products is important for me”, “Odor releasing ability in T & C is important for me”, “High elasticity in in T & C is important for me”, “Quick drying in T & C is important for me”.

In general evaluation of the participant responses, it is seen that female participants and age group of 40-60 are more likely to have interest about functional and smart textiles comparing to the male and other age group of participants.
Table 2: Questions, medians, standard deviations, F and significance values of Part II

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question nr.</th>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Age Groups</th>
<th>Education Level</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>Softness in T &amp; C* is important for me.</td>
<td>X 4.68 4.55</td>
<td>4.51 4.47</td>
<td>4.79 4.56</td>
<td>4.79 4.67</td>
<td>4.60</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>S 0.47 0.66</td>
<td>0.57 1.01</td>
<td>0.41 0.50</td>
<td>0.43 0.48</td>
<td>0.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>Breathing ability in T &amp; C is important for me.</td>
<td>X 4.71 4.66</td>
<td>4.58 4.71</td>
<td>4.76 4.78</td>
<td>4.79 4.75</td>
<td>4.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>S 0.46 0.56</td>
<td>0.54 0.47</td>
<td>0.49 0.42</td>
<td>0.43 0.44</td>
<td>0.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>Creaseless in T &amp; C is important for me.</td>
<td>X 4.66 4.39</td>
<td>4.69 4.59</td>
<td>4.42 4.42</td>
<td>4.57 4.29</td>
<td>4.57</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>S 0.56 0.78</td>
<td>0.54 0.51</td>
<td>0.78 0.73</td>
<td>0.85 0.86</td>
<td>0.63</td>
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<tr>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>Fire retarding ability in T &amp; C is important for me.</td>
<td>X 4.07 4.09</td>
<td>3.83 3.76</td>
<td>4.31 4.31</td>
<td>4.00 4.17</td>
<td>4.07</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>S 1.06 1.00</td>
<td>1.08 1.15</td>
<td>0.90 1.01</td>
<td>1.24 1.13</td>
<td>1.01</td>
</tr>
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<td>2.5</td>
<td>Dirt and stain repellency in T &amp; C is important for me.</td>
<td>X 4.38 4.29</td>
<td>4.40 4.24</td>
<td>4.38 4.19</td>
<td>4.14 4.08</td>
<td>4.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>S 1.00 0.82</td>
<td>1.03 0.83</td>
<td>0.86 0.86</td>
<td>1.17 1.14</td>
<td>0.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>Antimicrobial efficiency in T &amp; C is important for me.</td>
<td>X 4.44 4.48</td>
<td>4.31 4.00</td>
<td>4.60 4.72</td>
<td>4.64 4.54</td>
<td>4.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>S 0.92 1.01</td>
<td>0.94 0.91</td>
<td>0.95 0.91</td>
<td>0.50 0.50</td>
<td>0.89</td>
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<tr>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>Size stability in wool T &amp; C is important for me.</td>
<td>X 4.57 4.58</td>
<td>4.64 4.53</td>
<td>4.55 4.50</td>
<td>4.57 4.46</td>
<td>4.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>S 0.78 0.77</td>
<td>0.69 0.87</td>
<td>0.83 0.77</td>
<td>0.94 0.93</td>
<td>0.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>Pilling-less ability in T &amp; C is important for me.</td>
<td>X 4.78 4.65</td>
<td>4.81 4.53</td>
<td>4.77 4.50</td>
<td>4.79 4.71</td>
<td>4.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>S 0.51 0.73</td>
<td>0.48 0.87</td>
<td>0.42 0.97</td>
<td>0.43 0.46</td>
<td>0.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>Shiny surfaced fabric use in T &amp; C is important for me.</td>
<td>X 3.10 2.88</td>
<td>3.12 3.12</td>
<td>2.97 2.69</td>
<td>3.93 2.79</td>
<td>2.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>S 1.16 1.05</td>
<td>1.02 1.17</td>
<td>1.18 1.12</td>
<td>0.92 1.22</td>
<td>1.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.10</td>
<td>Drape ability in T &amp; C is important for me.</td>
<td>X 3.69 3.58</td>
<td>3.63 3.65</td>
<td>3.57 3.83</td>
<td>4.14 3.50</td>
<td>3.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>S 1.05 0.92</td>
<td>1.11 1.15</td>
<td>0.97 0.66</td>
<td>1.18 1.13</td>
<td>1.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.11</td>
<td>Anti-static ability in T &amp; C is important for me.</td>
<td>X 4.50 4.32</td>
<td>4.33 4.24</td>
<td>4.49 4.56</td>
<td>4.57 4.54</td>
<td>4.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>S 0.82 0.83</td>
<td>0.89 0.97</td>
<td>0.97 0.81</td>
<td>0.51 0.59</td>
<td>0.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.12</td>
<td>Wound healing ability in T &amp; C is important for me.</td>
<td>X 4.09 4.03</td>
<td>4.10 3.76</td>
<td>4.03 4.19</td>
<td>4.36 4.04</td>
<td>4.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>S 0.95 0.92</td>
<td>0.92 1.09</td>
<td>0.93 0.92</td>
<td>0.74 1.00</td>
<td>0.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.13</td>
<td>Massage effected T &amp; C is important for me.</td>
<td>X 3.43 3.52</td>
<td>3.60 3.41</td>
<td>3.35 3.44</td>
<td>3.64 3.54</td>
<td>3.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>S 1.22 1.06</td>
<td>1.21 1.00</td>
<td>1.15 1.08</td>
<td>0.84 1.38</td>
<td>1.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.14</td>
<td>UV protective property in T &amp; C is important for me.</td>
<td>X 4.21 4.40</td>
<td>4.21 4.18</td>
<td>4.31 4.53</td>
<td>4.29 4.17</td>
<td>4.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>S 0.97 0.92</td>
<td>0.92 0.88</td>
<td>0.87 0.74</td>
<td>0.91 1.20</td>
<td>0.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.15</td>
<td>Heat storage and management ability in T &amp; C is important for me.</td>
<td>X 4.10 4.20</td>
<td>4.16 3.88</td>
<td>4.17 4.19</td>
<td>4.23 4.13</td>
<td>4.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>S 0.92 0.84</td>
<td>0.87 0.99</td>
<td>0.86 0.92</td>
<td>1.01 0.90</td>
<td>0.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.16</td>
<td>Cooling in T &amp; C is important for me.</td>
<td>X 4.32 4.27</td>
<td>4.35 4.12</td>
<td>4.27 4.33</td>
<td>4.50 4.29</td>
<td>4.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>S 0.83 0.78</td>
<td>0.88 0.86</td>
<td>0.78 0.63</td>
<td>0.65 0.75</td>
<td>0.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.17</td>
<td>Head ache curing ability in head covering is important for me.</td>
<td>X 3.74 3.74</td>
<td>3.79 3.71</td>
<td>3.74 3.64</td>
<td>4.00 3.88</td>
<td>3.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>S 1.20 1.11</td>
<td>1.24 1.10</td>
<td>1.12 1.13</td>
<td>1.30 1.15</td>
<td>1.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.18</td>
<td>Odor releasing ability in T &amp; C is important for me.</td>
<td>X 3.82 3.53</td>
<td>4.12 3.24</td>
<td>3.58 3.17</td>
<td>4.07 3.67</td>
<td>3.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>S 1.26 1.22</td>
<td>1.16 1.25</td>
<td>1.16 1.34</td>
<td>1.14 1.31</td>
<td>1.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.19</td>
<td>High elasticity in T &amp; C is important for me.</td>
<td>X 4.41 4.28</td>
<td>4.44 4.29</td>
<td>4.27 4.33</td>
<td>4.36 4.13</td>
<td>4.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>S 0.86 0.85</td>
<td>0.74 0.92</td>
<td>1.00 0.76</td>
<td>0.84 0.99</td>
<td>0.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.20</td>
<td>Quick drying in T &amp; C is important for me.</td>
<td>X 4.37 4.13</td>
<td>4.51 4.24</td>
<td>4.16 3.94</td>
<td>4.21 4.22</td>
<td>4.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>S 0.98 0.94</td>
<td>0.87 1.03</td>
<td>1.00 0.98</td>
<td>0.89 0.90</td>
<td>0.99</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*: T & C stands for the term of textile and clothing product
Responses of participants to the questions in Part III of the survey are given in Table 3. There are 9 statements presented to the participants, in order to control and compare the general expectations and performance criteria knowledge of functional and smart textile and clothing products. 1 statement out of 10 is found non significantly different among the participant responses, where they are defined as having homogenous variances of all participants. Statement that are determined as having homogeneous variance is “Functionality in T & C* is important for me”, which is clearly understand among participants of the survey. The other statements are determined as non-homogeneously variance statements, where understanding and knowledge about them are not homogeny among participants.

In general evaluation of the participant responses, it is seen that female participants are more focused about fashion, aesthetic and functionality, where male participants are more focused on price, quality, and long lasting property of products.

Table 3: Questions, medians, standard deviations, F and significance values of Part III

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question nr.</th>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>18-25</th>
<th>25-40</th>
<th>40-60</th>
<th>60+</th>
<th>elementary school</th>
<th>high school</th>
<th>university</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>Fashion in T &amp; C* is important for me.</td>
<td>3.82</td>
<td>3.44</td>
<td>3.89</td>
<td>2.94</td>
<td>3.55</td>
<td>3.67</td>
<td>3.71</td>
<td>3.63</td>
<td>3.65</td>
<td>1.907</td>
<td>0.019</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>Strength, long life and steadiness in T &amp; C* is important for me.</td>
<td>4.59</td>
<td>4.49</td>
<td>4.57</td>
<td>4.41</td>
<td>4.60</td>
<td>4.47</td>
<td>4.57</td>
<td>4.46</td>
<td>4.56</td>
<td>2.569</td>
<td>0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>Wellness and good feeling in T &amp; C* is important for me.</td>
<td>4.67</td>
<td>4.49</td>
<td>4.75</td>
<td>4.24</td>
<td>4.56</td>
<td>4.44</td>
<td>4.57</td>
<td>4.54</td>
<td>4.60</td>
<td>3.799</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>Material quality in T &amp; C* is important for me.</td>
<td>4.40</td>
<td>4.57</td>
<td>4.46</td>
<td>4.41</td>
<td>4.49</td>
<td>4.53</td>
<td>4.08</td>
<td>4.58</td>
<td>4.49</td>
<td>2.074</td>
<td>0.009</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>Ratio between quality and price in T &amp; C* is important for me.</td>
<td>4.38</td>
<td>4.44</td>
<td>4.11</td>
<td>4.29</td>
<td>4.64</td>
<td>4.61</td>
<td>4.71</td>
<td>4.71</td>
<td>4.34</td>
<td>2.885</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>Easy cleaning in T &amp; C* is important for me.</td>
<td>4.68</td>
<td>4.54</td>
<td>4.70</td>
<td>4.59</td>
<td>4.56</td>
<td>4.53</td>
<td>4.71</td>
<td>4.58</td>
<td>4.61</td>
<td>2.183</td>
<td>0.006</td>
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<tr>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>Price in T &amp; C* is important for me.</td>
<td>4.40</td>
<td>4.52</td>
<td>4.35</td>
<td>4.71</td>
<td>4.48</td>
<td>4.50</td>
<td>4.71</td>
<td>4.63</td>
<td>4.40</td>
<td>1.977</td>
<td>0.014</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>Functionality in T &amp; C* is important for me.</td>
<td>4.44</td>
<td>4.27</td>
<td>4.36</td>
<td>4.18</td>
<td>4.39</td>
<td>4.39</td>
<td>4.29</td>
<td>4.35</td>
<td>4.37</td>
<td>1.586</td>
<td>0.071</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>Comfortable movement in T &amp; C* is important for me.</td>
<td>4.84</td>
<td>4.73</td>
<td>4.84</td>
<td>4.76</td>
<td>4.75</td>
<td>4.75</td>
<td>4.79</td>
<td>4.83</td>
<td>4.78</td>
<td>8.476</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*: T & C stands for the term of textile and clothing product
### Table 4: Questions, medians, standard deviations, F and significance values of Part IV

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question nr.</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>18-25</th>
<th>25-40</th>
<th>40-60</th>
<th>60+</th>
<th>elementary</th>
<th>school</th>
<th>high school</th>
<th>university</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>High absorbent, leakage free underwear is important for elder people.</td>
<td>4.74</td>
<td>4.58</td>
<td>4.74</td>
<td>4.71</td>
<td>4.62</td>
<td>4.61</td>
<td>4.50</td>
<td>4.83</td>
<td>4.66</td>
<td>1.964</td>
<td>0.017</td>
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<tr>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>Odor engaging underwear is important for elder people.</td>
<td>4.74</td>
<td>4.46</td>
<td>4.80</td>
<td>4.65</td>
<td>4.51</td>
<td>4.39</td>
<td>4.43</td>
<td>4.71</td>
<td>4.61</td>
<td>4.488</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>Breathing underwear is important for elder people.</td>
<td>4.75</td>
<td>4.62</td>
<td>4.74</td>
<td>4.65</td>
<td>4.68</td>
<td>4.64</td>
<td>4.57</td>
<td>4.75</td>
<td>4.70</td>
<td>1.808</td>
<td>0.033</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>Body heat protective underwear is important for elder people.</td>
<td>4.76</td>
<td>4.56</td>
<td>4.72</td>
<td>4.65</td>
<td>4.70</td>
<td>4.50</td>
<td>4.64</td>
<td>4.74</td>
<td>4.66</td>
<td>3.779</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>Cooling T&amp;C products are important for elder people.</td>
<td>4.47</td>
<td>4.16</td>
<td>4.43</td>
<td>4.35</td>
<td>4.22</td>
<td>4.31</td>
<td>4.21</td>
<td>4.26</td>
<td>4.34</td>
<td>2.049</td>
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<tr>
<td>4.6</td>
<td>Direction mentioning vibration shoes are important for elder people.</td>
<td>3.98</td>
<td>3.68</td>
<td>3.99</td>
<td>3.88</td>
<td>3.90</td>
<td>3.42</td>
<td>3.64</td>
<td>4.29</td>
<td>3.80</td>
<td>1.497</td>
<td>0.104</td>
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<tr>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>GPS purposed T&amp;C products are important for elder people.</td>
<td>4.13</td>
<td>3.89</td>
<td>4.17</td>
<td>4.29</td>
<td>3.95</td>
<td>3.72</td>
<td>3.71</td>
<td>4.21</td>
<td>4.02</td>
<td>0.942</td>
<td>0.522</td>
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<td>4.8</td>
<td>Religious record playing T&amp;C products are important for elder people.</td>
<td>2.99</td>
<td>2.43</td>
<td>3.26</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>2.27</td>
<td>2.44</td>
<td>3.57</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>2.64</td>
<td>2.599</td>
<td>0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.9</td>
<td>Body vital signal watching T&amp;C products are important for elder people.</td>
<td>4.10</td>
<td>3.97</td>
<td>4.36</td>
<td>4.41</td>
<td>3.78</td>
<td>3.72</td>
<td>3.64</td>
<td>4.04</td>
<td>4.07</td>
<td>1.597</td>
<td>0.073</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.10</td>
<td>Skin caring T&amp;C products are important for elder people.</td>
<td>3.41</td>
<td>3.29</td>
<td>3.62</td>
<td>3.06</td>
<td>3.16</td>
<td>3.36</td>
<td>3.36</td>
<td>3.70</td>
<td>3.32</td>
<td>1.464</td>
<td>0.117</td>
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</table>

### 5. Results and Discussion

Functional and smart textile and clothing market is constantly growing with higher acceleration then the regular textile and clothing market. Technology levels of such products are giving promises to the consumer about more comfortable, more health caring, more safety, more reliability and wellness. Such special products are opening new markets for the aging population in the developed countries. Market penetration and commercialization ratio of such innovative special products are rising as result of gradual reduction of component costs, rising consumer interest and improving technologies.

Functional and smart textile products manufacturing enterprises are expected to respond to the voice of elder people market. Consumer desires and expectations in such dynamic market need to be covered immediately. Influential factors behind the purchasing behavior of such special consumer group needs to be defined, understand and responded clearly.

The results of the study have shown that there are differences between different gender, age and education level groups. When compared the approaches of female and male participants to the statements, consumers pay attention to the functional textile and clothing products. There are some gaps in the market both in supplier and consumer sides.

### 6. Acknowledgement

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Health Insurance System Revision in the Czech Republic, Finland, France, Germany and the Slovak Republic

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Abstract

Widely used terms such as the European social model and the European social policy are not entirely accurate. Social policy belongs among the areas where the competence is shared between the Union and the Member States. Thus the European social model can be defined more as common values and social foundations, which are typical for the European area. Among the Member States are therefore substantial differences in terms of the set-up and functioning of social, health and pension systems. The aim of this paper is to evaluate the treatment of health insurance and selected aspects of health systems in selected EU countries (Czech Republic, Finland, France, Germany and the Slovak Republic), and on the basis of mutual comparison to draw up recommendations for the implementation of social policy instruments at the national level and also to explain examples of good practice. The solution-seeking methodology is based on literature research, analysis of legislation in different countries and analyses of empirical statistical data from the social systems.

Keywords: social policy, welfare state, health insurance, states of the European Union

1. Introduction

At present, social security is one of the most important attributes of running the society and its wording is defined in the Charter of Fundamental Rights of the European Union. We can say that the official definition of social security does not exist because every multinational corporation as well as states define the concept of social security in a different way.

The aim of this paper is to highlight the diversity of social systems in selected countries of the European Union and in general in the European region. Although the European Union has a unified social policy for each state, still there are differences in the individual countries in all areas of social security. We will focus mainly on social security from the perspective of health insurance. The proceeding compares in detail the selected European countries in the area of health insurance, and especially highlights the advantages and disadvantages of a given state in this area.

More than 30 years ago, Zacher (1976) defined a social right as a right that compiles all branches of law, which are characterized by increased intensity socio-political content.

According to Tomeš (2010) one should include among the goals of the contemporary social security both the regulation of a citizen’s responsibility for their future as well as the setting of the extent and forms of social solidarity among citizens.

Social security can be characterized as a system that provides people with legal and financial support in difficult life-time situations. Another way is to define the term social security as an arrangement that defines and provides alternative sources and the relative balance of levels of social security and sovereignty in different forms:

- social benefits (insurance, pays/benefits)
- social services (advisory, services)
- social asylums (retirement homes, children’s homes)\(^1\)

All current EU Member States have their own social security legislation. At the same time, each State itself decides on the creation of a national social security system, on the individual benefits, the funds and the rules under which the

\(^1\) Krebs, V. a kolektív. Sociální politika. 3. přepracované vydání, Praha: nakladatelství ASPI, a.s., 2005. s. 158,159
benefits will be provided and in what amount it will contribute to individual insurance.

Among European principles of the social security coordination one can include:

- principle of equal treatment assumes the prohibition of any discrimination on grounds of nationality;
- application of the single state law takes force in the applications of the laws of the State in which the activity is carried out, regardless of the place of residence;
- aggregation of the insurance periods says that the law applies, if in a given Member State the social benefit depends on the insurance period;
- maintenance of the acquired rights: the payment of benefits in any other Member State shall be provided in accordance with the Regulation
- assimilation of facts: facts and particulars that occurred in another state and are also taken into account in the State of insurance. 2

2. Areas of Social Policy as a Part of a Welfare State

Social support, or in the past used expression the social advancement, is the system of providing cash benefits defined by law to those who fulfill the conditions of the entitlement. At present, it is mainly the benefits that are provided to certain groups of people from the state budget and those people did not contribute by paying financial contributions.

Svoboda (2011) presents a social security at the level of primary law of Art. 48 of the Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union.

Most countries of the European region use the concept of social security. According to Tomeš (2010), this concept can be characterized as a regulation of a citizen’s responsibility for their future as well as the setting of the extent and forms of social solidarity among citizens.

Social policy has six basic areas:

- Employment policy: employment is a very important element in the overall economic situation of the country and one of the most important aspects of social policy. The society classifies certain jobs positively or negatively and this affects the perception of a person. At the same time, unemployment may entail a certain social stigma;
- social security policy: it is well known that for the poors a certain level of social assistance has existed since the Middle Ages; greater increase in social security comes at a time of industrialization when labour migration from rural to urban areas takes place and thus social family ties or care for the ill are broken. At present, each state has a different social system, which is dependent on the economic stability and the level of development of the state. However, every social system of both the rich countries and countries with economies in transition has two basic categories of support. The first category covers unemployment and illness payments, and in the second group there are included benefits to cover medical care and child care;
- health care policy: its partial aim is a reconsideration of the question of whether the protection of health should be covered only by individuals. Almost immediately such a view is refused, since the quality of human health depends not only on the person, but to a large extent on interpersonal relationships, and in order not to put human health in a threat, a certain carefulness of other individuals is required, who should behave so as to prevent the spread of diseases and other health damage. A good health policy is not limited to health care, but it tries to influence the activities of all the sectors of the national economy; 3
- education policy: education directly expanded with the economic situation of the state and the overall industrialization of the region, from which we can infer that the more developed economies, the more resources for education and the more educated labour force, the more advanced economy. 4 Developed states try to provide the possibility of lifelong learning at all levels of the population, regardless of the financial situation of their citizens and every citizen should have an access to education - democratization of education;
- housing policy: for every citizen is important to have a place to stay because without dwelling they have no access to sanitation possibilities, rest facilities, storage of property and dignified living. Housing policy should be part of a strategic planning, if a region is experiencing increasing jobs and construction of industrial

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2 Elaborated by the EU and International Cooperation Departement of the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs. Sociální zabezpečení osob migrujících v rámci Evropské unie: výběr textů vztahujících se k základním předpisům. 1. vydání, Praha: Ministerstvo práce a sociálních věcí. 2009. s. 8, 9, 10, 11
enterprises, there must also be newly built flats because of labour migration. The goal of housing policy is mainly to satisfy the needs of families, often several generations, the needs of young people looking for housing to be able to start a family, the needs of individuals and underprivileged citizens; family policy: it should serve as a tool to support all the natural functions of the family as the basis of the state and society. It should not be focused and motivated only by population targets but its primary aim must be the elimination of a comparable disadvantaging of families.

3. Sickness Insurance and Its Legal Provisions in the Czech Republic

Sickness insurance serves to financial security of the economically active persons in case of adverse social events in a person’s life, such as illness, injury, pregnancy or maternity. Under the fulfilment of the conditions stipulated by law it arises directly from the Act and all health insurance benefits are therefore obligatory.  

The first part consists of a system of social insurance pension and sickness insurance, which are managed by the Czech Social Security Administration, and of the system of the health insurance managed by health insurance companies.

The second part of the state social security system consists of state social support, which is part of the Labour Office and is within its full responsibility through its regional offices. The principle of a state social support system is based on high income solidarity. State social supports address social situations where the aim of this assistance is to sufficiently support the family, especially during a child birth, child care or the death of the breadwinner.

The last part of the social security system includes social assistance system. This type of assistance is provided to persons in difficult life situations, i.e. in material or social need. The method of social assistance always depends on the individual situation and it is possible to divide it into social services, assistance to persons with disabilities and assistance in material need.

Every State, which is a part of the European Union, shall coordinate the social security system and its primary objective is to eliminate any discrimination, to ensure the maintenance of acquired rights and to apply the principle of the single state law. It follows that the European Union applies the principle of one insurance.

A person who has permanent residence in a Member State of the European Union and Switzerland is entitled to receive medically necessary healthcare in another Member State. He draws the care provided to the same extent as the citizens of the given State - local insurance holders. The only thing is that a given EU citizen must hold a European Health Insurance Card.

A person who is a permanent resident within the European Union, but wants to get an execution of the planned health care within the European Union outside his country of residence, may do so in the event that medical care would not be otherwise provided in a sufficient period of time. In this case, however, it is necessary to submit insurance agreement with his insurance company concerning the reimbursement of care needed.

The Czech Republic provides its citizens with four kinds of sickness benefits:
- maternity support (receive financial pay-off benefits);
- sick pay (receive financial pay-off benefits);
- balancing allowance in pregnancy and motherhood (receive financial pay-off benefits);
- nursing pay (receive financial pay-off benefits).

The Czech Republic is a member of the World Health Organization (WHO), which grants every person the same rights, duties and shared responsibility for health. It also declares to every citizen of the Czech Republic his dignity and his value. It puts as the primary goal the improvement of health and wellbeing of people with the aim of social and economic development. “Members of the WHO build the Declaration on ethical principles of justice, solidarity and social justice and emphasize the importance of reducing social and economic inequities in improving the health of the whole population”.

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3.1 Selected Differences in Individual Countries

Every Member State of the European Union has built its own social security system, which is based on certain tradition of social security and lifestyle of the inhabitants of the State. Sickness insurance ensures the insured persons in case of temporary employment incapacity, regulation quarantine, pregnancy, maternity and nursing of a household member or a care for him.\textsuperscript{12}

3.2 The Czech Republic and Finland

Compared to the Czech Republic, where the sickness rate is fixed and makes 60% of the daily assessment base, in Finland the rate is based on the annual earnings of the insured person. The higher the annual earnings of the insured person, the smaller the percentage of the assessment base, which begins on the amount of 70% of annual earnings. But there is also set a specified minimum daily limit, which makes 2. 60 Euro.

The support for the treatment of a child under the age of 16 years makes in Finland up to 60 days, unlike the Czech Republic, where treatment time is only 9 days. In case of a serious illness of a child the support can be increased up to 90 days.

Just as in France the Finnish state social system lacks the possibility of payment of compensatory allowances for maternity and pregnancy, but in the Czech Republic this is paid.

In the Czech Republic both the employee and employer (a fixed amount from his profits) contribute to the health insurance. In Finland such a system does not exist, as the employees do not contribute from their salary for health insurance, there.

The Finnish pension system is divided into two groups, i. e. statutory and state pensions. The statutory disability pension is awarded to persons who have a reduced ability to work down to at least 60% and is also limited by the age of the applicant, who must be between 18-62 years old.

As for the disability pension there exist either a partial or full disability pensions. The degree of a given type is assessed on the basis of the state of health of the insured person and the entitlement to a state disability pension is limited by the age of the applicant, who must be between 16 and 64 years old.

Up to 2009 the disability pension in the Czech Republic was divided into a partial and a full one. At present, with the reform of the health care, disability pension may have three stages (first, second and third degree). The entitlement to receive a disability pension exists for individuals who meet two basic assumptions which are the required insurance period and the recognition of invalidity.

3.3 The Czech Republic and France

In France, sickness benefits are paid only from the contributions from employers and insured persons while in the Czech Republic these benefits are paid out from contributions of the employers, insured persons and state subsidies.

In the Czech Republic, the employer pays contributions to the system of sickness insurance, from which are paid sickness benefits at the amount of 2. 3% compared to 12. 8% in France. In the course of the illness the support period in France starts from the 3rd to the 7th day and may last up to the 365th day. From the insurance company the citizen gets the height of a 50% and additional 40% from the employer. In the Czech Republic the support period starts from the 22nd up to the 380th day.

Nursing pay in the Czech Republic is paid out for a maximum of 9 days for single parents, but parents may once switch and so the total length of nursing pay may be 18 days. In France, the length of nursing pay is paid according to whether the parent stays home, or just limits his working hours due to taking care. If the parent stays at home he is entitled for support for 24 days at the amount of 53. 17 Euro per day. When he just limits the working hours the nursing time is extended up to 42 days and the amount makes 26. 58 Euro per day.

Compensatory contribution during pregnancy and motherhood in the Czech Republic is calculated in the proportion to the previous income and to the income in the situation that has arisen due to pregnancy or motherhood. It is paid for a maximum period of nine months after the birth. In France, this type of social contribution does not exist.

Family policy, although not included in the health insurance, is a part of the social system in France and is aimed at supporting families with many children. Maternity allowance is paid at the intensity of 100%, which can be seen as a successful motivator the policy of reproduction.

\textsuperscript{12} see § para 1 Act No. 187/2006 Coll. On Sickness Insurance as amended
3.4 The Czech Republic and Germany

Czech social insurance includes pension, sickness and health insurance. The fourth type of insurance, the unemployment insurance, is a part of the state employment policy and is not a part of social insurance. The Employee Accident Insurance Act 2006 came into force only this year. The sickness insurance scheme provides citizens with sickness benefits, maternity and nursing pays and compensatory allowance in pregnancy and maternity.

German social security system is composed of sickness insurance, pension, accident insurance and further of insurance against unemployment and long term care insurance. Sickness insurance is gathered into one unit with the system of health insurance and does not form a separate system. Historically, people in Germany are, for a number of years, motivated to a greater responsibility for their own health compared to the Czech Republic.

In Germany benefits are paid for working days while in the Czech Republic those are paid for calendar days. Germany has a rate of 70% while the Czech Republic has a 10% lower rate.

Nursing pay is paid up to 9 days in the Czech Republic (in case of a lonely employee 16 calendar days). In Germany it is 10 days per child aged up to 16 years per year. Assuming that in the household of the employee there is only one person who can take care of the baby, up to a maximum of 20 working days per calendar year can be withdrawn.

In the Czech Republican employee is entitled to nursing pay when he is unable to perform his job due to taking care of a child younger than 10 years. In Germany the age limit of care of a child is up to 12 years of his life. This entitlement for the employee to take care of a healthy child occurs when the school or special children's facilities, in whose care the child is, are closed due to e. g. an epidemic or quarantine.

3.5 The Czech Republic and Slovakia

In case of the Czech Republic and Slovakia there is a typical phenomenon that they build on a common history of social security which lasted until 1993. Later on, with the collapse of the state and the establishment of the two separate republics, the social policy of the two states began to differ.

When it happens that a Czech citizen becomes unable to work in Slovakia, his inability is registered in Slovakia until he arrives back to Bohemia. Then the inability starts to be recorded in the Czech Republic. In terms of health insurance, the duration of the disease in the Slovak Republic of the insured person is counted into the period of support.

For a Slovak citizen who has resided in the Czech Republic, the claim for sickness benefit both from the competent institution in the Slovak Republic and the Czech Republic is recorded in a special database of citizens unable to work and the documents are sent directly to the Social Insurance Company in Slovakia.

A voluntary health insurance in the Slovak Republic is legally covered in a way that a person who is neither an employee nor self-employed falls into the category of people who can apply for the voluntary health insurance. However the Czech legislation does not either know or contain this term.

The entitlement to sickness benefit in the Czech Republic in case of the self-employed occurs after 21 days of illness, while in the Slovak Republic the entitlement arises from the first day of illness.

In the case of a long-term illness (respectively in terms of an accident) the self-employed in the Czech Republic cannot run his activity.

When comparing the types of health insurance benefits, these are the same in both selected states and the entitlement conditions do not show major differences. For a substantial difference one may indicate an extension of initially equal duration for maternity allowance (mother) in the Slovak Republic from 28 (resp. 37 weeks) to 34 (resp. 43 weeks).

4. Conclusion

The paper dealt with the issue of public health insurance in selected countries in the European regions. It stems from the historical background of the individual states and highlights the pros and cons of a particular social system.

At all stages of the historical development of the society, social policy is an issue. It's a very flexible component of the policy, because it has a large number of variable parts that play their role in the whole social process.

Health insurance, as one of the areas of social policy, is closely associated with other areas, such as family and education policy. All the elements of the social policy are a part of support policy and the system of the state. Due to the negative demographic trends in the European region States must place ever increasing emphasis on the social sector, because it is one of the most important factors in increasing the natural growth of all countries of the European Union.
The Czech Republic is currently looking for an effective modernization reform of the social system, even when it faces an inconsistent acceptance on the side of the public. A new social reform has been in force since 2012.

Slovakia is a country with a system that is very similar to the Czech one. It is for the reason that it has not only a common history but in the past there was a migration of people between the two countries, they have a similar speech, economic situation, lifestyle and mentality. Its modern social reform was introduced in 2004.

Finland represents a social-democratic model of a welfare state. It seeks to eradicate social differences and has a highly sophisticated care for socially weak and it is a country with the lowest unemployment rate in the European region. Social security includes state and minimum pensions and maternity pays, illness pays or family benefits. Furthermore, the amount of social security depends on the profession, which the insured person carries out.

In France, a modern social security system already begins to emerge in the second half of the 1940s after World War II but the latest social reform took place in 2005 and 2006, which meant the establishment of a separate, independent social system. Although the state has a different system for financing social benefits compared to e.g. the Czech or Slovak ones, all three countries build on the common Christian basics and principles.

German health insurance relies, when paying cash benefits, on a so-called function of contribution to the insurance, which are always covered by benefits in kind and therefore the personal coverage is much wider. In comparison to the Czech and Slovak health insurance, Germany has, due to higher economic stability of the country, a longer term of providing health benefits. In Germany this makes 78 weeks compared to 52 weeks in Slovakia or 51 weeks in the Czech Republic, respectively.

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Influence of Third Opinion Leaders on Decision Making Quality: A Case on Financial Decision Making

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Abstract

Many top leaders nowadays are relying on external parties to get ideas and information for more effective and quality decision-making. For certain leaders, the power of thinking partners is the factor of success in their decision making process. This study therefore aimed to identify the influence of third opinion leaders in enhancing the relationship between leadership styles and financial decision-making quality. Based on the initial work of Joni (2004) and Path-Goal theory, with 211 usable respondents using hierarchical regression analysis, shows that the quality of financial decision is significant and positively related to leadership behavior. Third opinion’s mind and third opinion’s relationship act as pure moderator, while third opinion’s focus was found to be a quasi-moderator. For theoretical implication, the findings suggest that the inclusion of the moderating variable will further enhance the understanding of the differential impact of leadership style under various contexts of decision-making situation, in this case, the third opinion. For future research, it is recommended that differences relation to leadership behavior should be studied more extensively to reach various kinds of comparative conclusions.

Keywords: leadership styles, Third opinion, Path-Goal theory

1. Introduction

Today’s work environment is becoming increasingly turbulent and therefore leaders must take the responsibility to make good or quality decisions in order to ensure the survival of the organization (Moss and Kinnear, 2007). Managers often have incomplete information and insufficient time to make decisions, and by delaying decisions they can negatively affect the organization. When making decisions, some researchers suggest that managers should try to gather information from many levels of the organization or outside of the organization from various sources or parties. They must remember that the source of information that they get may not be reliable or accurate and they have to keep in mind that an incorrect decision could have an impact on the organization and understand that changes in the work environment can affect their decisions. These researchers also believe that the most important thing for managers is to take responsibility for the results and not blame others when things go wrong because by pointing fingers at others will only erode the trust and respect for them (Kaval, and Voyten, 2006).

According to Flynn, Goldsmith, and Eastman (1996), there are two types of related parties in the process of opinion leaders which are “information seekers” (i.e. a person or a leader looking for advice or suggestions from others), and the second is “the informant” (i.e. a person or leader who provides advice or opinions). Thus, previous studies have explored the factors that affect the ability of a person to influence others was conducted in the work environment such as the advice network (Gibbons, 2004) and also in non-work environment (Oygard, 2003).

Findings from other research on opinion leaders were used by Chaney (2001) in marketing decision making and have been used to test the customer decision-making style where it focused on the quality of a decision made by an individual (Scheufele, 1999) and also study the effectiveness of an organization (Emden, Calantone and droge, 2006). At the same time, (Roger and Kincaid, 1981) have argued that opinion leaders have been assessed as “an individual who often influences the attitude and behavior of others”. This individual has been identified as a “provider of information and advises other members”. Therefore, Weimann et al. (2007) explain that opinion leaders are more preferable to influence the quality of the decision using mouth-to-mouth communication.
Decisions and leadership are compatible pairs. Great leaders seem to make more than their share of good results. Drucker (2001) said, “The decision is of specific tasks for an executive, how to make a decision is regarded as the biggest single contributor to successful leadership”. Great leaders and great results essentially are interrelated. One solution is to share and delegate decision-making throughout the organization (Confida, 2004) through opinion and third opinion leadership.

Third opinion is a leadership style adopted from the idea of Joni (2004) which relies on outsider’s opinion in influencing the decision-making process. Joni (2004) has proposed three characteristics of third opinion which is being used in this study. There are third opinion’s mind: people with knowledge and high thinking level; third opinion’s relationship: people with personal trust and networking; and third opinion’s focus: people who have idea, creativity and innovativeness. This research advocates that third opinion is contingent upon the relationship between leader’s behavior initiated from Path-goal theory by House and Mitchell (1974) and Situational theory by Hersey and Blanchard (1977). Leaders’ behavior therefore is conceptualized based on four dimensions namely directive behavior, supportive behavior, participative behavior and achievement-oriented behavior.

The quality of financial decisions is important for the leaders and also for their organizations. Effective decision leaders are committed to the ultimate goal of achieving high quality decision (Kouzes and Posner, 2007). According to Carr and Brower (2000), making decisions in good order is the result of quality decision-making processes. He also argued that one who successfully sets up strategy decisions arising from decision processes is one in which individuals and organizations find and process information efficiently in varying situations. There are various types of financial decisions which are related to financial investment decisions, in connection with the acquisition of assets related to business expansions and the management of loans and credit in connection with mergers and acquisitions and others.

2. Background of the Study

Initial studies on opinion leadership begins from the work of Lazarsfeld, Berelson, and Gaudet, in which the first was founded by Katz and Lazarsfeld (1955), and then was reviewed by Rogers (2003), Cross, Laseter, Parker and Velasquez (2006) and Weimann, Tustin, Vuuren and Joubert (2007). The majority of work on opinion leadership focuses on motivating opinion leaders (Chan and Mirsa, 1990), measurement of current issues (Childers, 1986; Flynn, Goldsmith and Eastman 1994), and the results of opinion leadership (Bloch, 1986). However, this concept requires a consensus definition if one wants to use it effectively.

Rogers (2003) stated that an opinion leader is “an individual who gives the number of unequal influence on the decisions made by other people”. Understanding leadership as an influence of personal opinion is clear, concise and compact, and if one looks at the work done since that time, one can see that it is all based on a preliminary study before (Kyun, 2007). Joni (2004) then introduced the term “third opinion leadership” that indicates many top leaders nowadays are relying on external parties to get ideas in a more effective and quality decision-making.

Economic growth and strong financial condition is an important part of the corporate world. With technological advancements, market integration and competitive markets have increased the demand to produce good and correct decisions. Consequently, Malaysia, like the rest of the world has doubled its efforts to transform the economy to achieve higher value and added growth. Therefore, more efficient mechanisms are required to ensure successful transformations. However, something happened in the corporate sector in Malaysia in 2001 where due to the resignation of Tun Daim Zainuddin (a very influential financial adviser to Malaysia's prime minister in 2001, Tun Dr Mahathir) from the political world has caused organizations of Renong-UEM and Malaysian Airlines System (MAS) to experience a severe fall (Asia Times, 2001). In this regard, the government had to take over Renong-UEM, Malaysia Airlines System (MAS), Malaysia Resource Corp Bhd (MRCB) and Kuala Lumpur light rail operators PUTRA and STAR, in an effort to reduce the growing debt levels and normalize the situation which had weakened due to the fall in stocks. This shows that the importance role of external consultants or better known as “third opinion” that is experienced in the business world, particularly in the areas of finance, in influencing the decision to strengthen organizational performance is very important. In addition, a similar problem affected to Bank Islam Malaysia Berhad (BIMB) which suffered significant losses and many small shipping companies listed on Bursa Malaysia (The Star, 2005) as well as many small and medium sized firms that could not endure stability in the market.

Following these incidents, many researchers have agreed that “the performance of each company depends entirely on the management of organizational leadership. In short, it is associated with a person’s ability to manage an organization and how they get ideas and information from outside parties to make wise decisions” (The Star, 2005). Therefore, the right decision together with external information obtained from experts allows the company to take advantage of the decision-making errors that could lead to a decline and whose continued weakness would affect the
income of the organization in the future. A good decision can lead to success which helps strengthen organizational performance. On the other hand, a bad decision can lead to bankruptcy. Goleman (2001) also believes that outside intervention in making quality financial decisions can help a person deal with and improve critical situations that are sensitive in nature.

There are various types of third opinion such as thinking partners, public opinion and others. For presidents or higher ranking leaders, they will use the power of public opinion to support their decision making. Kernell (2007) argued that the president who appeals to the public would be effective if the president “communicates on a regular basis as his top priority to citizens” and citizens respond by making good changes in public opinion. For certain financial leaders, the power of thinking partners will also be the factor of success in making decisions (Hoffberg and Korver, 2006). They have to make wise choices of their third opinion to help them determine certain decisions. Best “thinking partners” must have a high potential and be able to think beyond boundaries (Joni, 2004).

Rogers and Agarwala-Rogers (1976) have classified that opinion leaders can be regarded as informal leaders. Besides having a high technical ability, others are attracted to these opinion leaders because they “can be trusted and will lead the norms of a group” (Leonard-Barton and Kraus, 1985). Joni (2004) who pioneered the concept of a third opinion recognized that the external environment is important in creating better outcomes for decision making. Her case studies conducted in the United States prove that the hierarchy of leaders in the organizations (from the lower leaders to senior leaders) needs information from outside the organization in making the best decisions.

3. Motivation of the Study

According to Rost (1993), leadership is not only the work of a single person; rather it is a “collaborative endeavor”, which is a relationship between leaders, followers or expert opinion that contributes to the decision making process. Tuckman and Jensen (1977) discovered a progression of development in external people’s interaction that when completed adequately, led to higher quality decisions (Kerr and Tindale, 2004). Hinsz and Nickell (2004) stated that “group decision-making is always advisable” or “group decision making is always bad” than making decisions alone. But, when it comes to financial decisions, Sutter (2005) claimed that the decision in a group or the involvement of other parties namely third opinion is better than individual decisions. .

However, studies on third opinion are still in its infancy stage since the introduction of the term by Joni (2004). Earlier studies on opinion leadership are only related to consumer (Weimann, et al., 2007) and marketing decisions (Yuen, 2007). To the knowledge of the researcher, none has been found to relate opinion leadership to financial decision making such as assets acquisitions or investment decisions. This gap has motivated the researcher to investigate the contribution of third opinion leadership to financial decision quality in relation to leadership style possessed by decision makers. Hence, the purpose of the study is to determine whether or not third opinion leaders influence the quality of financial decisions and the characteristics of third opinion chosen by the decision makers.

4. Literature Review

Decision-making is a key aspect of leadership in any organization, whether public or private. Leadership plays a tremendous role in the processes and applications of decision-making. Quality of decision is important for the leaders and also for the organization. Effective decision leaders are committed to ultimate goal of achieving high quality decisions (Kouzes and Posner, 2007). According to Carr and Brower (2000), make a decision in good order are the result of a quality decision-making process. He also argued that one who successfully set up strategy decision arising from decision process is one in which individuals and organizations find and process information efficiently in varying situations.

In making a good financial decisions, as well as quality, Simon (1987) pointed out that, decision makers must know more about the industry, social and business environment in which they work. Quality of financial decision is a decision that has to meet organizational objectives and create a positive impact on decision-makers. A decision quality depends on the decision making process in which a decision maker organized, prioritized, aims and filled with a variety of information (Simon 1987). The way successful leaders approach the decision-making process changes as he or she moves up in the organization (Brousseau, Driver, Hourihan and Larsson, 2006). Thus, some leaders make decision based on their own judgment and some will refer to other people’s opinion before further judgment is made. Leadership style that seeks and gives opinion from and to others is called opinion leadership style.
5. Leader’s Behavioral Style

There are four common leadership behaviors which have been introduced by House and Mitchell (1974) and House (1977) from Path-Goal Theory: directive, supportive, participative, and achievement-oriented styles. It is assumed that leaders are flexible, and that the same leader can display any or all of these behaviors depending on the situation. (1) Directive Behavior Style is behavior of a direct order to subordinates where the leader or manager lets subordinates know what they should be doing, making the schedule work, coordinating the work, providing specific mentoring, and provide an explanation of policies, laws, regulations and work procedures. (2) Supportive Behavior Style is the behavior that is directly related to the satisfaction of needs and interests of subordinates as displaying concern for the welfare of subordinates, creating friendship and support in a good working environment (House and Mitchell, 1974). (3) Participative Behavior Style is the behavior directly influencing the direction of encouraging subordinates to make decisions about the operations of the work unit, negotiating with subordinates and taking their opinions and suggestions when making decisions. It has also been referred to as collective decision-making or at least shared influence in decision making by the superiors and their employees (Koopman and Wierdsma, 1998; Yukl, 2002). (4) Achievement-oriented Behavior Style is the behavior directly related to encouraging excellence in performance by setting challenging goals, seeking improvement, showing excellence in performance and portraying confidence that subordinates will achieve quality performance. All the type of Leader’s behavior

6. Third Opinion

The discipline of opinion leadership study has its roots in the work of Lazarsfeld, who investigated the 1940 presidential election (Goldsmith and De Witt, 2003). Following this, Katz and Lazarsfeld (1955) dedicated an entire volume to personal influence in the consumption process, concluding that communication flows from the source to the opinion leaders, who pass it on to the others in the social system. In the corporate context, opinion leaders play an important role in advice networks and communities of practice (Cross et al. 2006). In e-commerce settings, opinion leaders are crucial in determining trends (Herring et al. 2005) and in influencing shopping behavior (Chan and Mirsa 1990). Joni (2004) then introduced the term third opinion leadership and indicates that many top leaders nowadays rely on external parties to get ideas for more effective and quality financial decision-making. For certain leaders, the power of thinking partners will also be the factor of success in making the decision (Hoffberg and Korver, 2006). Thus, third opinion is a thinking partner, a partner with whom someone can think more profoundly with (Business Network, 2010). Third opinion leaders can be classified as anyone who is a consultant or a family member to the decision maker. They act as an advisor or supporter to the decision maker (Business Network, 2010). In certain countries, external people or “third opinion leaders” influence the actions of legislators, get laws passed or change the rules for government agencies (Kahai and Sosik, 1997). Third opinion leaders on the other hand are also the filters of ideas and information. Joni (2004) believes that the third opinion leader will help the decision maker in making quality decision.

According to Joni (2004), there are three characteristics of third opinion leaders: (1) Third Opinion’s Mind which is defined as people with knowledge and high thinking level (Ennis, 2001). Third opinion mind were described based upon three levels of thinking skills namely, (i) skills to identify the characteristics of a problem and know how to find solution, (ii) deep understanding and (iii) expertise in specific fields of knowledge such as finance, economics, technology or science, and expertise in one or more fields of knowledge; (2) Third Opinion’s Relationship which refers to the networking or with whom leader have contact. Leaders developed relationship based on personal trust such as through family member, friends or consultant; and (3) Third Opinion’s Focus refers to someone with ideas, creativity and innovativeness. According to Canfield, Hansen, and Hewitt (2000), focus can be a powerful tool for helping an individual to achieve goals and decision quality but can also interfere with a person’s efforts at goal attainment (Locke and Latham, 1990).

Many researcher has found that, third opinion intervention plays an important role between leaders behavior and decision making quality. According to Krantz and Kunreuther (2007), if someone seeks more information from other people or sources, they can make effective decision. It is supported by Joni (2004) that leaders today need someone who can support them to give good suggestion and opinion in making good decision. Katz and Lazarsfeld (1955) and Weimann, Tustin, Vuuren and Joubert (2007) argued that third opinion will give new idea and innovation to the leaders to make great decisions. Thus, it is proposed that third opinion is a contingent factor upon leaders behavior and decision making quality.
7. Research Findings

7.1 Leader’s and Company’s profile

Unit of analysis for this study is decision and purposive sampling was used to distribute the questionnaires to 500 respondents but only 225 questionnaires were returned. However, a total of 14 questionnaires which contained incomplete answers were not used. Thus, a total of 211 questionnaires were used and analyzed. The total response rate for this survey was 42.2%.

According to the sample, 57.8 percent of the respondents were males and the remaining 4.42 percent were females. 34.6 percent of the respondents were less than 30 years of age, 39.8 percent were between 30 to 39 years of age, 20.9 percent were between 40 to 49 years old, and 4.7 percent of the respondents were aged between 50 to 58. According to the sample of 211 respondents, 86.3 percent of the respondents were Malays, 9.5 percent were Chinese, and 4.3 percent represented the Indian race. With regards to education, the highest number (46.4 percent) of the respondents completed the first degree at bachelors level. 21.8 percent of the respondents completed their study at diploma level and 21.3 percent of the respondents hold Masters degree.

The job profile of decision makers showed that the majority of the respondents in this study (24.6 percent) worked in the banking sector. 19.4 percent is a business owners. The other respondents worked in the manufacturing sector (16.1 percent), service sector (14.7 percent) and the rest of the respondents worked in other sectors such as tourism and hospitality. In terms of who made the decisions, the majority of the decision-makers in this sample were the middle manager (40.3%) designated as heads of department or heads of programs followed by managers (38.9%) who were branch managers, team leaders and project leaders. 20.9 percent comprised upper manager level that is Chief Executive Officers (CEO), Chief Financial Officers (CFO), Directors and Business Owners.

It is argued that different decisions need different types of external references of individuals (third opinion). Therefore, it is crucial to scrutinize the decision profile as it might point towards different leaders behavior. The data shows that most of the decisions in the sample are related to asset acquisitions such as computers, land, etc. (34.29%), and 26.98% are related to financial investments (shares, bonds, etc). Another 22.86% are decisions related to loan and credit management, 8.89% are related to business expansion and the final 6.98% are the decisions related to mergers and acquisitions. Refer to Table 1

7.2 Third Opinion’s Profile

To measure the level of third opinion being used in making financial decision, Table 2 indicates that the majority of the respondents state that third opinions were moderately used in their financial decision making (37.9%); 31.8 percent frequently used third opinions in their making of financial decisions; and only 15.2 percent state that they were high frequent users in referring to third opinions for their financial decision making process. The rest of the respondents rate that they rarely rely on third opinions in making financial decisions (14.7%) and 0.5 percent never rely on third opinions in their decision making.

In terms of types of third opinions sought by the leaders/decision makers, 22.76 percent of the decision makers stated that they relied on media for third opinion information, 18.85 percent sought opinions from consultants, 18.16 percent from friends, 16.09 percent from associations/clients, 14.48 percent from families and 9.66 percent from their business colleagues.

7.3 Descriptive Analysis

Descriptive analysis in general indicate that the most opinion sought by the decision maker were those from individuals with knowledge and high thinking level. Thus, ‘Third Opinion Mind’ were among the highest influence to the decision maker with mean of 5.75 followed by ‘Relationship’ (mean=5.37) and ‘Focus” (mean=5.16). Refer to table 3.

Test of Differences

In general, there are no significant differences between the ‘third opinion’ and the respondents’ profiles. There are also no significant differences between third opinion needed and types of financial decisions made. However, for third opinion’s mind and third opinion’s focus, Post Hoc tests show differences only between organization and position of the decision makers. The significance different was also found between leadership behavior and third opinion.

Decisions made by managers who worked as Business Owners prefer to seek third opinion’s mind (mean=5.9) and as compared to those who work in the government and banking sectors who seek more for third opinion focus.
(mean=5.4). Upper and middle managers seem to have a similar degree of agreement based on referring to third opinion’s mind (both have mean=5.8). Lower managers, however, have the lowest degree of referring to third opinion’s mind but were found to have the highest degree of referring to third opinion’s focus.

In general, it shows that directive leaders prefer to seek for people who have creative ideas and innovativeness (third opinion’s focus). Supportive and participative leaders on the other hand prefer people whom they trust and have high networking and good relationships with them (third opinion’s relationship). For achievement-oriented leaders, they prefer people with knowledge and high thinking level (third opinion’s mind). Thus, results on test of differences can be summarized in Table 4.

7.4 Test of Relationship

Hierarchical regression shows that third opinion’s focus is quasi-moderator for leaders behavior and decision making quality. This indicates that those leaders (third opinion) who are full with ideas, creativity and innovativeness has direct and contingent effect to financial decision quality. Third opinion’s mind and third opinion’s relationship on the other hand act as pure moderator as they have no direct effect and only enhancing the relationship between leader’s behavior and financial decision making quality.

Decision makers that possess achievement-oriented behavioral style relying on third opinion mind (i.e. individual with skills and experience) and third opinion relationship (i.e network and trust) to achieve their financial quality decision. Those with directive behavioral style on the other hand relying on third opinion mind. Participative behavioral style and directive behavioral style relying on third opinion relationship and third opinion focus (i.e, creativity and innovative) respectively. However, leaders with supportive behavior styles need no influence from top opinion leader. Thus, the findings reveal that certain leadership behavioral styles need different type of third opinion leadership as moderator.

8. Conclusion and Recommendation for Future Research

The findings of the study indicates that third opinion was moderately sought by the decision maker in their decision making process. Most of the third opinion leaders sought by the decision makers are third opinion mind which are those with skills and knowledge. The present study found that decision makers who are a business owners, upper level manager and possess achievement-oriented leadership style prefer to rely on third opinion mind, in their decision making process. Third opinion mind also enhance the relationship between the achievement oriented behavior with financial decision making quality.

However decision makers who work at the government and banking sectors; those from lowers level position and decision makers with directive behavioural style sought most from the third opinion focus as they prefer someone who possess great ideas, creative and innovative. The results is consistence with Kerr and Tindale, (2004) and Weimann, Tustin, Vuuren and Joubert (2007) confer that third opinion may give new ideas and innovation to the leaders to make great decisions. Decision makers with supportive and participative styles would prefer to rely on those people who are close to them and people who they trust (third opinion relationship).

Waldman Ramfrez, House and Puranam (2001) studies have confirmed that leaders’ style affects group-work process, social climate, organization performance, quality decision and results. Evkall and Ryhammar (1998) explained that the leadership style can influence the work environment in decision making, which eventually producing a product or service quality. This is because; leadership styles have a direct impact on productivity and performance of an organization. Different dimension of leadership style will impact a different result of decision making (Goleman, 2000).

For future research, it is suggested that the differences in relation to leadership styles should be studied more extensively to reach various conclusions of comparison. Moreover, it is important to recognize the nature and source of the effect of institutions on leadership style that would become the most important goals in research leadership in the era of globalization, which is full of business activities.

It is also suggested that research related to leadership styles in a different country can be used as a valuable channel for studying the influence of national culture or ethnicity in the manager’s leadership style with different nations and peoples in terms of external people (third opinion). Future studies may want to consider, for example, the impact of management values and strategic orientation of the organization or firm’s leadership style among managers. In addition, future research could also examine the relationship between leadership styles, third opinion and the firm’s performance in Malaysia.

In addition, Miller (1994) also says that organizational culture encompasses the values and norms that support the extent to which managers can look for an outsider (third opinion) to help make effective decisions. In summary, to
increase the internal validity of research results, a larger sample size and the use of random sampling should be used for future research. Cultural factors and intermediate effects of the leadership style are also items that need to be reviewed in the future.

References


Tables and Figures

Table 1: Financial Decision Profile

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Financial Decision</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Financial Investments (share, bond, etc)</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>26.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assets’ Acquisition (computer, land, etc)</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>34.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business Expansion</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>8.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loan and Credit Management</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>22.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mergers and Acquisitions</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>6.98</td>
</tr>
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</table>

Table 2: Third Opinion Profile

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reference to Third Opinions</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Never</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rare</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>14.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moderate users</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>37.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frequent users</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>31.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Highly frequent users</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>15.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of third opinions that leaders/decision makers sought</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Friends</td>
<td>79 (18.16%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business colleagues</td>
<td>42 (9.66%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Association / Clients</td>
<td>70 (16.09%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family</td>
<td>63 (14.48%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consultant</td>
<td>82 (18.85%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Media (Newspaper, magazines, electronic, etc)</td>
<td>99 (22.76%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3: Descriptive statistics of Variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Min.</th>
<th>Max.</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Dev</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Third Opinion</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mind</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>7.00</td>
<td>5.75</td>
<td>0.66743</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relationship</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>6.60</td>
<td>5.37</td>
<td>0.62129</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Focus</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td>6.50</td>
<td>5.16</td>
<td>0.61495</td>
</tr>
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Table 4: Test of Difference

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Respondents' Profiles:</th>
<th>Mind</th>
<th>Relationship</th>
<th>Focus</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>1.928</td>
<td>.126</td>
<td>.720</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>1.713</td>
<td>.166</td>
<td>.552</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job Profiles</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organization</td>
<td>2.428</td>
<td>.036*</td>
<td>.822</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Position</td>
<td>4.613</td>
<td>.011*</td>
<td>1.419</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Types of Financial Decisions</td>
<td>1.008</td>
<td>.404</td>
<td>1.515</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leaders' Behavior</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Directive</td>
<td>2.936</td>
<td>.000***</td>
<td>2.409</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supportive</td>
<td>1.374</td>
<td>.153</td>
<td>2.528</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participative</td>
<td>1.806</td>
<td>.030*</td>
<td>2.133</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Achievement-oriented</td>
<td>2.642</td>
<td>.001**</td>
<td>.853</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Significant level: ***<0.000, **<0.01, *<0.05

Table 5: Hierarchical Analysis Result

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model Variables</th>
<th>Dependent Variable</th>
<th>Quality of Financial Decisions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Model 1</td>
<td>Model 2</td>
<td>Model 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Std. beta</td>
<td>Sig.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. Independent variables:
   - Directive: .186 .013* .055 .429 -1.738 .021*
   - Supportive: .215 .003** .144 .033* -.793 .230
   - Participative: .203 .006** .209 .002** 1.307 .030*
   - Achievement-oriented: .201 .008** .159 .026* 2.041 .028*

2. Moderating variables:
   - Mind: .131 .034* -.466 .474
   - Relationship: -.125 .041* -.096 .899
   - Focus: .266 .00*** 1.301 .021*

3. Interaction variables:
   1. Mind x Leadership Style
      - Mind_Directive: 2.232 .020*
      - Mind_Supportive: .845 .365
      - Mind_Participative: 1.677 .080
      - Mind_Achievement: -.412 .00***
   2. Relationship x Leadership Style
      - Relationship_Directive: -1.494 .071
      - Relationship_Supportive: 1.040 .354
      - Relationship_Participative: -2.015 .049*
      - Relationship_Achievement: 2.715 .002**
   3. Focus x Leadership Style
      - Focus_Directive: 2.175 .018*
      - Focus_Supportive: -.534 .570
      - Focus_Participative: -.461 .093
      - Focus_Achievement: -1.764 .097

F-value: 27.688*** 27.198*** 13.822***
R square: .350 .484 .579
Adjusted R square: .337 .466 .537
R square change: .350 .134 .095
F change: 27.688 17.688 3.590
Cultural Specifics of Life Values and Subjective Well – Being

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Abstract

The objectives of the study were to reveal cultural specifics of modern life values and subjective well-being, individual and cultural values interrelations, life values and subjective well-being correlations at Russian residents, belonging to different religions. The main methods were Scales of: Value Orientations Actual Structure (Bubnova), Psychological well-being (Ryff), Life Satisfaction (Neugarten, Havighurst, & Tobin), Subjective Happiness (Lyubomirsky & Lepper), Student’s T-test, Spearman’s rank correlation. The sample consisted of 330 persons (18-55 years old) of 10 different nations and 5 religions.

By the time of the survey all the participants had lived in Russia for some (not less than 3) years. For each studied religious groups their dominant life values were revealed. It was discovered, that people of different cultures associate their well-being and lives satisfaction with different life values. However, in general, life satisfaction correlates with those values, which are less important for certain culture. Perhaps, persons, oriented on traditional and culturally important values are less happy than those, who are oriented for their individual ones. May be in assessing realization of individual values people use their own criteria, which are not as strict as criteria of common cultural values’ realization. The results of this study allow us to draw the following conclusions. Significant cross-cultural differences in life-values and subjective well-being have their sources in religious attitudes and settings. People of different cultures associate their well-being and lives satisfaction with different values. Generally, well-being and life satisfaction are directly related to the values, less important in certain culture.

Keywords: Life Values, Subjective Well-being, Cross-Cultural Differences, Life Satisfaction, Religion.

1. Introduction

The last decades’ practice of the intense intercultural contacts in different places of the world shows that the different nationalities and religions peaceful coexistence is impossible without understanding and respecting of each other worldviews and values. Ignoring of cross-cultural worldview differences lead to ethnic and religious tension and hostility. It is important in cross-cultural studies to take into account the mutual influence of different cultural factors, such as ethnicity and religion, country of residence and so on. Again, generalization of the studies of social tension, tolerance, social distance, cultural conflicts shows that people feel tension in intercultural contacts when they perceive the situation as threatening their well-being. (Chebotareva, 2014 a-d).

Subjective well-being (SWB) has become one of the most popular subject of psychological research over the past decades (Diener et al., 1999). Currently, it is common to identify two components of subjective well-being: affective and cognitive. The affective component is considered as a hedonic balance (balance of pleasant and unpleasant affects). The cognitive component is understood as a person’s evaluations of his or her life according to some standards. Such standards are primarily linked by researchers with the culture in the broadest sense of the notion.

Many researchers proved that both components of SWB are influenced by personality (Diener et al., 1999) and by culture

(Diener & Suh, 1999), but most studies considered personality and culture in isolation, although they often recognize the mutual influence of these two factors. U. Schimmack and others (2002) state that conjoint investigation of personality and cultural SWB determinants has the advantage of identifying possible interactions between personality and cultural variables. For example, in their research they demonstrated that self-esteem was a stronger predictor of life satisfaction in individualistic cultures than in collectivistic cultures because individualistic cultures emphasize a positive self-view; they also showed that the influence of extraversion and neuroticism on life satisfaction was moderated by culture (Schimmack et al., 2002). Oishi, Diener, Lucas, and Suh (1999) found that freedom was a stronger predictor of life satisfaction in individualistic cultures than in collectivistic cultures.

The studies of SWB and culture interaction showed that culture influences SWB directly and indirectly. There are a lot of evidences that people in individualistic, rich, and democratic cultures have higher levels of SWB than in
collectivistic, poor, and totalitarian cultures (Diener & Suh, 1999; Veenhoven, 1993). Besides, culture moderates the relation between hedonic balance (important aspect of SWB) and life satisfaction. For example, it was demonstrated that the relation between hedonic balance and life satisfaction was significantly stronger in individualistic cultures than in collectivistic cultures (Suh et al., 1998). SWB in individualistic and collectivistic cultures is determined by the fact that individualistic cultures emphasize individuals’ needs and freedom of choice, whereas collectivistic cultures emphasize others’ needs, duties and reliance on one’s fate (Triandis, 1995). Luo Lu proved that culture-specific modes of self-construction lead to the diverse meanings people hold for happiness and well-being in different societies. In particular, the author said that subjective well-being for the Chinese was construed around fulfilling one’s obligations and maintaining homeostasis (dialectical balance). In contrast, modern Western individual-oriented view of the self was related to understanding happiness as “a prize to be fought over, and entirely one’s responsibility to accomplish this ultimate goal of life” (Lu – 2008, 290).

Therefore, culture serves as a major force determining the way people conceptualize the self, understand happiness, set life-goals and select strategies of the goals achieving. That value orientations can be seen as a mediator between culture and personality, one’s outlook and one’s life esteem. Value orientations are the results of the social relations reflection and system-forming factor of personality. As the values serve phenomena of reality, significant for an individual, including public relations. Most studies have focused on the question, how subjective well-being and life satisfaction can be modeled by cultural values (Schwartz & Bilsky, 1990; Schwartz & Bardi, 2001; Schwartz et al. 2001).

Many researchers to reveal the relations between life values and SWB actively used Schwartz values paradigm (Sagiv and Schwartz, 2000; Hofer et al., 2006; Joshanloo & Ghaedi, 2009; Cohen and Shamai, 2010; Bobowik et al., 2011). L. Sagiv and S. H. Schwartz (2000) showed that SWB was directly related the values of stimulation, self-direction, achievement, benevolence and universalism; and inversely – to the values of conformity, tradition, security and power. M. Bobowik et al. (2011) found in European population direct relationship between SWB individualistic values and inverse relationship between SWB and values of power and conservativism and other more collectivistic values. J. Hofer et al. (2006) reported similar results concerning value of benevolence for persons originating from Germany, Costa Rica and Cameroon. A. Cohen and O. Shamai (2010) in Israel also found direct relations between SWB and the values of benevolence, self-direction and achievement; and inverse – between SWB and the values of power and tradition. M. Joshanloo and J. Ghaedi (2009) discovered in Iranian population positive relation of SWB with value achievement, and negative – with value of tradition.

A number of empirical studies proved promising approaches to the SWB study in relation with the life values and their cultural specifics (Oishi et all, 1999; Yetim, 2003; Pienaar et al., 2006; Lu, 2006; Vansteenkiste et al., 2007; Georgellis et al., 2009; Welzer & Inglehart, 2010; Joshanloo, 2010; Huta & Ryan, 2010; Yang and Stening, 2012).

S. Oishi and others found that life satisfaction was more strongly related to financial satisfaction to in poorer nations, and – with home life satisfaction in wealthy nations; with esteem needs - in individualist nations, than people in collectivist nations (Oishi et all, 1999).

It was proved, for example, that at Spanish adolescents overall satisfaction with life was positively correlated with non-materialistic values (Casas, et all, 2004). Across countries study by these authors revealed the direct relations between Life satisfaction and values of benevolence and hedonism values, and inverse relations between life satisfaction and values of power and security. But they also discovered the differences in the nature of links between countries with high and low Human Development Index (HDI). In particular, the value of achievement was positively related to life satisfaction in low HDI countries, but negatively in high HDI countries (Casas, et all, 2004).

Therefor compilation of the data from different empirical studies lets us to reveal not only cultural specifics of the nature of SWB and life values interaction. The main conclusion is that the dimension of collectivism - individualism is an important factor defining life satisfaction level and understanding of well-being in different cultures. But by now not enough studies of different cultures have been accumulated in order to be able to deduce some universal laws. Moreover, most cross-cultural studies were conducted with representatives of different countries or with emigrants and locals. We consider it is important to study how the values of the culture of origin correlate with subjective well-being of residents of one country.

2. Method

2.1 Participants

The empirical study sample consisted of 330 persons (18-55 years old) of 10 different nations (Russian, Ukrainian, Byelorussian, Armenian, Georgian, Azerbaijan, Tatar, Uzbek, Tajik and Jew). Among the participants there were
representatives of 5 religions: Orthodox Christians (90 persons), Catholics (44), Muslims (65), Buddhists (71), Jews (60). All the religious groups were aligned by gender and age. The respondents were not very religious, but they were brought up in the spirits of their religions. By the time of the survey all the participants had lived in Russia for some (not less than 3) years.

2.2 Materials

Personal information form consisted of questions about gender, age, profession, country of origin, nationality, religion, period of stay in Russia.

“The Scale of Value Orientations Actual Structure” (Bubnova, 1999) measured the participants’ life values. The technique is aimed at studying the implementation of the person’s value orientations in real life conditions. It includes 66 closed questions, distributed on 11 scales reflecting the generalized value orientations: pleasant pastime, high material well-being, enjoying beautiful, help and compassion for others, love, cognition of nature and human, high social status, recognition, respect and influence on others, social activity in order to achieve positive changes in society, communication and health.

Subjective well-being was estimated by 3 techniques “Scales of psychological well-being” (Ryff, 1989, adapted by Shevelenkov, Fesenko). The inventory consists of 84 statements reflecting the six areas of psychological well-being: autonomy, environmental mastery, personal growth, positive relations with other, purpose in life and self-acceptance. Indicators of different scales are combined into three integral indicator: affect balance, meaningfulness of life, openness to the world.

“Life Satisfaction Index-A” (LSI-A)” (Neugarten, Havighurst, & Tobin, 1961, adapted by Panina) measures the overall psychological state of the person, which is determined by the personal characteristics, the system of one’s relations in various life aspects. It consists of 20 questions; the results of the responses are reduced to 5 scales characterizing different aspects of the person’s life satisfaction. These include zest (as opposed to apathy), resolution and fortitude, congruence between desired and achieved goals, positive self-concept and mood tone. The persons showing high scores on the questionnaire, usually take pleasure in their daily activities, find their life meaningful, and have feeling of success in achieving major goals, positive self-images and optimism.

“Subjective Happiness Scale” (Lyubomirsky & Lepper, 1999, adapted by Leontiev, 2000) is the express (4-item) scale, designed to assess the current psychological state of the person. It shows a subjective assessment of whether one is a happy or an unhappy person.

2.3 Procedure

The procedure of the research was approved by the Department of Social and Differential Psychology of Peoples’ Friendship University of Russia (PFUR). We used snowball sampling method: first members of international research group recruited the subjects from their acquaintances working in different spheres, then these people recruited their acquaintances and so on. The surveys were conducted personally during 2-3 meetings, 30 minutes each. All the participants were informed by the researchers about the aims of the study before the measures were administered. For obtained data analysis we used statistical techniques: Mann — Whitney U-test, Spearman’s rank correlation coefficient.

3. Results

3.1 General characteristics of life values and subjective well-being.

Table 1 presents the significance degrees of life values for different cultures representatives.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Life values</th>
<th>Orthodox Christians</th>
<th>Catholics</th>
<th>Muslims</th>
<th>Jews</th>
<th>Buddhists</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>St. D.</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>St. D.</td>
<td>M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recreation</td>
<td>3,949</td>
<td>1,36</td>
<td>4,750</td>
<td>1,29</td>
<td>3,965</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Material prosperity</td>
<td>3,318</td>
<td>1,47</td>
<td>3,250</td>
<td>1,96</td>
<td>3,544</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enjoying beautiful</td>
<td>3,749</td>
<td>1,54</td>
<td>4,083</td>
<td>1,73</td>
<td>3,491</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Charity</td>
<td>4,308</td>
<td>1,32</td>
<td>3,750</td>
<td>1,96</td>
<td>4,649</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
According to the data from the table, we can define dominant life values of each studied religious group. The value of charity is the leading for Jews and Muslims, as well as for Orthodox Christians. For Catholics, the leading values are pleasant pastime and recreation, which take the middle positions for the other cultures. Values of recognition and respect are particularly important for Muslims, while for the other cultures, it take the second - third places. For Buddhists, the value of enjoying beautiful play the leading role.

Table 2. Cross-cultural peculiarities of life satisfaction and SWB.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SWB &amp; Life-satisfaction indicators</th>
<th>Orthodox Christians</th>
<th>Catholics</th>
<th>Muslims</th>
<th>Jews</th>
<th>Buddhists</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Life Satisfaction Index</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zest</td>
<td>5.25</td>
<td>1.58</td>
<td>5.83</td>
<td>1.40</td>
<td>5.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resolution and fortitude</td>
<td>5.95</td>
<td>1.79</td>
<td>5.75</td>
<td>1.66</td>
<td>6.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Congruence between desired and achieved goals</td>
<td>5.35</td>
<td>1.84</td>
<td>5.75</td>
<td>2.26</td>
<td>5.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive self-concept</td>
<td>5.22</td>
<td>1.69</td>
<td>6.00</td>
<td>2.30</td>
<td>5.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mood tone</td>
<td>5.45</td>
<td>1.70</td>
<td>5.33</td>
<td>2.19</td>
<td>5.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall level</td>
<td>27.20</td>
<td>5.68</td>
<td>28.41</td>
<td>5.85</td>
<td>28.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Psychological well-being</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive relations with other</td>
<td>59.50</td>
<td>12.83</td>
<td>63.50</td>
<td>13.29</td>
<td>62.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Autonomy</td>
<td>61.23</td>
<td>13.58</td>
<td>56.08</td>
<td>14.00</td>
<td>62.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environmental mastery</td>
<td>59.90</td>
<td>13.53</td>
<td>58.16</td>
<td>13.98</td>
<td>62.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal growth</td>
<td>64.00</td>
<td>12.12</td>
<td>60.66</td>
<td>13.29</td>
<td>66.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Purpose in life</td>
<td>63.82</td>
<td>14.26</td>
<td>65.66</td>
<td>13.75</td>
<td>67.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-acceptance</td>
<td>59.99</td>
<td>13.63</td>
<td>56.16</td>
<td>15.01</td>
<td>64.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affect balance</td>
<td>90.73</td>
<td>22.86</td>
<td>100.41</td>
<td>28.68</td>
<td>86.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meaningfulness of life</td>
<td>92.00</td>
<td>17.71</td>
<td>81.16</td>
<td>21.53</td>
<td>93.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Openness to the world</td>
<td>64.19</td>
<td>11.80</td>
<td>58.66</td>
<td>14.65</td>
<td>66.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall level</td>
<td>539.256</td>
<td>124.777</td>
<td>545.917</td>
<td>95.51</td>
<td>540.684</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

We can see from the table that people, belonging to Judaism, have slightly better results on all the scales of “Life Satisfaction Index” as well as on overall level of life satisfaction. Orthodox Christians showed the lowest result on overall level of life satisfaction and on scale of positive self-concept. Muslims responded the lowest level of zest for life, Catholics - the lowest level on the scale of resolution and fortitude, Buddhists showed lowest results on the scale of congruence between desired and achieved goals.

The data on the Subjective Happiness Scale show the higher level of it at Muslims and the lowest – at Orthodox Christians.

The data of Psychological Well-being Scale show that overall level of SWB again is the highest at Jews, and the lowest at Orthodox Christians. However, in separate scales we can see a bit different results: in most scales of the test, Buddhists responded the highest results, and Catholics – the lowest results. Only on the scale of the balance of affect, Catholics have best results, and Jews – the lowest one.

### 3.2 Cultural differences in life values and subjective well-being.

To assess statistical significance of identified cross-cultural differences between analyzed groups, pairwise comparisons were performed using Mann — Whitney U-test.

Significant differences of life values between Orthodox Christians and Catholics, and Orthodox and Jews were not
revealed. In addition, differences between Catholics on one hand and Muslims and Jews on another hand were not found.

In comparison with Buddhists, for Orthodox values of enjoying beautiful (p=0.01), new knowledge (p=0.01) and pro-social activity (p=0.001) are less important. For Muslims in comparison with Orthodox Christians the values of social status (p=0.0001), recognition and respect (p=0.01) are more important. Muslims also exceed Jews in importance of value recognition and respect (p=0.005).

Differences in life values between Buddhists and Jews were not discovered. For Buddhists, in comparison with Catholics, the value of recreation is less important (0.04); in comparison with Buddhists, the values of enjoying beautiful (p=0.005) and new knowledge (p=0.02) are more important; values of charity (p=0.04) and social status (p=0.13) are less important.

Pairwise comparison of indicators of life satisfaction and subjective well-being gave us the next results.

Only one statistically significant difference were revealed between Orthodox Christians and Catholics - on the indicator of meaningfulness of life (p=0.04). The indicator is higher at Orthodox.

Not much significant differences were found in SWB of Orthodox Christians and Muslims. Muslims reported higher results in subjective happiness level (p=0.001), in positive self-concept (0.008) and in self-acceptance (p=0.05) than Orthodox.

Many significant differences in SWB were found between Orthodox Christians and Buddhists. Buddhists responded better results on subjective happiness (p=0.01) and on many scales of SWB: positive relations with other (p=0.0001), autonomy (0.01), environmental mastery (p=0.0006), purpose in life (p=0.0006) and self-acceptance (p=0.0008).

Similar results were obtained in comparison of Orthodox Christians and Jews. Overall life satisfaction of Jews is much higher, than of Orthodox Christians (p=0.001), as well as congruence between desired and achieved goals (p=0.03) and positive self-concept (p=0.00005). Jews’ data were also significantly higher than the data of Orthodox on scales of autonomy (p=0.04), environmental mastery (p=0.009) and self-acceptance (p=0.006).

Catholics significantly exceed Buddhists in autonomy (p=0.04), self-acceptance (p=0.01) and meaningfulness of life (p=0.03).

Only one significant difference exists in SWB of Catholics and Muslims – Catholics are more open to world than Muslims (p=0.03). And one difference was found in SWB of Catholics and Jews – Catholics’ self-acceptance was higher than Muslims (p=0.05).

Buddhists responded higher scores on the scale of positive relations with other (p=0.03) than Muslims; and lower overall level of life satisfaction (p= 0.02) and positive self-concept (p=0.02) than Jews. Muslims also reported lower level of positive self-concept (p=0.05) than Jews.

3.3 Correlations of subjective well-being and life values

Correlation analysis conducted on the total sample revealed multiple statistically significant correlations between indicators of SWB and life satisfaction with life values. Values of social status, pro-social activity, communication and health are more closely related to overall levels of SWB and life satisfaction and to separate scales of the test. The values of recognition and respect and material prosperity have less significant correlations with different scales. The value of enjoying beautiful significantly correlates only with life satisfaction and happiness, but not with SWB scales. The value of charity positively correlates only with overall level of life satisfaction and with the scales of resolution and fortitude and congruence between desired and achieved goals of the test of Life satisfaction. The value of new knowledge relates only to zest. The value of recreation doesn’t have significant correlations with life satisfaction and SWB.

Correlation analysis conducted in each religious subgroup indicated different correlations of life values and life satisfaction and SWB. In particular, for Orthodox Christians, well-being and life satisfaction are related mostly to the value of pro-social activity, which is less important for this group, and they are also related to the values of communication, health and social status, which are on middle positions in this group.

For Buddhists, life satisfaction is directly related to the values of material prosperity, social activity for positive change in society and social status, which are not so popular in this culture.

For Catholics, life satisfaction is related to the values of social status and charity. For Muslims it is associated with values of communication and respect, for the Jews – with the values of enjoying beautiful and new knowledge.
4. Discussion

Most received data on life values and SWB and life satisfaction are consistent with other empirical studies results and with basic principles of considered religions. According to our data, people belonging to the Jewish religion, are significantly more satisfied with their lives than all the others. People brought up in the Orthodox Christian culture, are the least satisfied with their lives. In many subjective well-being indicators, representatives of the Buddhist and Muslim cultures show quite good results.

Each cultural group has specific structure of subjective well-being indicators and specific correlations of subjective well-being with their life values. The results of the study may be used in developing culturally sensitive methods of psychological support and psychotherapy.

People of different cultures associate their well-being and lives satisfaction with different life values. However, in general, life satisfaction correlates with those values, which are less important for certain culture. Perhaps, persons, oriented on traditional and culturally important values are less happy than those, who are oriented for their individual ones. May be in assessing realization of individual values people use their own criteria, which are not as strict as criteria of common cultural values’ realization. These results may also be due to the erosion of traditional cultures in most modern societies, the desire of individuals to the maximum realization of their individuality.

These ideas are supported by the data of many empirical studies, mentioned above, that proved closer connections of subjective well-being and life satisfaction with individual values than with collectivistic values.

5. Conclusions

There are significant cross-cultural differences in life values and subjective well-being among residents of one country, belonging to different cultures. These differences have their sources in religious attitudes and settings. People of different cultures associate their well-being and life satisfaction with different values. Generally, well-being and life satisfaction are directly related to the values, less popular in certain culture.

References


Huta, V., & Ryan, R. M. (2010). Pursuing pleasure or virtue: The differential and overlapping well-being benefits of hedonic and


Abstract

Among Christian translators who especially distinguished themselves in the 10th/11th century Baghdad were Yahya Ibn ‘Adi (d.974), Ibn Zur’ah (d.1008), Ibn al-Khammar (d.1017) and Abu ‘Alī al-Samh (d.1027). Some of these Christians were no longer relying on the Caliphs or other patrons of learning, but often found their own means of living which in turn prolonged their own academic interest. Consequently, some of them were no mere translators any more, but genuine scholars. The chief architect among them was Yahya Ibn ‘Adi. He was not only the leader of his group but was also dubbed as the best Christian translator, logician and theologian of his times. This is justified, in addition, by his ample productivity in those fields of enquiry. A considerable number of such works have evidently been used by contemporary and later writers, and have also reached us today. Hence we consider that it is in these aspects that his distinctive contributions to scholarship lie, and therefore he deserves more serious study. Thus, this qualitative study which uses content analysis method seeks to introduce Yahya Ibn ‘Adi in terms of his history, life, career, education and writings.

Keywords: Yahya Ibn ‘Adi, his life, education, career, writings

1. Yahya’s Early Life and Education

Yahya’s full name as given by his biographers, contemporaries and attested by his own testimony is Abu Zakariyya’ Yahya Ibn ‘Adi Hamid Ibn Zakariyya’ al-Takriti al-Mantiqi (See al-Sijistani 1974; al-Tawhidi 1929; Ibn al-Nadim 1872; and al-Qifti 1903). He received the name Yahya (John) at birth. Later on when he became a father and head of his family, he was given, as customary among the Arabs, the surname taken from one of his sons, “Abu Zakariyya’ (father of Zakariyya’); the addition of his ancestors’ names to his own, “Yahya Ibn ‘Adi (father) Hamid (grandfather) Ibn Zakariyya’ (great grandfather)”, is also necessary not only for exactness, but also for avoiding any possible confusion with those of similar name; his nick-name “al-Mantiqi” (the logician), is beyond doubt, awarded to him for his skill at dialectic (Ibn al-Nadim 1872; al-Qifti 1903; and Ibn Abi Usaybi’ah 1982, 1); while his ethnic name, al-Takriti” (the man from Takrit), indicates his home town.

Yahya was born in Takrit (the northern frontier district of ‘Iraq) in 893 A.D. of Jacobite or Monophysite Christian parentage. Takrit, the old metropolis of the East, was situated on the right bank of the Tigris, about 100 miles north of Baghdad and almost equidistant from Mawsil. Some writers attribute its foundation to the Sasanian King Sabur, son of Ardashir, and it is also said to have been named after a Christian woman, Takrit bint Wa’il. Later, it was the birth place of al-Malik al-Nasir Salah al-Din Yusuf 1, Saladin (d. 1193), the third crusade hero, whose father Najm al-Din al-Ayyub (d. 1173) was appointed commander of the fortress Takrit under the Saljuq rulers (1055-1100) (Kraemer 1986; Perier 1920).

Takrit was one of the important intellectual centres of that time where both theological and philosophical discussions were held among Christians of different sects, and also between Christians and Muslims. The contemporary Muslim historian, al-Mas’udi (1893) for example, related about a debate he had with the Syrian philosopher and historian, Abu Zakariyya’ Dinha’ at the Green Church, Takrit in 313 A.H./925 A.D.; and on another occasion al-Mas’udi likewise affirmed that he had seen a voluminous work on ancient philosophy. These hints show that the birth place of Yahya was among the oldest philosophical centres though very much inferior in comparison to Baghdad.

During Yahya’s time, the Eastern Church was divided into three main bodies namely: the Nestorians, who dominated Armenia and Persia; the Jacobites or Monophysites, to which Yahya belonged, prevalent in Mesopotamia, Syria and Egypt; and the Melkites (Orthodox) in regions under the Byzantine emperors (Aityeh 1968). Takrit, Yahya’s home town, was the seat of a Jacobite bishop from the fourth century until the middle of the twentieth century, when the diocese was combined with that of al-Mawsil.

Al-Sijistani (1974: 377- 389), who was in contact with each of the three groups, remarked on the diversity of their
convictions. This was among the earliest indications that has reached us about their diversity. He observes:

"Some of them (Christians) professed that the entities with which (this Being / zat ) unites are human substances. Some among them held that of all these substances that with which it unites is one, namely, the substance of humanity (nasut) of the Messiah (scil. Jesus). These are the Christians, with their divergent opinions concerning this. The Jacobites claim that from the two substances, I mean the substance of humanity (nasut) and the substance of divinity (lahut), one substance and one hypostasis (ugnum) emerge. The Nestorians hold that the union is only through good pleasure, and the two substances remain two and two hypostases. The Melkites hold that two substances and one hypostasis emerge through the union".

The debate between these three Christian confessions, as reflected by the writings of Yahya and his immediate pupils, was bitter. However, though their dogmas, primarily those of the Nestorians and Jacobites, had been condemned as being heretical by the more powerful westerly branches of the Christian church, it is rightly claimed that it was they, particularly the Nestorians, who had played a markedly important role in cultivating Greek sciences and who later transmitted them to the Muslims, and in particular the Muslim philosophers (Rescher 1964).

As to Yahya’s early life and education, biographers leave us ignorant. Nevertheless, we know that, probably after completing his early education in Takrit, Yahya went to Baghdad to continue his studies and pursue his interest sometime between 910 and 915 A.D., when he was aged around 17 to 21. From the epithet “nazil Baghdad” (resident of Baghdad), which is often attached to both his life and career, it may be gathered that he had spent most of his academic life in Baghdad, and become a distinguished scholar at the important centres of learning (al-Qifti 1903; and Ibn al-Ibri 1958). Thus, Yahya seems to have been one of the distinctive scholars at the time, as with many other intellectuals who had received the same title.

Most sources mention Abu Bishr Matta Ibn Yunus (d. 328/940) and Abu Nasr al-Farabi (d. 339/950) as Yahya’s teachers in philosophy, particularly logic. The first was the Nestorian logician, physician and translator, reputed in his lifetime as a “master” and “chief authority” on logic in Baghdad, mainly during the reign of Caliph al-Radi (932-939 A.D.). The second was the greatest ever of Muslim Philosophers, the most excellent among the notables, who was well-grounded in philosophy and famous for almost all of his philosophical writings, which eventually earned him the nickname, “al-Mu'allim al-Thani” (the second teacher), the first being Aristotle. Al-Bayhaqi (1935), states that Yahya was the best (afdal) of al-Farabi’s pupils, who summarises the literary works of his master and possesses a compendium of them. This is also confirmed by al-Mas‘udi (1893), one of Yahya’s associated friends, who reports that he is aware of no one who relies on al-Farabi’s philosophy except one man in Baghdad known as Abu Zakariyya’ Ibn ‘Adi.

Further information supplied by al-Mas‘udi (1893) that the basis of Yahya’s thought was that of his study of the system (fariqa) of Muhammad Ibn Zakariyya’ al-Razi (d. 925), that is, the theory of the Pythagorean on the first philosophy (i.e., metaphysics), tells us of another important master of Yahya. However, it appears that Yahya could have been in contact with al-Razi only for a limited time, possibly somewhere between 910 and 915 A.D., just after his migration to Baghdad which was, coincidentally, the period in which al-Razi was reported to have been residing there shortly before returning to his home town al-Rayy (Meyerhof 1930). The precise subjects which Yahya could have studied under al-Razi are not known. Nevertheless, since the latter was “the greatest physician of the Islamic period”, and one of the greatest physicians of all time, it was very likely that medicine was their major theme of inquiry, though other disciplines including logic, ethics and metaphysics, as mentioned by al-Mas‘udi (d. 957), could also be included (Mayerhof 1984; and Arberry 1957).

Al-Razi (d. 925) also wrote on ethics, al-Tibb al-Ruhani (The Spiritual Medicine), which appeared as "an admirable synthesis of science and metaphysics, shaped in the mind of a master physician and given a verbal form by a master of language" (Arberry 1957). This is in perfect agreement with the subject matter of Yahya’s ethics, namely, the correction of the metaphysical side of man, the soul. Further, the fact that he was listed by Ibn Abi Usaybi’a (1982, 1) as among the Arabic physicians, may also cause us to believe that al-Razi (d. 925) was a formative influence of Yahya.

Early Arabic sources noted that Yahya also studied with a group of scholars of his day, though none of their names were specifically mentioned. Al-Tawhidi (1953,1), who was in close contact with Yahya as well as with other contemporary men of letters, may indirectly have alluded to this particular group for he named some of them, including Yahya, as his colleagues (ashabuna). Others included al-Sijistani (d.1001), Ibn Zur’a (d.1008), Ibn al-Khammar (d. 1017), Nazif al-Rumi (tenth/eleventh century), al-Qumisi (tenth/eleventh century), Miskawayh (d. 1030), Isa b. ‘Ali (d. 1001), and others. We do not know for certain which of them Yahya had actually been studying with. However, in seeing that science embodies numerous disciplines, even philosophy, as was usual in those days, encompassing many areas - geometry, medicine, astronomy, music, logic and arithmetic - so were the students of science, more particularly the encyclopaedic men of mediaeval Baghdad, very often dubbed with more than one field of specialisation: Yahya himself received the designation of logician, theologian and translator, while Miskawayh received that of historian, ethicist and
physician.

Hence, the possibility that Yahya could have studied under any particular one of his associates or more, and with other contemporary scholars, especially with those who specialised in different skills from his own, is high. Moreover, most members of the group like al-Sijistani, Ibn Zur'a, Ibn al-Khammar and so forth, studied logic with Yahya, but still acquired additional specialised knowledge from among themselves and from the various experts during their period.

2. His Career

Most scholars in those days (during the tenth/eleventh century Baghdad) were no longer dependent on the patronage of the rulers or their viziers, as were their immediate predecessors, but they made their own living as physicians, teachers, scribes, translators, or booksellers (Rescher 1964). Yahya too seems to have earned his own livelihood as a professional copyist and bookseller, a livelihood, which he may have inherited from his father, 'Adi Ibn Hamid. The profession could perhaps be the bread and butter job of many of the literate men of his time (Kraemer 1986; and Walzer 1962). The anecdote given by Ibn al-Nadim (1871-1872), which criticised Yahya for copying too much may substantiate this fact: "Why be amazed at my patience?" Yahya replied. "I have transcribed with my hand two copies of the Tafsir (Qur’anic Commentary) of al-Tabari (d. 923), which I have taken to the kings of the frontiers, and I have copied innumerable works of the Muslim theologians. In fact, I have forced myself to write a hundred pages each day and night, thought I felt this to be little".

Yahya was a prolific copyist of manuscripts and also a keen lover of books, who constantly replenish his book supply for the benefit of his customers as well as for his friends and pupils. Nevertheless, he was not simply a slavish copier, but very often he revised and rectified many of the existing versions and, more importantly, he prepared numerous translations of Greek works mostly from Syriac into Arabic since he knew no Greek (Rescher 1964). Not surprisingly therefore, his contemporary biographer, Ibn al-Nadim (1871-1872), depended on him as a bibliographical source and utilised the catalogue of his books when writing the section on "ancient philosophy" in his well-known book al-Fihrist. Another piece of information again furnished by Ibn al-Nadim (d. 990), that Yahya was distressed by the discovery that the works he had diligently sought for, had already been sold, while still others had been burnt. This confirms his position as an avid collector of books. The fact that he was also designated as a “translator” by Abu Hayyan al-Tawhidi (1953, 1), is of course justified by his expertise in such a field in addition to his copious productivity in translation.

Like Miskawayh (d. 1030), Yahya was also listed by Ibn Abi Usaybi’'a (1984, 1) as among one of the Arabic physicians. But unlike the former, who had been credited by Ibn Abi Usaybi’a with precise medical treatises, Yahya was neither attributed with the works as such nor with any translation of them. Modern scholars including Graf (1910) and Rescher (1964), assert that Yahya earned his livelihood as a qualified medical doctor. We are not aware of the source of such a statement, apart from the tale circulated by one of his fellow countrymen, al-Mas’udi (1893), that Yahya was once the pupil of the great Muslim medical doctor al-Razi (d. 925). This was reinforced by the frank confession made by Yahya himself about his incompetence in medicine, despite being singled out as a physician by Ibn Abi Usaybi’a (1984). In any case, all this lead us to believe that Yahya must also have had some interest in medicine, but does not appear to have practised the art. Even if he did, it was perhaps only a little, or only when forced to do so by circumstances as with his other associated contemporaries, Miskawayh (d. 1030) and Ibn Zur’a (d.1008), who were both counted as physicians by Ibn Abi Usaybi’a. However, no further source informs us whether or not they practised the profession for their living.

Following the death of his master, Matta b.Yunus in 940, and with the absence of al-Farabi (d. 950), who had left Baghdad long before, specifically to travel to study in Syria and Egypt and set himself up at the court of Sayf al-Dawla (d.967) of Aleppo in 942, Yahya became the new leader of philosophical studies in Baghdad. He was now in his late 40s and exercised a truly intellectual sovereignty for the next three decades at the centre; the intellectuals of the new generation, comprising Muslims, Christians, Jews and others alike joined his majlis (school) (Kraemer 1986). Among his celebrated Muslims disciples were al-Sijistani (d. 1001), ‘Isa b. ‘Ali (d. 1001), Muhammad al-Badihi (d. 990), and Abu Hayyan al-Tawhidi (d. 1023). The Christians were, namely, Ibn Zur’a (d. 1008), Ibn al-Khammar (d. 1017), and Abu ‘Ali al-Samh (d. 1027). There was also a Jew, Wahab b. Thaqif al-Rumi; and a Sabian, Abu Ishaq al-Sab’i (al-Tawhidi 1953:1; and Kraemer 1986).

Al-Tawhidi (1953), who was a pupil of Yahya as well as a member of the group, tells us that most of his colleagues were prominent in the majlis set up by Yahya, who was also the ustadh (master) of the school. This is attested as well by the reminiscences of two contemporary biographers, Ibn al-Nadim (1871-1872), who considers Yahya as the leader among his associates and unique in his time; and al-Mas’udi (1893), who portrays Yahya as the chief authority of philosophy, particularly logic, during the period. Thus, we notice the continual use of the Alexandrian title, "Head (scholarches / ra’is) of the school" in the tenth/eleventh century Baghdad, and the succession of Abu Bishr Matta b.
memorised the own respective areas of curiosity apart from philosophy. For example, the first studied Islamic jurisprudence (fiqh) and al-Tawhidi (d.1023) in many of his biographical works, touching particularly on the intellectual life of the period, though centred on the philosophical school of al-Sijistani (d.1001), echo the ancient sciences as always being the main subjects studied by the succeeding philosophical school of Baghdad. As to that of Yahya, Kraemer (1986), decisively remarks that: “The school of Yahya b. ‘Adi, following the lead of its master, engaged mainly in philosophical work; copying, translating, and editing ancient philosophical and scientific texts”. Touching on the different interests of its members, J.L. Kraemer further observes that: “Ibn ‘Adi’s Christian pupils - continued the (predominantly Christian) tradition of meticulous textual editing, translating, and commenting”; whereas his Muslim pupils, “studied and interpreted ancient texts, but they were not as involved in translation and editing - they evinced a keen interest in the history of philosophy”.

This educative system, in many respects, is similar to the one adopted by the school of Hunayn Ibn Ishaq (d. 874), about a century earlier as averred by Hunayn himself:

“Our Christian friends (the Nestorians) today assemble every day at those places of instruction known as “school” (schole) for the study of one of the “major works” of the books of the Ancients. But as regards the remaining books, it was customary to read them individually, everyone for himself, after he had grounded himself in the books which I have mentioned, just like our (Nestorians) friends today read the commentaries to the books of the ancients”. (Cited by Rescher 1964: 21-22).

A similar teaching practise appeared to have been adopted by the school of Yahya, though it was not apparently committed to a specific philosophical work or trend. Nevertheless, logic had been the fundamental theme of the voluminous writings of its members and notably its master, as Yahya himself was better-reputed in his lifetime as “the logician” rather than as a “translator”, “copyist”, “physician”, “teacher” or “bookseller”; so were his masters, Abu Bishr Matta (d. 940) and al-Farabi (d. 950), who both successively antedated him as the heads of the school. Even the "school" as a whole was called that of “the logicians” (al-mantiqiyyun). All these indications have persuaded us to conclude that "logic" was probably the focal subject studied by the Yahya school, notwithstanding the fact that other branches of Greek science had also been widely cultivated by its members, as singled out by Kraemer (1986: 7):

"Ibn ‘Adi and his pupils corrected and refined previous translations, added their own, deliberated over textual and terminological problems, and engaged in philosophical speculation. The relationship between philosophy and religious doctrine was a major intellectual preoccupation of theirs. The philological finesse and philosophical insight of Ibn ‘Adi and his pupils are evident in the editions of Aristotle’s Organon and Physics that emanated from his school.”

That the Islamic subjects and other fields of learning have also been fostered by the school of Yahya is also evident. Ibn al-Nadim (1871-1872) for instance, relates that Yahya had a keen interest in the works of the Muslim theologians (mutakallimun), as well as in the Qur'anic commentary (tafsir), especially that of al-Tabari (d. 923). Al-Sijistani (d. 1001), who studied logic with Yahya, on the other hand, proclaimed that his teacher had a high regard for the Indian sciences, but neither al-Sijistani himself nor other sources yielded any further clues concerning this fact. Besides, the other members of the school such as Ibn al-Khammar (d. 1017), ‘Isa b. ‘Ali (d. 990) and al-Tawhidi (d.1023) also had their own respective areas of curiosity apart from philosophy. For example, the first studied Islamic jurisprudence (fiqh) and memorised the Qur’an, the second applied himself actively to the science of tradition (hadith), and the third was active in the field of belles-lettres as evoked by his ample productivity in the field.

It seems that Yahya headed his school of philosophy for almost 35 years, from 940 A.D. to 974 A.D. He lived to the ripe old age of eighty-one and died in Baghdad on Thursday 21st of Dhu’l Qa’da 364 A.H., corresponding to 13th August 1285 of the Alexandrian Calendar or 974 A. D. He was buried in the church of St. Thomas (Mar Tumar) in Qati’at al-Raqiq, north-western Baghdad. His disciple Ibn Zur’a (d. 1008) carved on his tomb the following epitaph

"Often enough the dead remains alive via knowledge, whereas the living dies via ignorance and malaise. Acquire therefore knowledge to gain immortality give no value whatsoever to an ignorant life” (Ibn Abi ’Usaybi’ah 1982-1984, 1).

3. His Literary Works: Ethics

Yahya was not a minor writer or a second order philosopher. As a disciple of the most eminent masters of his age, Abu Bishr Matta b. Yunus (d. 940) and al-Farabi (d. 950), he seemed to represent the first, or at least one of the earliest Christian philosophers who was well-grounded in the three major traditions of learning of the time, namely, Greek, Christian and Islamic, although his skill in the first and the second, as reflected in his numerous writings, is much more
obvious. Among the early Arabic biographers, who deal extensively with the transmission of Greek sciences into the Muslim world during their time, such men as Ibn al-Nadim (1872), al-Qifti (1903) and Ibn Abi Usaybi'a (1984), all admire Yahya's astonishing output. Through Ibn al-Nadim we know most of Yahya's translations and commentaries. Yahya made Arabic translations, from Syriac, of many of Aristotle's major works including Categories, Topica, Sophistica, Poetica, Physica (second section) and one part of Metaphysica, as well as Plato's Law (al-Nawamis).

Yahya also corrected earlier translations of the first fragment of Aristotle's Physica and the whole of Plato's Timaeus. He also wrote a commentary on the former's logical work, Topica, and possessed a compendium of other Greek treatises and commentaries including De Anima, Books of Animals, and Ethics (perhaps the Nicomachean Ethics) of Aristotle, the Republic, Timaeus and other writings of Plato, as well as a number of commentaries by Ammonius, Themistius and Alexander of Aphrodisias. Al-Qifti (d. 1248) and Ibn Abi Usaybi'a (d. 1270), Ibn al-Nadim's close successors, on the other hand, rely heavily on the information supplied by the latter when they both wrote their parallel brief entries on Yahya. Al-Qifti listed altogether 41 titles of Yahya's literary works, whereas Ibn Abi Usaybi'a included seven. Most of these writings, however, are already found scattered in the Fihrist of Ibn al-Nadim (d. 990).

In the constant contact between the three great civilisations, Greek, Muslim and Christian, more especially the last two, as well as the frequent exchange of views, discussions and polemics, Yahya stood then, as agreed by many, as an apologist. Or, we would say, as a scholar who offers a defensive method of argument and concerns himself with the rational justification of Christianity. That is the origin of almost all of his own independent minor treatises. Sometimes they are brief like journal articles, giving replies to objections or questions put to him by others, and sometimes lengthy, with elaboration on Christian dogmas, setting objections, replies and instructions most suitably together.

Perier (1920), was among the first in modern times to provide a comprehensive list of Yahya's works together with their relevant manuscripts in 1920. Soon thereafter Yahya's personal contributions, both on theology and philosophy, mainly the former, received extensive scholarly attention and were featured in almost every piece of research carried out on him. To name but a few, we may include the studies by Endress (1977), al-Takriti (1978), and Samir in (1980). Nevertheless, the one which has been prepared by Endress stands alone in being solely restricted to the literary productions of Yahya, and therefore, represents the most exhaustive inventory on the subject. Since Yahya's writings have already been actively researched on, there is nothing more, as far as we can see, which can be achieved in the research of this nature. However, the significance of this study, especially with regard to the understanding of Yahya's life and works, especially on ethics, remains to be clarified. It is this area that this brief section seeks to clarify.

Notwithstanding the fact that theology was the chief subject of Yahya's thought, while logic, by contrast, was the centre of his philosophical writings, he also produced works on ethics which can be broadly divided into two main groups. The first are those short treatises on some minor aspects of moral practice including Treatise on the Care for Children and their Neglection, A Discussion of Arguments for and Against Celibacy (Maqala wa-Munazara fi Hal Tark Talab al-Nas), and Replies to Three Questions on Celibacy, Submitted by Yahya Ibn 'Adi to a Friend in Muharram 353 A. H. / 964 A. D. (Jabat Sadiqina 'Amma Staftaynahu fihi min al-Masa'il al-Thalath al-Warida fi Muhamar Sanat 353). Neither the manuscript nor the Arabic title of the first treatise is at present identified; whereas that of the last two are traceable. The second category of Yahya's literature on ethics fall under those works which provide a much more elaborate philosophical analysis. They are his chief ethical treatise Tahdhib al-Akhlaq (The Refinement of Character), and Maqala fi Siyasa al-Nafs (A Discourse on the Management of the Soul).

The title Tahdhib al-Akhlaq does not appear among Yahya's listed works in the earlier Arabic sources, for example, in Ta'rikh al-Hukama' by al-Qifti (1903), and in 'Uyun al-Anba' fi Tabaqat al-Alibba', by Ibn Abi Usaybi'a (1982), when they both wrote their sections on Yahya; nor was it listed by his close friend Ibn al-Nadim (1871), when he included Yahya's works in his most important catalogue on philosophy among the Arabs, Kitab al-Fihrist. This catalogue ends with the year 377 A.H./987 A. D. or approximately thirteen years after Yahya's death. Hence, by such time, all Yahya's writings might have been available and known by Ibn al-Nadim.

It is possible, therefore, that the title Tahdhib al-Akhlaq was not used by early Arabic biographers although they might have known about it by another name or title. The title Siyasa al-Nafs, which was mentioned by Ibn Abi Usaybi'a (1982) as a genuine work of Yahya, may refer to the present treatise. The expressions: siyasa al-nafs (the improvement/management of the soul), siyasa al-akhlaq (the improvement/refinement of character), tahdhib al-nafs (the refinement of the soul) and tahdhib al-akhlaq (the refinement of character), are not only used interchangeably by Yahya, but also appear to be synonymous. Both terms, siyasa and tahdhib connote almost the same meaning, i.e., "improvement", "management", "refinement" and the like; while the term al-nafs (soul) corresponds to that of al-akhlaq (character), since Yahya defines character as the state of the soul. Hence, Siyasa al-Nafs and Tahdhib al-Akhlaq, could probably have stood for the title of one single work under discussion. The fact that the former has not yet been found may substantiate this possibility. Furthermore, the expressions: siyasa al-akhlaq and tahdhib al-nafs are both employed by
Yahya to describe the subject matter of the present Tahdhib al-Akhlaq in the concluding portion of the book. Although neither Yahya himself, nor his contemporaries such as al-Sijistani (1974), al-Tawhdi (1929, 1953) and Miskawayh (1966) or others ascribe a treatise entitled Tahdhib al-Akhlaq to him, the weight of modern scholarly studies favours the view that Yahya is the true author of the present work. To name a few, we may state the studies by Augustin Perier (1920), Gerhard Endress (1977), and Naji al-Takriti (1978).

Nevertheless, the study on Tahdhib al-Akhlaq in this article will give a few more clues to help solve the problem of its authorship. Firstly, no references were made to either al-Qur'an or al-Hadith in the text. Despite the presence of the basmala at the beginning of some of the manuscripts and editions of the Tahdhib al-Akhlaq, it could have been added by the pens of its copyists or editors. Secondly, its author is rather reluctant to use the terms which have been in common use among the Muslims of his time. For instance, it is noticeable that the terms such as, al-ulama', al-awliva', al-mutasawwifun, al-masajid, al-imam and the like which have been widely accepted by Muslim writers then.

Further, the Tahdhib al-Akhlaq advises the one who wishes to improve his character to be moderate when taking alcoholic drinks or whenever possible to give up drinking completely. Muslim writers including Ibn al-Arabi (d. 1240), Ibn al-Haytham (d. 1039), and al-Jahiz (d. 868), to whom the present treatise has sometimes been attributed, would certainly not have been so permissive. This is also similar with respect to other Muslim scholars, for al-Qur'an (5: 93-94), for instance, prohibits: "O ye who believe! Intoxicants and gambling, (dedication of) stones, and an abomination, - of Satan's handiwork: eschew such (abomination), that ye may prosper. Satan's plan is (but) to excite enmity and hatred between you, with intoxicants and gambling, and hinder you from the remembrance of God and from prayer: will ye not then abstain?" All these indications might suggest that its author could not have been a Muslim. Therefore, he must be a Christian, Yahya Ibn Adi. Here are brief outlines of Yahya’s Tahdhib al-Akhlaq:

(i) Muqaddima (introduction): Why be Moral?
(ii) The Foundation of Ethics on the Tripartition of the Soul: the Rational, the Irascible and the Concupiscent.
(iii) List of Moral Virtues.
(iv) List of Moral Vices.
(v) Method of the Refinement of Character: on how the three Faculties of the Soul, namely, the Irascible, the Concupiscent, and the Rational can be controlled by Man.
(vi) The Character of the Perfect (Happy) Man and the Way towards Perfection.

4. Conclusion

In his survey of Muslim philosophy, Professor De Boer (1970, 17) remarked that: "The Syrians (Yahya probably being no exception), it is true, produced nothing original; but their activity as translators was of advantage to Arab-Persian science." However, our study on Yahya enables us to modify this statement, in the sense that Yahya was a translator with a strong theological interest, who never left his career at a purely commercial level, but sought to apply theology, in his own ways, into the practical ethical reality of his days. To this end, Peter's (1968:162) comment on his talent is in all probability correct: "Yahya was a commentator, and theologically, he was an apologist; in neither case did he leave behind a systematic presentation of his views".

References

International Administration of Kosovo as a Driving Factor in Appearance of Trafficking in Human Beings

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Abstract

Opinions, stances of the Albanian community about self-determination and the political demands for an independent political and territorial status of Kosovo by various colonial regimes, are longstanding. The disintegration of the Socialist Federal Republic of Yugoslavia (SFRY) was followed with wars among its constituent parts, and after the international military intervention, the peace was established in the region. By the Resolution 1244 of the Security Council of the UNO, in its 4001 meeting, adopted in June 1999, Kosovo was set under the international civil administration, which was accompanied by the deployment of military defence structure of KFOR, reaching a number of 35 000 soldiers, and the UNMIK civilian structure comprising a staff of 15 000 officials. A lot of various international non-governmental and governmental organizations were also deployed to Kosovo, which tremendously increased the presence of persons with origin of other countries. Such a situation created some favourable conditions for the criminal groups in order to expand the phenomenon of trafficking in persons to such a place as Kosovo being until 1999, trafficking in persons appeared on a low capacity and dynamics, and mainly as a transitional country with the intent of sexual use, while domestic trafficking was still unknown. However, this criminal phenomenon has been constantly increasing and reaching a concerning level, especially after 1999, on the occasion of setting Kosovo under the international administration by the UNO, the territory of Kosovo was no longer considered only a transitional country but also as destination location for the victims of trafficking in persons. The introduction and prevalence of this criminal phenomenon is as a result of Kosovo getting opened to the world, the organization of national criminal groups in cooperation with international organized criminal network. Undoubtedly, the increased number of persons originating from other countries as personnel of the international organizations to Kosovo contributed in increasing the number of trafficking in persons, because it was established that many potential clients using victims sexually were foreign citizens. Moreover, the lack of legal infrastructure on the combat and prevention of trafficking in persons as defined by international legal acts.

Keywords: International Administration, Kosovo as a Driving Factor, Trafficking Human Beings

1. Introduction

Opinions, stances of the Albanian community about self-determination and the political demands for an independent political and territorial status of Kosovo by various colonial regimes, are longstanding. In the course of history, Kosovo has gone through various stages of functioning, thus always as a political-legal and territorial autonomous entirety, this is proved also by the period of Ottoman Empire ruling, wherein Kosovo functioned as a special administrative – legal unit established by the Turkish regulation of 1864, naming Kosovo Vilayet, which was one of four vilayets of the Ottoman Empire.1 The constitutional – legal position of Kosovo constantly underwent changes based on the flow of political events after the end of world wars and the regional ones. The Constitution of the Socialist Federal Republic of Yugoslavia (SFRY) 1974, likewise the Constitution of the Socialist Autonomous Province of Kosovo (SAPK) of 1974, determined Kosovo as: a political, territorial autonomous unit and a constituent element of Yugoslav federalization2. The disintegration of the Socialist Federal Republic of Yugoslavia (SFRY) was followed with wars among its constituent parts, and after the international military intervention, the peace was established in the region. By the Resolution 1244 of the Security Council of the UNO, in its 4001 meeting, adopted in June 1999, Kosovo was set under the international civil administration.3 The international administration of Kosovo by the Resolution 1244 was of an interim character and aimed

1 Sh. Rrahimi, Vilayet of Kosovo, published by Office of Textbooks and Teaching Materials of KSAX, Pristina, 1989, pg. 12
2 A. Bajrami, Kosovo Law in Transition, published by Prishtina University, Prishtina, 2002, pg. 48
3 A. Bajrami, Parliamentarianism, Publisher by Fama College, Prishtina, 2010, page 381.
the establishment of proper democratic conditions for resolution of the final status of Kosovo. At that moment, a military defence structure of KFOR, reaching a number of 35,000 soldiers, and the UNMIK civilian structure comprising a staff of 15,000 officials, were deployed. A lot of various international non-governmental and governmental organizations were also deployed to Kosovo.

Such a situation created some favourable conditions for the criminal groups in order to expand the phenomenon of trafficking in persons to such a place as Kosovo being until 1999, trafficking in persons appeared on a low capacity and dynamics, and mainly as a transitional country with the intent of sexual use, while domestic trafficking was still unknown. Before 1999, the territory of Kosovo was not a destination of victims of trafficking, but a transitional country for other countries (Macedonia, Serbia, Montenegro, etc.). However, this criminal phenomenon has been constantly increasing and reaching a concerning level, especially after 1999, on the occasion of setting Kosovo under the international administration by the UNO, the territory of Kosovo was no longer considered only a transitional country but also as a destination location for the victims of trafficking in persons. The introduction and prevalence of this criminal phenomenon is as a result of Kosovo getting opened to the world, the organization of national criminal groups in cooperation with international organized criminal network. Undoubtedly, the increased number of persons originating from other countries as personnel of the international organizations to Kosovo contributed in increasing the number of trafficking in persons, because it was established that many potential clients using victims sexually were foreign citizens, as well as the lack of legal infrastructure on the combat and prevention of trafficking in persons involving the international personnel employed in Kosovo. Trafficking in persons causes direct and multiple damages to the quality of life to each society in which it appears, regardless of the fact whether the country of such society is the origin, transition or destination.

This can be verified in the best way by the cases assisted for rehabilitation of victims of trafficking who did not have Kosovo citizenship. A Turkish victim reported the UNMIK Police in Rahovec that she had been raped and forced to prostitution by a Kosovo man called N.C. She also stated that some of her clients were UNMIK Police Officers, stationed in Rahovec, and that she could identify them easily, she should even show where their apartments were.

The international staff deployed in Kosovo not only incited smugglers to increase the number of victims of trafficking for sexual use as clients, but some UNMIK employees even contributed in increasing and developing this criminal offence, by providing assistance in transporting victims of trafficking. In one case, victims of trafficking stated that they were transported by UN white-coloured vehicles (known as their official vehicles) from Mitrovica to Fushë Kosovë. The vehicle was driven by a Russian member of UNMIK. The involvement of UNMIK staff in criminal offences – trafficking in persons in Kosovo – is verified also by the UNMIK press conference, held in Pristina on 13 August 2001, which confirms the dismissal of four members of UNMIK, being the only punishing measure against them as a result of such involvement, which were considered as violation of code of conduct and norms.

Participation of some of KFOR and UNMIK staff members, at least as users of services provided by victims of trafficking, is indicated by the fact that mainly the public houses/bars being full of victims are situated at locations visited by KFOR and UNMIK members or in the vicinity of KFOR military bases and UNMIK. Participation of individuals of UNMIK personnel, who had immunity, in such a criminal phenomenon, was a serious obstacle in combating and preventing this criminal offence by the KSP, the prosecution office and local judges.

2. Kosovo Legislation on Trafficking in Persons

As stated above, the first report on existence of criminal phenomenon, such as trafficking in persons, in the Republic of Kosovo occurred in 1999. The applicable law of Kosovo at that time had no legal provisions sanctioning this criminal phenomenon. This legal gap was an obstacle to fight and prevent trafficking in persons. Such a circumstance was used by criminal organizations by increasing the level and dynamics of prevalence of trafficking in persons. The approach in fighting and preventing trafficking in persons, under the situation of lacking legal regulations, became a significant challenge for the law enforcement bodies and for the judiciary.

It should be emphasized that Kosovo declared its Independence on 17 February 2008, and on 15 June 2008, the Constitution of the Republic of Kosovo entered into force, while UNMIK started reconfiguration of its presence in this country.

B. Reka. UNMIK as an international governance in post-war Kosovo: NATO’s Intervention, UN Administration and Kosovar Aspirations, p. 153

S. Gërxhalu. Trafficking and Prostitution of Women, ADEA, Pristina, 2003, p. 181

OSBE/SMSL. Report, p. 55

Clarification: No official evidence was published, which would contain the exact number of persons as staff members in UNMIK and KFOR, who were accused or convicted for commission of the criminal offence of trafficking in human beings for the period 2000-2006.

Following the entry into force of the Regulation No 4/2001, on 12 January 2001, an instrument was provided, which addressed all forms related to combat and prevention of trafficking in persons, at the meantime the legal gap in the applicable law of Kosovo was eliminated.

The UNMIK Regulation No 4/2001, of 12 January 2001, established a part of legislation that could particularly serve for prosecution and punishment of the perpetrators of the criminal offence of trafficking in persons and for assistance and protection of victims of trafficking until drafting and approval of the Criminal Code of Kosovo. This regulation comprises of three chapters, divided into 15 articles. The Chapter I, which comprises of 4 articles, provides the definition of the criminal offence and the sanctions. The Chapter II, which comprise of 4 articles, deals with criminal prosecution, confiscation and court proceedings. The Chapter III, the last one, comprises of seven articles and it administers protection and assistance to the victims of trafficking.

In compliance with international conventions and other acts, the Criminal Code of Kosovo, which entered into force on 6 April 2004, in its chapter XIV, wherein criminal offences against international law were foreseen, has foreseen four articles sanctioning various forms of slavery: establishing slavery, slavery-like conditions and forced labour, Article 137 of the Provisional Criminal Code of Kosovo (PCCK), smuggling of migrants, Article 138 of PCCK, trafficking in persons, Article 139 of the PCCK and withholding identity papers of victims of slavery or trafficking in persons, Article 140 of the PCCK. Because of the entirety that is reviewed this paper, a special significance in the paper is given to the explanation and interpretation of Article 139 of the PCCK, trafficking in human beings.

By analysing and comparing the definition provided in Article 139 of the PCCK with the definition provided in the Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children, we identify 3 constituent elements of this criminal offence: actions, means and the purpose, which are presented as in the definition of Article 139 of the PCCK, as well as in Article 3 of Palermo Protocol, which is recognised as international definition. The two first elements are objective, while the third element is subjective. In order to find guilty and sentence a suspect for committing the criminal offence of trafficking in persons, three of these elements should be present. According to the fourth paragraph of Article 139 of the PCCK, this criminal offence is committed by a person who negligently facilitates the commission of trafficking in persons, whereas according to the fifth paragraph of this article, this criminal offence is considered to be committed by a person who uses the victim of trafficking for sexual service. The qualified forms of the criminal offence of trafficking in persons are foreseen by paragraphs 3, 6 and 7 of the Article 139 of the CCK. Along these serious forms of this criminal offence, I consider that that a more severe form should have been foreseen in cases when trafficking in persons is committed in a way that it causes danger to the life and security of trafficked persons.

Moreover, a more severe form of this criminal offence should be foreseen also the fact that if by a dangerous manner of trafficking in persons death was caused to one or more persons. Foreseeing these two forms, sanctioned by Article 139 of the CCK, by applied a severe punishable policy, would increase the efficiency in fighting and preventing the criminal offence of trafficking in persons.

All of these forms of this criminal offence, foreseen by Article 139 of the PCCK, may be committed by a person with criminal liability, except for the criminal offence foreseen by paragraph 7 of Article 139 of the PCC, which can be committed only by an official person.

With regard to the guilt, all forms of this criminal offence may be committed willingly, the only exception here is the form of the criminal offence foreseen by paragraph 4 of Article 139 of the PCCK, which may be committed as a result of negligence.

Article 139 of the PCCK also foresees criminal sanctions that may be imposed to the perpetrators of all forms of the criminal offence, trafficking in persons, foreseen by the paragraphs of this Article.

If a comparative overview is made to the UNMIK Regulation 4/2001 and Article 139 of the CCK, it is noted that in the Criminal Code of Kosova some articles are not corporate, which have a special significance in fighting and preventing the criminal offence, trafficking in persons, and there is no clarity whether respective articles of the Regulation 4/2001 also after 6 April 2004, when the PCCK entered into force, are applicable. According to the statement of the legal advisor of the SRSG, in the Memorandum 2004 – 01323, a part that is referred to protection and assistance of the victim (Sections 2, 3 and 4) of the UNMIK Regulation No 4/2001, remains applicable, since they were not included in the CCK.
or in the Criminal Procedural Code of Kosovo.\textsuperscript{15}

From the analysis of the provisions of the UNMIK Regulation No 4/2001 and the Article 139 of the PCCK, it comes out that Kosovo should amend and supplement its legislation in fighting and preventing trafficking in persons.

3. Conclusion

Trafficking in persons is still today an extremely concerning criminal phenomenon in all modern societies, including also the Kosovo state. Studies and analyses conducted so far have indicated that there are all form and types of this criminal phenomenon in Kosovo, which are present either with local victims or victims coming from other countries, as well as clients coming from Kosovo or from other countries transforming Kosovo from a transit country into a destination for trafficking in persons. Moreover, it appear that in Kosovo, this criminal phenomenon was present at locations where international bodies were deployed or at locations visited by the employees coming from other countries. Undoubtedly, this is related to the fact of impact by many factors (economic – social, political, educational, etc.) that make such a criminal phenomenon to happen. Eros and sentimental feelings are considered as inner psychological traits and their appearance in the client type of manner using sexual services of victims of trafficking is concerning for the entire modern society, because by trafficking in persons the integrity and dignity of a person is violated. However, this was regulated by the UNMIK Regulation No 4/2001, the Provisional Criminal Code of Kosovo (PCCK), and by other laws, but not directly. Nevertheless, the legislation should be amended by provisions concerning a certain rehabilitation and reintegration of the victims in society, in relation to protection of victims of trafficking, compensation of victims in criminal proceedings, meaning while examining the criminal matter and imposing the sentence to the perpetrator of the criminal offence – trafficking in persons, to decide also on compensation of victims of trafficking, establishment of a public fond to ensure compensation of victims of trafficking and the use of confiscated items in order to raise such a fund. Regulation of the status of victims of trafficking should define the incitement of trafficking in persons as a criminal offence.

The necessity to provide a legal basis for such amendments derived from the international conventions and other acts, such as UN Convention against International Organized Crime, Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children, Framework Decision of the Council of Europe dated 12 July 2002 on Combat against Trafficking in Persons, European Convention on Action against Trafficking in Human Beings of the Council of Europe (2005 CETS No 197).

With regards to the consequences of this criminal phenomenon, of course they are huge consequences, including: psychological, social, ethical, economical and many other consequences.

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Philosophical Didactics: How Creativity Can be Compatible with Critical Thinking

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Abstract

The modernistic model of upbringing emphasizes more cognitive, instrumental competence, and underlines the importance of critical thinking. The postmodern model of upbringing induces more interdisciplinary and creative thinking. The authors of the article raise the following question: is creativity compatible or incompatible with critical thinking? Relying on their own experience of textbooks writing and implementing in practice, the authors of the article are searching for a concordance between these two seemingly different capacities of the human mind and the two models of upbringing. The article deals with the theoretical, methodological and practical aspects of modern and postmodern philosophical didactics and discerns the practical perspectives of their possible conformity.

Keywords: critical thinking, creative thinking, modern didactics, post-modern didactics teaching philosophy

1. The Investigation of the Problem in Lithuanian Academic Discourse

In Lithuanian academic discourse, the specifics of the modern and post-modern approach towards didactics without an emphasis on their opposition were discussed by Lilija Duoblienė. In her textbook Contemporary Philosophy of Education: Towards Reflection and Dialogue (2006), Duoblienė analyzes the main paradigms in the contemporary philosophy of education: pragmatist (John Dewey), existential, phenomenological (Maurice Merleau – Pointy), and analytic (Karl R. Popper), which according to our view could be considered as belonging to the modernistic model of upbringing. On the other hand, Duoblienė discusses the features of the post-modern model of upbringing with emphasis on uncertainty in Jean-François Lyotard and Richard Rorty’s conceptions. When discussing the methods of upbringing, the researcher interfaces modernist (Hans-Georg Gadamer, Paul Ricouer, Martin Buber) and post-modernist (Jacques Derrida, Robin Usher, Richard Edwards) approaches towards educations without discerning the radical distinction between the two. Such an approach by the author perhaps presupposes that postmodern upbringing could be considered as part of the modernist model of education.

In Duoblienė’s monograph Ideological Territories of Educational Change (2011), a consecutive order is also made in turn from the analysis of the modernistic models (pragmatist, constructivist and phenomenological) of education to the creative strategies in education which can be discerned in Michel Foucault’s texts. Duoblienė writes: “The postmodernists are linking the problems of education as well as the problems of all other spheres with the usage of language, its many-sidedness, playfulness and instability. When the attempt to catch the meaning is made, the meaning is always slipping out. So most of the post-modern insights (e. g. by J. -F. Lyotard, J. Derrida) are linked with the text and self-reflection necessary for its reading, also part of them (e. g. by M. Foucault) – with the other social segments: economy, culture and politics, of course, recognizing the practices of regimes and the relations of power in social life” (Duoblienė, 2011: 90). The author also discusses the possibilities and limitations of the usage of Richard Rorty’s vocabulary of ironic language in education. Duoblienė emphasizes not only texts and self-reflection, but also dialogues and metaphors as instruments of post-modern upbringing.

The question thus arises: what could be the relation between the modern and post-modern models of education in teaching philosophy and philosophical ethics? On the other hand, what are the possible theoretical presuppositions on which the features of this relation could be based? What methods could be suggested in the process in philosophy teaching uniting the modern and post-modern approaches? Is the mutual complimentarily of these two approaches possible or at least the discordant harmony of the two?
2. On Traditional and Modern Education

The principles and standards of so-called objective or traditional pedagogy are determined by the theoretical preconditions of scientific thinking that emerge from the theoretical reconstruction of the reality by exact sciences. If reality exists as irrespective of our analysis and of ourselves then scrutinizing and analyzing “scientific” glance does not change the reality at the time of investigation and we may see the reality “as it really is”. This enables us to look at the reality “objectively” – free of any interest or subjectivity. When a scientist seeks for the truth he eliminates himself as a subject from the process of cognition in favor of objective attitude, the objective truth, in favor of the possibility to see the world what it really is rather what it looks like to him. The principle of “eliminating” the subject may also result from the standard (metaphysical, mechanical) construction of a cognitive subject-object opposition when the subject as though stood in front of an objectively, “naturally” existing reality and because of this position the subject seeks to get the objective knowledge of the reality that opposites him.

This mental construction of “self-renunciation” or desubjectifying the subject is realized into objective, traditional pedagogy when a studying person is declared to be the object, the target of the educational, teaching process. A student must be ready to be “taught”, that is to be like a vessel that is being filled in with knowledge. The traditional concept of education is based on the idea of the importance of knowledge: knowledge is declared here to be the greatest and independent value, the objective of the educational process, whereby imperceptibly turning that vessel – a student – of knowledge into an instrument, a means, simply a depository. The exact sciences have refined the tradition of observation of reality turning it into a ‘cinematographic’ mode of registering reality as a constellation of things. The processes of reality are dissolved by the different sciences into the aggregates of fixed facts which are later one turned into things with the help of a whole lot of constructions, methods, instruments and experiments. Sciences teach us to study, analyze, and describe things on the purpose to get results. Processes then seem to take a backstage position, whereas the goals of human activity are now declared its results, but not the activity nor the process itself.

The knowledge is the equivalent of the material, finite, objective world, so it should be no less material and objective as the world itself, so the knowledge may be, like the things of the reality, be handed over, transferred, transported from the one place to another one. The knowledge is treated and measured as the sufficient amount of information about reality with a purpose to change and transform this reality. Knowledge is understood as a tool or as a tool-kit for operating on reality; knowledge was considered to give the beholder a power to react to reality and get the desirable results. Thus the extracting, categorization, storage and transmission of knowledge became the main worries of education. Such a concept of education was based on a material approach to the world and a mechanical and metaphysical understanding of the world. If the world contains finite and definite amount of things, if the world itself is a comprehensible “thing” then the knowledge one can gain about such a world is as well finite (“definite”): one can understand and know the world in a finite way. If such were the case, through knowledge acquisition and learning one would reproduce the constructions of finite things, recreating the existing and objective structures of things by copying or reconstructing them, making copies of things in the form of knowledge. Although these structures can be very complex, their technical reproduction can be considered as finite, because they hold finite information.

“In the field of education theory, such types of material construction of the world corresponds to the classical disjunction between the subject and object of learning understood as teaching or educating. Here, on the one hand there are “educators” who are the subjects or actors, or “those who” organize the process by setting goals, select the tools, and take the responsibilities for the results; on the other, there are the learners or objects – things, or “those to whom” the process is meant as receivers, that is those who within a given frame or education model are modeled, formed and changed (they are taught). The implications of this disjunction of subject and object of the learning process as applied in this education model are such that the subject (“agent”, “actor”) is the teacher, the learner therefore becoming an object. This means that as an object of the process, the learner is, a mere passive and indifferent element with no responsibility for the process of education. The teacher as a subject, as the main manager of process of education is responsible for everything. This model does not leave any room for creativity or originality, but this is not all. What is even more, this model implies the denial of individuality, subjectivity and personal commitment for the results and sense of education” (Degésys 2011: 48).

Many traditional educational systems pretend to declare they are modern. But if the goal of education is the knowledge itself then usually all the “modernity” in education turns into the “modern” methods and principles of categorizing, transmitting, storing, controlling and inspecting knowledge. Contrastingly, in an ever-changing social reality it is not possible to operate with a constant concept of “social thing”. Every attempt to simplify, to construct social reality as a thing, as a constant, fails in the face of changing social reality. You may try to make a copy of a thing, but even in the world of things you may be confused by the question of “how many “true” copies may I gain from the one thing?”. In
the world of social processes, can one make a constant copy of permanently changeable reality? The more complex situation is the less sufficient is a simplification or model. The stereotyping of social reality unavoidably leads to or ends up in a mythologizing of social life. If the social life is interactive and reflective it is unavoidable to be interrelated to other agents and actors of social change. The exploring and learning become the permanent interpretation and re-interpretation of social reality, the reflection of what is going on and the assessment of changes that should be relevant to our changeable social reality.

The concept of modern education is based on the assumption that processes of teaching and learning are implemented in everyday life situations, in the ordinary flow of social reality, in every social activity. Social space requires a constant inter-subjectivity, interactivity, a certain formalization and interpretation of the unceasing social relations and ever-changing interpersonal situations. These learning and teaching processes are inseparably integrated into social activity. Due to the permanent change in the social world it is simply impossible and even meaningless to study and learn only about social standards and operate with social constants. A person who is unable to analyze changing current situations and cannot interpret and re-interpret social factors is simply doomed to an unsuccessful socialization. Furthermore, in a social reality subject to constant changes the capacity to re-set oneself into ever-changing social contexts gains a vital significance. The only rational behavior left as a choice is precisely the ability to gather momentum, perceive the signals from the surrounding social reality and, with the help of analysis and interpretation mechanisms, search for the most successful and appropriate ways to respond to those stimuli and change one’s (teaching or learning) behavior.

If the education process is understood as an inter-subjective communicative act based upon interpersonal relationships, a process that brings forward the standard questions of social recognition and knowledge then the education should be considered as a possibility of self-comprehension, self-education and self-development. Life is a permanent construction and re-construction, programming and re-programming. Deconstruction is a method of vision and interpretation the world, as well as a way of living. It always implies a certain re-construction with the two meanings of this concept: the re-creation of constructions based on reality and the application of these constructions to the recycling of reality, based on the principles of reality.

3. On Teaching and Learning of Critical Thinking as Self-teaching and Meta-learning

The modern education should be considered as a possibility of self-comprehension, self-education and self-development. Life is a permanent construction and re-construction, programming and re-programming. Thus we need new principles and new standards of teaching and learning should that should be based on the modern education program that develops human universality, independent thinking, openness to change and freedom. This educational approach functions as an inseparable possibility to knowledge, understanding and ability. Knowledge grants the possibility to evaluate processes, that is, to raise questions, and look for meaning, and once the person has found it, he/she can form his/her own opinions and attitudes, gain skills, and make rational use of one’s abilities. Teachers should be taught by the same procedures we expect them to use in their teaching. If we expect them not only to act, or not only use this “learning by doing”, if we expect them encourage students to think, we should encourage the trainers in thinking about thinking. We should stress the importance of mental, cognitive acts, but we should stress the importance of meta-cognitive acts (Knowing about knowing of others, remembering that others remember, and so on), and the importance of meta-affective acts (such as willing to love, desiring to desire). If we want teachers to improve their reasoning skills we should encourage them to reason about how they reason, what are the techniques and technologies of improving the reasoning processes. They need the theoretical analysis of phenomena of education that is based on the philosophical works not only by Plato, Jan Amos Comensky, John Dewey, but also by Henry Bergson, Karl R. Popper, Peter L. Berger and Thomas Luckman also on ideas of philosophy of education by Matthew Lipman and Ivan Illich. Principles and concepts of theoretical analysis of basic principles of philosophy such as objectivity, determinism, expedience, distance, theory and metha-theory should be structured and explained in their relationship to the principles of education. The process of education itself should be revealed and explained by the very principles of social communication: as the process of permanent interpretation and re-interpretation of social reality, the reflection of what is going on and assessment of changes that should be relevant to the changeable social reality. Thus in the process of education the teaching and learning is transforming themselves into self-teaching and meta-learning. The process of education should be analyzed as a whole set of very effective and modern methods and principles of education, such as the methods of mental experiment, self-analysis and self-reflection, logical alternative calculation, logical analysis and critical thinking and should be based on such thinking and ethical strategies as empathy, de-centering from the self and moral imagination. The self-learning teacher should know how to teach himself and apart the professional competencies he needs very general competencies – competences of critical
As Duoblienė modern philosophical didactics reflects one of the main features of contemporary culture – its turn towards visual culture. It becomes very important to develop the possibility to raise questions and doubts, and not the necessity to find and provide univocal answers. This possibility can be realized through a meta-relationship - one's own relationship with oneself, and with others. Evidently, these assumptions presuppose permanent, inevitable reflection and a meta-relationship with oneself. Thus reflecting, the individual observes him/herself as the object under analysis and then he/she determines what he/she could and would like to do with him/herself and by him/herself. Emma's child is her child.

In the classical situation of education where there is one educator and others are learners, there is a prevailing passive attitude of observance. One can easily imagine a certain state of expectancy, as the learner passively lets him/herself “be taught, educated”. He/she transfers all the competences of the subject to the “real” educator, a kind of demiurge, organizer or planner. This passive state does not require any subjectivity, responsibility or initiative. In the classical conception of the education process, the responsibility is simply passed on to the one who takes it in order to get out of the learner an expected social product. In the classical conception of the education there seems to be no question about the personalization of the education process: in the objective process of objective knowledge transference knowledge is considered a thing to be transmitted from a material collection of knowledge pieces into the no less material head of the learner who is ready to receive it.

Modern education is inevitably based on the competence for independent thinking. Self-correction and self-education need an ability to decide independently, the ability to test their own theories and verify assumptions, falsify own attitudes and ideas. This is the reason why in the teaching and learning process a specially introduced, visible, controlled and intentional distance is so important: how helpful it is to understand the importance of a meta-theory. A constant analysis and control of the educational situation is inevitable. The education process offers the possibility of continual reflection of the situation under analysis with the introduction of a constant complimentary point of meta-analysis, when one not only observes and discusses what and how it is going on, but also raises the question about the meaning of this specific situation, and about the meaning of the analysis of this question, about the effectiveness of the methods and methodologies used.

Of a great importance in modern education are "unpractical", meta-practical, theoretical, especially meta-theoretical disciplines, that provide not only with specific, “pedagogical” knowledge, but also turn the subject of learning towards itself, disciplines that teach not only knowledge, but teach the ways of acquiring new knowledge, teach, how to learn discipline and how to teach oneself. “Whatever the theory, it must be one based on the concept of self-possession, it has to consist of a self-development principle and as any theory, and it has to contain methods, a methodology, an organizational structure, criteria and principles of analysis of their effectiveness, all of which should match this original principle of self-education” (Degėsys 2011: 57).

4. The Presumptions of Creative Thinking in the Post-modern Philosophical Upbringing

When modern didactics requests methods based on logical analysis and critical and creative thinking, the post-modern didactics enlarges the limits of the intellectual creative imagination and opens up the possibility for poly-semantic, deconstructing and rhizomatic aspects in thinking. These aspects train the flexibility and inventiveness of thinking and the openness to unexpectedness and experiment, and afford the capacities for orientation in changing contexts, enabling the easy trespass of different spheres of thinking and help the students to grasp what the contemporary world is about. Post-modern philosophical didactics reflects one of the main features of contemporary culture – its turn towards visual culture. As Duoblienė writes citing Neil Postman and Marshall McLuhan, the contemporary content of upbringing has to correspond to the contemporary world students are living in. The technologies of this world allow them access to information and to create different structure of thinking, which McLuhan names 'mosaic' (Duoblienė 2011: 10). Post-modern philosophical didactics trains the ability to think upon the world as an expression of different contexts; on the other hand, it gives the principle uniting multiplicity – the world as a secret (Jacques Derrida) and the world as becoming (Gilles Deleuze). The secret and the becoming are not metaphysical and ontological concepts but the limits towards which all the discourses converge. Neither philosophy, nor morality or religion has access to this secret. "Somehow," writes Derrida, “this secret that we speak of but are unable to say is, paradoxically, like good sense in Descartes, the best-shared thing in the world; but it is the sharing of what is not shared: we know in common that we have nothing in common. There may be unlimited consensus on the subject, but the consensus is of no use, since it is a consensus on the fact that the singular is singular, that the other is other, that tout autre est tout autre" (Derrida Ferraris 2002: 59). All discourses (philosophical, literary, theological, etc.) are created as a response to this secret. Postmodern didactics is not looking for one privileged narrative, as an authority in comparison with the ‘smaller’ narratives. Thus the student acquires the status of the creator of any little narrative. The student is encouraged to create his own interpretation on philosophical insights by writing philosophical essays. The orientation of philosophical didactics towards text encourages the erudition.
of students and enlarges their capacities for creative writing, providing them with an intellectual background.

On the other hand, mainly in the framework of such a didactics, the possibility of the meeting between philosophical thinking and existential therapy arises. The aspects that at first seem unimportant and were considered in modern culture as marginal, from the post-modern point of view receive their own value. The criteria and hierarchy giving the more or less value to different phenomena of culture had disappeared for the reason that there is no centre as a point of departure for evaluation. For this reason, the unique student experience has its own independent value. Post-modern thinking does not discriminate as unimportant marginal groups those who lead alternative styles of living, the sexual and ethnic minorities. To George W. F. Hegel’s European orientation, the post-modern approach opposes the equality of ethnic groups and civilizations rather distant from the formal world centre as Europe. As Linda Hutcheon notices, “postmodern art is always aware of difference, difference within any grouping too, difference defined by contextualization and positioning in relation to plural ones” (Hutcheon, 2000: 67). For this reason, post-modern philosophical didactics encourages students to trust in her/his own different experience and respect the other’s unique difference.

Mainly the tolerance for this difference allows philosophical didactics to use a contemporary method of education – the case study. One on the branches of case studies is the writing of philosophical essays.

5. Creative Thinking and the Multiplicity of Ethical Experience in Post-modern Philosophical Ethics

Modern philosophical ethics has a tendency to search for one concept as a priority (for John S. Mill it was happiness, for Immanuel Kant, duty), but post-modern philosophical ethics is based on the supposition that no one single concept can represent the variety and multiplicity of moral experience. This aspect is noticed even by analytic philosophical ethics. The British philosopher Bernard Williams in the book Ethics and the Limits of Philosophy (1993) notices: “If there is such a thing as the truth about the subject matter of ethics – the truth, we might say, about the ethical – why is there any expectation that it should be simple? In particular, why should it be conceptually simple, using only one or two ethical concepts, such as duty or good state of affairs, rather than many? Perhaps we need as many concepts to describe it as we find we need, and no fewer” (Williams 1993: 17).

Following a similar presumption, the Reader of Philosophical Ethics for Forms 11–12 was prepared by Jüratė Baranova (1998, 1999, 2001). The course book is structured through the History of Concepts - Wisdom, Forgiveness, Duty, Suffering, Meaning of Life, Suicide, Responsibility, Freedom, Happiness, Love, Jealousy and Hatred, Woman and Man, Children and Parents, Friendship, and Loneliness. Each topic is structured through the change of the concept from Antiquity to the Philosophy of the twentieth century, keeping in mind that this number of concepts is arbitrary selected, and that the list could and should be enlarged by the students’ own reflections upon their own moral experiences when creating new concepts and their own narratives. Currently, this textbook is being renewed and transformed into two new books: Me and You. Form 10 and Meaning and Freedom. Forms 11-12.

The other step is the deconstruction of concepts as was suggested in Jacques Derrida’s Politics of Friendship (1997). In this book Derrida reflects upon the concept of friendship from a different point of view. Starting from Aristotle’s remark “O, my friends, there is no friend”, quoted by Michel de Montaigne and Friedrich Nietzsche, Derrida by paradox of the phrase (one side of the sentence has plural friends, the other side has zero friends) reveals the different possible contradictions incorporated into the phenomenon of friendship. Reading Cicero, Seneca, Aristotle’s ethics, philosophical philanthropy in Immanuel Kant’s ethics, Friedrich Nietzsche’s Thus Spoke Zarathustra, the works on the problem of Other in Emmanuel Levinas, and the opposition of friend and enemy in Carl Schmitt’s political philosophy, Derrida asks questions which enlarge the understanding of the complexity of ethical experience. The point that Derrida brings to the initial paradox is that there is less friendship the more friends there are. Confronting Aristotle and Cicero, Derrida reveals that the logic of Aristotle’s position is that the fewer the friends, the more the friendship, so that if I am my only friend that is the best friendship as there is no friend. The logic of Cicero’s position is that I am my own best friend, because I am the best double of myself. The other questions raised by Derrida are: what is the connection between friendship and love, friendship and time, friendship and death, how is possible selectivity and universality in friendship? In this process of deconstruction, Derrida questions not friendship or morality, but the reduction of the complex phenomenon on morality to abstract concepts and the supposition that these clear concepts are able to represent the multiplicity of ethical experience, which is more close to the secret than to the concept. “Il y a là le secret”, Derrida wrote (Derrida 1993: 57). “Un geste « d’amitié » ou « de politesse » ne serait ni amical ni poli s’il obéissait purement et simplement à une règle rituelle”, he states in Passions (Derrida, 1993: 21): Instead of the ethics of rituals, principles and imperatives, he suggests the new ethics of deconstruction, based on non-decision (l'inassurance) and inexhaustible possibilities. This ethics avoids the classical clash between fact ("is") and norm ("ought") for the reason that the statement of fact “there is” and imperative of norm “ought to be” is changed to the word “maybe” (« comme »). The acknowledgement that there is no “duty” as a
thing in itself or that there is no responsibility as a thing in itself does not mean that the discourse about the polysemic of these concepts does not provoke new reflections on moral experience. The ability of the students is to raise open questions and see the world as a permanent becoming of new questions.

Following similar suppositions, the other course-book Philosophy for forms 11-12 was also prepared and published by Jūratė Baranova and Tomas Sodeika in 2002. This textbook interweaves texts and images from philosophy, psychology, literature, paintings and movies. The textbook was republished as two new books: Me and It. Forms 10-11 and Philosophy: Man. Form 12. As noticed by Darius Klibavičius (a philosophy teacher at a Jesuit gymnasium in Kaunas who for years used the textbook in lessons with students with good result, as his students participated not only in the national, but also international philosophy Olympiads with honorable mention awards and in the IPO 2014 received bronze medal), there is no common “bookish” truths in this textbook, and for this reason the teacher is obliged to become an active co-author of the textbook. The textbook trains the capacities of interpretative reading with the usage of the meditation of the written text. The meditation method is the input of Tomas Sodeika into philosophical didactics. “In discussion and disputes inevitably we are arguing and the problem becomes split up into parts in order to become clear to all the parts of discussion, but in meditation we do not discuss pro and contra, and the criteria of truthfulness are suspended, but the personal experience unites the meaning of pronounced word and in this inactivity brings it closer to students’ life” (Klibavičius, 2003: 53). As Zenonas Norkus noticed, in writing a review on this textbook, “the uniting of philosophy, poetry, prose and visual art under one cover is an exact response to the Rorty’s ideas and makes the book perhaps the most distinct phenomenon of post-modern literature in contemporary Lithuanian philosophical discourse” (Norkus, 2003: 186). But post-modern suppositions for training creative thinking in this textbook, as well as in the previously discussed one, are combined with a modernist principle of logical sequence. Klibavičius stated that, “although there is a large amount of texts, they are short and different; it is possible to group them very strictly according to topics. They are tastefully grouped, so it is possible to select them according to one’s own opinion regardless of the right way previously stated for primacy. Here, as it suits to philosophical treatise, one can find more references, hints and encouragements than answers” (Klibavičius 2003: 54)

6. The Interdisciplinary Approach and the Openness of Thinking in Post-modern Philosophical Didactics

One of the main features of post-modern philosophical didactics is that it focuses on the interdisciplinary openness of thinking. The methodological approach to the interdisciplinary aspect of philosophical didactics is Gilles Deleuze and Felix Guattari’s experimental thinking. In the book What is philosophy? (Qu’est-ce que la philosophie? 1991) they write: “What defines thought in its three great forms – art, science, and philosophy – is always confronting chaos, laying out a plane, throwing a plane over chaos. But philosophy wants to save the infinite by giving it consistency: it lays out a plane of immanence that, through the action of conceptual personage, takes events or consistent concepts to infinity. Science, on the other hand, relinquishes the infinite in order to gain reference: it lays out a plane of simply undefined coordinates that each time, through the action of partial observers, defines states of affairs, functions, or referential propositions. Art wants to create the finite that restores the infinite: it lays out a plane of composition that, in turn, through the action of aesthetic figures, bears monuments or composite sensations” (Deleuze Guattari 1994: 197). Every path they consider as unique. Three forms of thought could be seen as parallels and intersections, but they do not coincide and are not seen as synthesis. Deleuze and Guattari write: “Philosophy proceeds by sentences, but it is not always propositions that are extracted from sentences in general. At present we are relying only on a very general hypothesis: from sentences or their equivalent, philosophy extracts concepts (which must not be confused with general or abstract ideas), whereas science extracts prospects (propositions that must not be confused with judgments), and art extracts percepts and affects (which must not be confused with perceptions or feelings). In each case language is tested and used in incomparable ways—but in ways that do not define the difference between disciplines without also constituting their perpetual interbreeding” (Deleuze Guattari 1994: 24).

Philosophical passages of the abovementioned textbook Reader of Philosophical Ethics interweave poetry and prose with literature, including passages from the New Testament, and works of psychologists (Sigmund Freud, Erich Fromm). The topic starts with poetry, initiating an interpretative attitude, and finishes with the prose passage which allows the reader to find a certain relationship with the expression of this problem in everyday life. For example, “Jealousy and Hate” begins with Charles Baudelaire’s poem “Reversibility.” It is followed by excerpts from philosophers’ (Socrates, Aristotle, Plutarch, Francis Bacon, Bernard Mandeville, Claude Adrien Helvetius) on the meaning of these two concepts, then psychologists’ (Freud’s, Fromm’s) conceptions are discussed. Finally, the phenomenon is revealed by writer’s August Strindberg’s excerpt from his novel The Confession of a Fool and Andre Maurois’ insights about the ability of love to transcend the personal ego in his novel The Climates of Love. Each topic is composed by the same interdisciplinary
interweaving of philosophy, science, and art, not only in this textbook, but also in the abovementioned *Philosophy* for forms 11-12.

All parts of the textbook are united by the means of a number of the questions which encourage both critical and creative thinking but all these extracts are united into one single consequent narrative. On the other hand, the boundaries of different spheres of culture are dissolved and the methods of post-modern didactics are taken into play. So it happens that this approach unites the modern and post-modern aspects of philosophical didactics in one single project.

Deleuze and Guattari say that the plane of composition of literature and the plane of the immanence of philosophy are able to penetrate into each other in such a manner that a part of one could be composed from the parts of the other. But they never create a synthesis. These parts nevertheless remain heterogeneous. The thinker is able to modify the thinking, include new images of thinking, and establish the new plane of immanence. The creation of concepts could be replaced by insights from poetry, novels, painting or musical works. But the movement in the opposite direction is also possible. Mainly in this "in-between", in this clash of two modes of thinking – between philosophy and literature – the new expression of thought emerges.

7. The Interdisciplinary Approach and Creative Thinking: Philosophy and Visual Arts

Post-modern philosophical didactics open the possibility for intersections not only between thought and image or concept and metaphor, but also the intersection of these two segments with the visual image as well. How can it be possible to use, for example, the paintings of Belgian surrealist René Magritte (1898-1967) in encouraging creativeness of philosophical thought? Magritte proposed an “optimistic” version of surrealism, based not on the unconsciousness or dreams but on the unexpected overturning of reality. His paintings are examples of plausible inversions of formal logic and ordinary meaning, leading in each case to a paradox. Magritte once said: “The sense of exactitude is no obstacle to a pleasure in in-exactitude”. Or again: “The language of authenticity ‘gives the word’ to words by making them say what they never said” (Meuris 1994: 123). Magritte in his painting posted the question of whether words really do have the meaning usually attributed to them in everyday usage. In the picture *The Key to Dreams* it is clearly recognizable that you are confronted with definitions which are, on the face of it, inappropriate. There is then clearly a desire to use pictures as a means of confusion where the received definitions are concerned. Magritte’s pictures were the subject of numerous philosophical interpretations, especially by Michel Foucault. Following his essay *Les mots et les choses*, he wrote another entitled *Ceci n’est pas une pipe* (1973). Magritte responded to it with two letters. It is quite clear that the most obvious, and simplest, explanation lies in the observation that the picture of a pipe is nothing other than the representation of a smoker’s accessory and cannot itself be used for smoking. “But equally it throws the gates wide open to paradox an aporia (aporia being “a difficulty arising from an awareness of incompatible views on the same theoretic matter”). For the viewer of this painting, the object represented clearly is a pipe, no doubt about it. And why should this pipe not be a pipe? For the same reason that the word “dog” doesn’t bark, as William James has observed <...>” (Meuris 1993: 129).

Being a painter, Magritte used to experiment with the established order of people’s limited possibilities at the same time as if asking the main philosophical question stated by Kant “How would it be if...?” How would it be if the painter were able to paint the other person not only in the picture, but also in reality as well? (Attempting the Impossible, 1928). How would it be if the person, instead of only having two hands, were able to have four? (The Magician, 1952). How would it be if one’s head would shine as if it were the sun? (The Pleasure Principle: Portrait of Edwards James, 1937). How would it be if one were able to observe the world not as one usually does, but with eyes in the back of the head? (The Glass House, 1939). How would it be if in lying near the sea one were to suddenly feel that a part of one’s body is going to be a part of the fish? (Collective invention, 1934). How would it be if one’s image in the mirror were reflected not as a face but as the back of one’s head? (Reproduction Prohibited: Portrait of Edward James, 1937). The intellectual intrigue encoded into the plot of the picture could become an equivalent to the philosophical question and by this turn to become a visual possible means for encouraging flexible abstract thinking. When interpreting the pictures as puzzles created by Magritte in such a manner, it is possible to remember the thought expressed by Derrida in one of his interviews, when he said that it is important not only the events that happen to us but the events that never happened as well. Magritte it seems would have added: what are important also are the events that never could have had happen at all. By critically analyzing and reflecting upon this impossibility, students develop the ability to more deeply understand the aspects of possibility as such and to grasp the features of the real world.

How is it possible to include moving pictures as movies into the philosophy teaching curriculum? Since 2004 the program “Cinema in my school” provided in the Lithuanian schools has emphasized the cinema art more as a technological expression of moving image.

From the perspectives of post-modern didactics, cinema can be included into the curriculum as a means to training...
the critical as well as creative aspects of thought. Sometimes the movies could be used as an illustration of philosopher's lives, as, for example, The Last Days of Immanuel Kant by Philippe Collin and André Scala (1993), Nietzsche’s Days in Turin (2001), by Júlio Bressane Les Amants Du Flore (2006) by Duran Cohen; or Sartre, l'âge des passions (2006) by Claude Goretta. Sometimes movies could be used as a visual illustration of certain philosophical novels such as Albert Camus’s Stranger (1967), adapted to cinema by Lucino Visconti or Jean Paul Sartre’s play The Proud and the Beautiful (1953) by Yves Allégret, No Exit (1953) by Jacqueline Audry or The Condemned of Altona (1962) by Vittorio De Sica. One of the productive usages is the case when a fictional movie or documentary were created as an encounter not only with the philosopher’s life, but his conception as well, as, for example, what happened in Wittgenstein (1993) by Derek Jarman, or the documentary Derrida (2002) created by Kirkby Dick and Amy Ziering Kofman.

But does cinema have something to do with encouraging critical and creative thinking? Cinema in philosophical didactics can be used as a provocation for thought experiment.

Some philosophers state that movies are not an explicit illustration of philosophy, but they could encourage us to philosophize by suggesting thought experiments in the same manner as Plato suggested thought experiments in the allegory of the Rock. So it is possible to use the movie The Matrix by the Wachowski brothers as a possible thought experiment in comparison with Descartes skepticism. Goodenough notices: “This set of dark science-fiction fantasies provides a graphic illustration of a number of philosophical issues. Our hero, Neo, is awakened from his everyday life to discover that that life was in fact a computer programme; in reality, his body – together with those of almost all other human beings in the world – was being kept unconscious by the machines that have now taken over the world. The Matrix is a shared life-programme generated by the machines and fed to these bodies, giving them a consistent dream that they take to be everyday life. Such a film appeals to some long-standing philosophical problems; to the difference between appearance and reality, to questions of solipsism, of the nature of dreaming, and so on. It illustrates certain moves in Descartes’ methodological skepticism in the Meditations, adapts Putnam’s brain-in-a-vat case, and relates to Nozick’s experience-machine” (Goodenough 2005: 2).

Jonas Dagys and Nerijus Milerius, Lithuanian philosophers from Vilnius University, created twelve videos titled Classical and Contemporary Issues/Problems of Philosophy (Klasikinės ir šiuolaikinės filosofijos problemas), which could be used in teaching philosophy as an interdisciplinary subject for the reason that in this project philosophers, anesthetists, physicists, film directors, etc., are discussing from their own perspectives the problems of existence, nature, goodness, beauty, language, daily life, time, freedom, consciousness, justice, truth and faith.

A turn in Modern Western philosophy towards the visualization made an impact on the didactic attitude of the Department of Philosophy at the Lithuanian University of Educational Sciences as well. References to films are introduced next to art reproductions. For example, in analyzing the topics “Person and Body,” the film The Double Life of Veronique (La double vie de Véronique), directed by Krzysztof Kieslowski, is suggested for consideration of the problem of personal identity from the open perspective of philosophers, writers and film makers.

What is the mission of cinema in comparison to other arts in training the students’ thought experience? Russian director Sergej Eisenstein would had have said: in the path from the image to thought there is a shock or vibration, which must give rise to a thought in a thought; afterwards there is a movement from thought to image and some kind of internal monologue (rather than in a dream) capable of giving us a shock again. Antonin Artaud, although differently than Eisenstein, considers that what cinema advances is not the power of thought but its “impower”, nevertheless considers the thought its main purpose. Deleuze, as if following Jean-Louis Schefer’s idea, expressed in the book Common man in cinema (L’homme ordinaire du cinéma): “it is suspension of the world, rather than movement, which gives the visible to thought, not as its object, but as an act which is constantly arising and being revealed in thought: ‘no that it is here a matter of thought become visible, the visible is affected and irremediably infected by the initial incoherence in thought, this inchoate quality’ (Deleuze 1985: 161-162). Deleuze agrees with them say, “it is true that bad cinema (and sometimes good) limits itself to a dream state or imaginary participation. But the essence of cinema – which is not the majority of films – has thought as its higher purpose, nothing but thought and its functioning” (Deleuze 1985: 163).

8. Conclusion

Critical and creative thinking are the aims of different sorts of philosophical didactics. Modern philosophical didactics emphasizes logical aspects of critical thinking and post-modernism uses the interdisciplinary and inter-textual approach to encourage creative thinking. Our conclusion is that these two didactics could work not necessarily in opposition but as complementary to each other for the following reasons:

- Both modern and post-modern philosophical didactics are orientated to one goal – to the training of the becoming of thought;
Both modern and post-modern didactics emphasize the training of student reflectivity as a process and not a definite goal; Both modern and post-modern didactics are inclined to train cosmopolitan and civic society values; Final conclusion: both modern and post-modern didactics differ by the utilized methods but not in the understanding of the content of education. Their possible coordination would have created a more poly-semantic field for the possible training of students’ thinking.

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Are the Malaysian Adolescents’ Behavior At-Stake?

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Abstract

This study explored attributes of at-risk behaviors amongst Malaysian adolescents in secondary school and factors underpinning these behaviors. Clustered random sampling procedure was administered and approximately 738 respondents’ questionnaires were finally considered for the final analyses of the data collected. A survey form which comprised demographic variables, types of at-risk behaviors and factors affecting them was pilot-tested and administered. Descriptive statistics (namely mean scores and standard deviations) was employed to describe the demographic variables related to Malaysian adolescents and types of at-risk behaviors prevalent among Malaysian adolescents. Inferential statistics (Anova and t-tests) were administered for comparing gender, age, and location – urban versus rural, family SES differences as regard to the type of at-risk behaviors prevalent. Findings based on the descriptive statistic and inferential statistics indicated that incidences of at-risk behaviors such as substance abuse, alcohol consumptions, suicide ideations and attempts, pre-marital sex, teen pregnancy and abortion, runaways were minimal and not alarming. Findings from this study shed light on the importance of developing intervention strategies which involved all quarters namely; parents, school, society and positive portrayal of adolescents’ image and icons via media in our attempt to improve the life quality of adolescents.

Keywords: Adolescence, at-risk behaviours, smoking habits and substance abuse, suicide ideations and attempts, premarital sex orientation, abortion, runaways.

1. Introduction

Every child develops at different rate and phase in his or her life. Child’s development is very much influenced by the elements of “nature versus nurture” i.e. developmental aspects which are very much influenced by his/her genetic make-up and as well as the environment he/she grew in. Findings from research have also indicated that children from the baby boomer’s period are different from the generation X and generation Y children. (Jackson, 2012; McKay, 1997).

Children from the baby boomer’s period were said to be highly disciplined and displayed good working ethics and motivation to work. Children from generation X were said to be highly dependent and children from generation Y were known to be playful and least accountable for their own doings. Based on these observations, it is possible to deduce that the “nature versus nurture” debate truly has strong influence in shaping contemporary children’s behavior, attitude, perception and mentality.

Parenting style is also a notable aspect of “nurture” which very much shapes the children to become either responsible or irresponsible adults in their later years. Their early childhood experiences may shape them to become
Many of the 20th through the 21st centuries children were left to thrive on their own and labelled as “latch-key kids”. Unready for many things but involuntarily forced to pull their way through adolescence and adulthood. From the psychological point of view, adolescence is known as the period of “storm and stress”. This is the stage where adolescents experience rapid physical development and hormonogenal changes.

According to Santrock (2011), adolescents experience pressure from both external and internal sources. They also crave for recognition, love and attention from significant others. Their inability to cope with problems and to delay their gratifications would result in hasty and bad decision-makings. When confronted with severe problems, they become suicidal, turn to substance abuse, involve in gangsterism, addicted to pornography, engage in illegal racing (motorcycle/car), human trafficking and vandalism.

All these may lead children to commit immoral offences such as sodomy or unconsented sexual intercourse (rape, incest or molestation). For example, a boy was found a leader of an illegal group in his school and the girl was found sexually active with adults outside school hours. There were phase two students from a primary school in the Klang Valley. This case study was conducted for IIUM action research subject for counseling students. This scenario was captured unintentionally by the researchers during the group dynamic.

Such an alarming rate of social misconduct creates awareness and concern among educators, education administrators and policy-makers. In line with the country’s ten years Education Blueprint strategies, the Daily School Management Division (Ministry of Education) collaborated with IIUM researchers and undertaken a study related to at-risk behavior among Malaysian secondary school students.

The aim of the study is to identify types of at-risk behaviors among secondary school adolescents and to examine attributing factors of this social misconduct.

A survey on the adolescents’ behavior issue were examined for the purpose of this study. Clustered sampling procedure will be applied in five zones throughout Malaysia. Data were examined via descriptives and inferential statistics.

2. The Purpose of the Current Study

In the context of this study, the alarming rate of social misconduct (i.e., suicide ideation and teen rape cases) has raised awareness and concern among Malaysian parents, educators, education administrators and policy-makers and non-governmental organizations (NGOs). In line with the country’s ten years Education Blueprint strategies (year 2013-2025) and the national philosophy of education, the Ministry of Education has stepped in and aspired to develop the students holistically. The main objective of this paper to explore the current truth related to adolescents’ at-risk behaviors in secondary schools throughout the country and to highlight these findings to the appropriate parties concerned for further action.

3. Problem Statement and Justifications

The rise of at-risk behaviours namely substance abuse, suicide ideation and premarital sex engagement among the Malaysian youths is a new pattern of life in Malaysia which requires new body of information. Minimal empirical research and information related to the above matter in the Malaysian context need to be addressed seriously so to as to minimise or at least to bring the youth social problems to a standstill. Our inability to address and ease the problem will result in massive loss of potential human capital for the future. Empirical data related to understanding adolescent’s developmental crises in Malaysia is still minimal, thus this study aimed at addressing this gap and intended to examine the Malaysian adolescents’ developmental needs and related emerging issues.

The objectives of this study are:

1. To identify the highly at-risk behaviors of Malaysian lower secondary school students. (items: 41 – 105)
2. To investigate the contributing factors towards the highly at-risk behaviors among Malaysian Lower secondary school students.
3. To examine significant differences in terms of at-risk behaviors as regard to the following demographic variables:
   a. Gender
   b. Age
   c. Family SES
d. Student’s background (urban versus rural)

4. Research Questions

1. What are the at-risk behavior found among Malaysian lower secondary school pupils?
2. What are the contributing factors towards the rise of highly at-risk behaviors among Malaysian lower secondary school pupils.
3. Are there significant differences with respect to at-risk factors as regard to the following:
   a. Gender
   b. Age
   c. Family SES
   d. Student’s background (urban versus rural)
   e. Parents’ marital statuses

5. Literature Review

There was an alarming increase of crime rate among adolescents in Malaysia (Ting, 2011). These socially unacceptable behaviors are becoming a concern of every sector at governmental and individual level for they disrupt the society in many ways (Mey, 2010; Kassim, 2006). In Malaysia, more efforts have been exerted to curb the situation, however, fewer studies have been conducted to explore highly at-risk misconducts or behaviors among adolescents so that counselors, teachers or psychologists alike may address them proactively and appropriately (Mey, 2010).

Numerous studies have identified that, successful counseling programme is needed in preventing at-risk behaviors among the youth in order to guide them to be more productive and functional members of the society (Chaih & Baharudin, 2012; Hishinuma, Johnson, Kim, Nishimura, Makini, Andrade, Yates, Goebert, Mark, Mayeda, & Revilla, 2005). Youths’ inability to abandon their negative behaviors may impede the learning process and results in school dropout eventually (Morton, Crump, Haynie & Saylor, 1999; Mey, 2010; Ting, 2011).

Statistics has shown that, from the year 2000 through 2007, numerous light and heavy offenses have been committed by students in Malaysian schools (Malaysia Department of Social Welfare, 2006; Malaysia Ministry of Education, 2008) namely: drug abuse (Malaysia Anti-Drug Association, 2005), pornography, impoliteness, destructive behavior, inappropriate dressing, truancy (Mey, 2010), rude and aggressiveness, crime, hooliganism, indecent behaviors, and vandalism (Malaysia Department of Statistics, 2007) to name a few.

A study on Malaysian adolescence and violence in one of the Malaysian states indicated that they were mostly involved in physical fights, injured in fights and carried weapons (Lee, Chen, Lee, & Kaur, 2007).

Moral decadence and delinquency were not only limited or confined to Malaysian youths but are globally prevalent. Theoretically, authors have demonstrated that, the drastic surge of problem behaviors namely; substance use, school misconduct and delinquency during adolescence are the national concern in many societies (Morton, Crump, Haynie & Saylor, 1999; Dryfoos, 1990; Feldman and Elliot, 1990; USDHHS, 1991; Takanashi, 1993).

Empirically, cross-cultural studies conducted in U.S which compared U.S, Australian and Asian youths regarding behavior disorders revealed that, youth in the United States and Australia engaged in more misconduct than those in Asia (Greenberger, Chen, Beam, Wang, & Dong, 2000; Jessor, Turbin, Costa, Dong, Zhang & Wang, 2003; Weisz, Chaiyasit, Weiss, Eastman & Jackson, 1995). A study carried out among Hong Kong youth found that those who were more westernized involved in greater misconduct (Cheung-Blunden & Juang, 2008) as opposed to those who embraced traditional lifestyle.

Anti-social behaviors in tender age almost transpire due to the fact that adolescents are searching for their identity and autonomy. This requires them to struggle with the transitional stage from childhood to adulthood (Mey, 2010).

From the developmental psychology perspectives, adolescence is seen as a period of “storm and stress”. It involves biological, cognitive, socio-emotional (Ting, 2011), and psychological transformation (Ozer, Macdonald & Irwin, 2002; Arredondo, 2003; Reinhzer, Paradis, Giaconia, Stashwick & Fitzmaurice, 2003; White, 2004; Papathanasiou & Lahana, 2007). These changes vary widely in timing and tempo (Brooks-Gunn, Petersen, Eichorn, 1985; Feldman and Elliot, 1990).

Adolescence is a stage where adolescents experience rapid physical development and hormonogenal changes. According to Santrock (2011) adolescents at this stage, experience pressure from both external and internal sources. Their inability to delay their gratifications and to cope with pressures would result in unexpected and premature hasty
problem solving and abrupt decision-making. Examples of which are; suicide ideation or attempts, motivated to be sexually active, engage in substance abuse, opts truancy or commit heavy sexual offences namely; sodomy or unconsented sexual intercourse (rape, incest or molestation) or extortion.

Since, adolescent’s highly at-risk behavior has been identified as being too costly to the nation, an impediment to education, society and the country as a whole, it would be worthwhile to identify and understand the factors that underlie their misconduct and to identify effective interventions which have been found instrumental by researchers in recent years. This vital information will be instrumental to all stakeholders namely; the Malaysian Ministry of Education, policy makers, school counselors and educators alike.

6. Adolescents and Highly At-Risk Behaviors

Review of existing literature suggested that multiple factors predict highly at risk behaviors of adolescents. Kassim, (2006) stated that:

“The increase in criminal misconduct among adolescents is influenced by several factors particularly involving those directly involved with adolescent development such as parents, the school, the family, social institutions, the community and the government” (p.2).

7. Youth Socialization and Engagement


8. Parenting Styles and Family Conflicts

Empirical studies have shown that parental monitoring buffered problem behavior (Barnes, Hoffman, Welte, Farrell, & Dintcheff, 2006), while poor parenting practices (Blumstein, Farrington, & Moitra, 1985; Hoge, Andrews & Leschied, 1994; Klein, Forehand, Armistead, Long, 1997) were found to be related to adolescent misconduct. In addition, research shows that, family mismanagement was reported to be highly correlated with male misconduct during adolescence and a predictive of criminality that continued into adulthood (Loeber & Dishion, 1983).

Studies based on Bandura’s theory indicated that conduct disorder/immoral behavior is hereditary. On one hand, it is also possible that adolescents will emulate/imitate these behaviors as a result of experiences with their environment. For instance, a young boy who always sees his father battering his mother would be more than likely to become an abusive parent and husband in the future (Lai, 2011; Siegel, 1992).

Replicated or experimental studies found that adolescents with conduct disorder came from families with significant lower levels of interconnection (Haddad, Barocas, & Hollenbeck, 1991) and families with conduct disorder adolescents have higher levels of aggression (Dadds, Sanders, Morrison, & Regbetz, 1992; Fendrich, Weissman, & Warmer, 1991; Lai, 2011).

According to David and Murphy (2004), the more children are exposed to their parents’ marital conflicts, incompatible personality, relationship dissatisfaction and even violence the most they would develop negative personality traits such as aggressiveness, impulsivity, negative attitude towards school or academic achievement, experience peer rejection and exposure to delinquent behaviors.

9. Peer Influence

Findings from studies conducted among U.S., Korean and Chinese youths showed that bad companionship results in more adolescent misbehavior (Greenberger, Chen, Beam, Wang & Dong, 2000). It was also found that close friend’s misconduct was found to be positively associated with adolescents’ serious trouble with the law and aggressive symptoms (Hishinuma, Johnson, Kim, Nishimura, Makini, Andrade, Yates, Goebert, Mark, Mayeda, & Revilla, 2005). Peer group influence has also been found as a predictor of social misconduct among adolescents and juveniles (Kassim, 2006).
10. Spiritualism and Morality

Fewer studies have examined the importance of spirituality or in depth understanding of religious knowledge which may impede juvenile delinquency (Kassim, 2006). In some studies, full involvement in religious activities buffers the chance to engage in violence or misbehavior (Herrenkohl, Tajima, Whitney and Huang, 2005).

11. Other Predictors of Misconduct Identified

Poverty and mental disorder are said to have caused social problems among juveniles (Kassim, 2006). Delinquency may be attributed by; conflict with the authority, cognitive distortions, personality disorders, and most common than not juvenile’s socioeconomic status (Santrock, 2008).

Other common factors namely; lack of social skills, low social competency, low academic achievement, negative attitudes toward school and lack of parental guidance have commonly been identified as highly at-risk factors for causing problem behavior among juveniles (Hawkins and Weis, 1985; Dryfoos, 1990; Steinberg, 1990; Schinke, Botvin, Orlandi, 1991).

12. Methodology

This study will employ qualitative and quantitative research methods; using survey, focus group interview and observation in collecting the data. Result from the survey will be discussed in series of focus group workshops for improvement. While for the open-ended interview data gained from counselors and clients will be triangulated. Sample will be chosen using multi stages clustered sampling procedure in all states throughout Malaysia. The sample will cover rural and urban area, minority and at risk students (remote area, orang asli and students with special needs).

13. Sampling Procedure

The targeted population the study intends to generalize its findings is Lower Secondary School students in Malaysia. This population will include all Form Two students in Lower Secondary Schools in the northern, central, southern, and eastern zones of Peninsular Malaysia and also the Sabah and Sarawak zones.

The sample representing the Form Two student's population will be selected using the random sampling procedure. Random sampling procedure has been chosen to increase generalizability through a good cross-section of the population which is truly representative of the population. Representative sampling enables the researcher to generalize and make claims of knowledge about the population. According to Gay and Airasian (2006) samples should be as large as possible; in general, the larger the sample, the more representative it is likely to be, and the more generalizable the results of the study are likely to be.

The sampling in this study will be collected via the multi-staged clustered sampling procedure at the institutional level and followed by convenient sampling procedures during visits to the institutions to meet the respondents. In this study the targeted Form Two students were selected based on the randomization of parliamentary constituencies of each state and later narrow down to northern, middle, southern, east coast states and East Malaysia zones. From each constituency, three rural and three urban schools were selected.

The current total enrollment of secondary school students from West and East Malaysia is 2,299,669 (Ministry of Education Malaysia, 2013). Based on Krejcie and Morgan (1970) if the total population is 1,000,000, hence the sample size recommended is 384 respondents. However due to students' diversity in this country, problems related to form's completion and the return rate are critical, hence this study has identified randomly 60 schools throughout Malaysia, and has selected 1,500 secondary school students to participate in this study. Kindly refer to the schools listed in Appendix E.

Selection in each zone is based on several important features; that is urban and rural schools; types of schools (A, B and C), students' population as representativeness is given a priori.

As for the second level of data collection, open-ended interview sessions (via prepared interview protocols) with selective school counselors will be conducted. In the multi-staged clustered sampling procedure, schools in all states of Malaysia will be considered as the population to be studied. located in the northern, middle, southern, eastern zones as well as schools in east Malaysia will be taken into consideration. The sample will be representative in terms of school location (both rural and urban schools), minority and at risk students (remote area, orang asli and students with special needs).
14. Pilot Study

A pilot study was conducted in November 2012 and a secondary school in the Klang Valley was identified. Approximately 81 participants participated in the pilot study. The items in the questionnaire use differing Likert scales for different constructs measured by this study. The pilot study yields astounding reliability estimates except for suicide ideations and attempts. Most of the major constructs used Likert scale of 1 (strongly disagree) through 5 (strongly agree). Table 1 tabulates the individual reliability estimates of each construct measured. The alpha values ranged from as a low of 0.52 through a high of 0.98.

Table 1: Pilot study Internal Reliability Estimates of Constructs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Highly at-risk behaviors constructs</th>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Internal Reliability Estimates</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Substance Abuse (Tobacco, alcohol, drugs and related reasons)</td>
<td>41 through 62</td>
<td>.801</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Suicide ideation / suicide attempts</td>
<td>63 through 71</td>
<td>.818</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Runaways and related reasons</td>
<td>77 through 90</td>
<td>.875</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex, pregnancy, abortion and related reasons</td>
<td>91 through 102</td>
<td>.984</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

15. Instrumentation

An instrument has been developed which is known as the Highly At-Risk Behaviors Questionnaire (a questionnaire to gauge adolescents highly at-risk behaviors) – HARBQ. Approximately 1,500 questionnaires were posted to 60 schools (with the urban and rural features selected randomly) throughout Malaysia. 800 questionnaires were returned through snail mail but only 738 questionnaires were finally considered for analysis due to the completion of the information found in the questionnaires.

The original questionnaire had 94 items and was administered on secondary public schools located in the urban and rural areas of Peninsula Malaysia, Sabah and Sarawak. These questionnaires were sent through snail mail (Poslaju service) to these schools together with an enclosed Poslaju envelope. However, for the purpose of this paper only the demographic items and at-risk behaviors items (41-94) were analyzed and tabulated in the tables and figures.

16. Data Collection

In the context of this study, stratified multistage sampling procedure has been identified. For instance if we were to do a national survey of adolescent’s highly at-risk behaviors, stratified sampling would first be used to select the urban, semi urban and rural geographical school locations for study.

In this study, the states in Malaysia will be classified randomly as the following: Northern states (Perlis, Kedah and Pualau Pinang); Central states (Perak, Selangor and Wilayah Persekutuan Kuala Lumpur); Southern states (Negeri Sembilan, Melaka and Johor); Eastern states (Kelantan, Terengganu and Pahang) and East Malaysian states (Sabah and Sarawak). Data will be collected from the aforementioned zones. The total population came from the number of secondary school students enrolled early in 2013. In the second stage, the secondary schools were assigned according to zones. In the third stage, 60 schools were randomly drawn from these zones and 1,500 students were identified. Finally 25 boys and 25 girls were selected from each school to participate in this study.

Table 2: Data Analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No. Research Question</th>
<th>Statistical Analysis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 What are the at-risk behaviors found among Malaysian lower secondary school pupils?</td>
<td>Descriptives (Means, Standard Deviations), Percentages.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 What are the contributing factors towards the rise of highly at-risk behaviors among Malaysian lower secondary school pupils.</td>
<td>Linear Multiple Regression Analysis (MRA)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Are there significant differences in terms of at-risk behaviors as regard to:</td>
<td>Anova &amp; t-tests</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a. Gender</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. Age</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. Students’s Location (urban versus rural)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d. Family SES</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e. Family types</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
17. Justification

It is fervently hoped that findings from this study may shed some light on the current situation of highly at-risk behaviors among secondary school students in this country. The findings will be instrumental to both the Ministry of Education Malaysia and as well as the School Counseling Unit and help identify their strengths and weaknesses. The strengths of the counseling units may be recorded and emulated by other counselors and they may further react or respond to the grey areas identified by this study.

18. Findings

The number of schools met the targeted 95% of the confidence interval. Several respondent’s demographic variables were identified namely: age, gender, mother tongue, religions, home address, type of home, parents’ marital statuses, siblings, stay with siblings, stay with grandparents, marital status, frequency of communicating with mom, frequency of communicating with dad, raised by both parents, closer to either parent.

The response rate is equivalent to 74.7%. According to Diem (2003) 50-60% of response rate is classified as an acceptable return rate for any survey research. Babbie (1989) mentioned that if the return rate is 50% it is then considered adequate, 60% of response rate is considered good and the response rate of 70% is considered as very good. Thus, this allows the researchers to proceed with the data analysis.

19. Demographic Variables

The following are the demographic characteristics of the respondents of the study undertaken. Table 3 tabulates the age range of the respondents who completed the entire questionnaire. Comparatively the respondent’s age ranged from as young as 13 through 17 years old. Apparently majority of the respondents were 15 (230) years old, 14 years old (193), 17 years old (142), 16 years old (91) and the least was 13 years old (82).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographic Variables</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age Range</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>11.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>193</td>
<td>26.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>230</td>
<td>31.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>12.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>19.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>738</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grand Total</td>
<td>738</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4 tabulates the gender break down of the respondents’ gender whose questionnaires were finally analysed. The difference between male and female respondents were 102.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Respondent’s Gender</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>304</td>
<td>41.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>406</td>
<td>55.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing (9)</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>3.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G. Total</td>
<td>738</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Comparatively, there were more females 406 (55.0%) as opposed to males 304 (41.2%). These breakdown of gender is basically based on the number completed items found in the questionnaires.

Table 5 depicts the respondents’ mother tongue. Apparently, the respondents mostly spoke the national language, Bahasa Malaysia 523 (70.9), followed by the Chinese dialect 131 (17.8%), other ethnic languages 24 (3.1), and Tamil speakers 22 (3.0).
Table 5: Respondent’s Mother Tongue

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mother Tongue</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Malay Language</td>
<td>523</td>
<td>70.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English Language</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>1.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chinese Language</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>17.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tamil Language</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>3.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>3.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing (9)</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>3.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>738</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6 depicts the respondents’ belief system. Majority of the respondents were Muslims 510 (69.1), followed by Buddhist 138 (18.7), Hindu 19 (2.6), free thinkers 9 (1.2), and others 57 (7.7).

Table 6: Respondent’s Religion

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Religion</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Islam</td>
<td>510</td>
<td>69.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Buddhist</td>
<td>138</td>
<td>18.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hindu</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>2.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Free thinker</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>7.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing (9)</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>738</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Accordingly, Table 7 tabulates the respondents’ parental marital statuses. Comparatively 648 (87.8) of the respondents’ parents were still married, 52 (7.0) of the respondents’ parents were divorced, 10 (1.4) of the respondents’ parents were separated, and finally 12 (1.6) of the respondents’ parents cohabitated.

Table 7: Respondent’s Parental Marital Status

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parental Status</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>648</td>
<td>87.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Divorced</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>7.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Separated</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>1.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cohabitate</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>1.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing (9)</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>2.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>738</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

20. Findings

This section addressed the research questions formulated for this paper and the results were discussed and tabulated in several tables which were as follow:

1. What are the at-risk behaviors identified among the Malaysian lower secondary school students?

Descriptive statistics namely frequency counts and percentages were employed to address this questions. Tables 8, 9, 10 respectively displayed information on at-risk behaviors related to smoking patterns; alcohol and substance abuse; speeding, suicide ideation and attempt, eating disorder; and premarital sex orientation as perceived by respondents. Respondents’ rating ranged from “Strongly Disagree” (SD) - “1”, “Disagree” – 2, “Agree” – 3, and the highest point “Strongly Agree” (SA) is “5” respectively. Negative statement was recoded for the ease of analysing.
Table 8: Smoking Patterns

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>SA</th>
<th>Mean (X)</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I have smoked before</td>
<td>624 (54.5)</td>
<td>51 (6.9)</td>
<td>44 (6.0)</td>
<td>19 (2.6)</td>
<td>1.55</td>
<td>1.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I started smoking at the age of less than 13 years old with one or two puffs only</td>
<td>644 (87.2)</td>
<td>51 (6.9)</td>
<td>31 (4.2)</td>
<td>12 (1.6)</td>
<td>2.52</td>
<td>2.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I smoked more than 20 sticks of cigarette within the last 30 days.</td>
<td>653 (88.5)</td>
<td>23 (3.1)</td>
<td>45 (6.1)</td>
<td>17 (2.3)</td>
<td>2.50</td>
<td>2.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I smoked cigarette everyday</td>
<td>722 (97.8)</td>
<td>10 (1.4)</td>
<td>5 (0.70)</td>
<td>1 (0.10)</td>
<td>4.34</td>
<td>3.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have no intention to quit smoking</td>
<td>679 (92.0)</td>
<td>20 (2.7)</td>
<td>20 (2.7)</td>
<td>18 (2.3)</td>
<td>2.62</td>
<td>3.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I did buy cigarette within the last 30 days</td>
<td>709 (96.1)</td>
<td>9 (1.2)</td>
<td>6 (1.8)</td>
<td>14 (1.9)</td>
<td>2.55</td>
<td>3.09</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

n = 738

As regard to smoking habits among students, majority of the students surveyed indicated “SD” and “Disagree” on almost all items related to it. However, a small number of students; 63 (8.6%) indicated “Agree” and “Strongly Agree” on the item “I have smoked beforehand” compared to 693 (61.4%). Comparatively 732 (99.2%) of the students indicated they “Never” and “Seldom” smoked cigarette every day. With regard to item “I have bought cigarette for the last 30 days”, about 718 (97.3%) respondents indicated “strongly disagree” and “disagree”. Approximately 699 (3.62%) students surveyed indicated their intention to stop smoking despite the fact that the item is negatively worded.

Table 9: Alcohol and Substance Abused

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>SA</th>
<th>Mean (X)</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I have consumed alcohol beforehand</td>
<td>686 (92.9)</td>
<td>17 (2.3)</td>
<td>15 (2.0)</td>
<td>18 (2.4)</td>
<td>1.50</td>
<td>1.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I started drinking alcohol since I was 13 years old.</td>
<td>667 (90.5)</td>
<td>33 (4.5)</td>
<td>21 (2.8)</td>
<td>16 (2.2)</td>
<td>1.50</td>
<td>1.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I had a can of alcohol since the last 30 days</td>
<td>643 (87.1)</td>
<td>48 (6.5)</td>
<td>28 (3.8)</td>
<td>19 (2.6)</td>
<td>1.59</td>
<td>1.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I had too much of alcohol since the last 30 days</td>
<td>632 (85.5)</td>
<td>51 (6.9)</td>
<td>31 (4.2)</td>
<td>21 (2.8)</td>
<td>1.59</td>
<td>1.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I did buy alcoholic drink for the last 30 days</td>
<td>674 (91.5)</td>
<td>29 (3.9)</td>
<td>19 (2.6)</td>
<td>15 (2.0)</td>
<td>1.51</td>
<td>1.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have used inhalant drugs beforehand (sniff)</td>
<td>677 (91.7)</td>
<td>28 (3.8)</td>
<td>16 (2.2)</td>
<td>17 (2.3)</td>
<td>1.51</td>
<td>1.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have used hallucinating drugs beforehand.</td>
<td>684 (92.6)</td>
<td>24 (3.3)</td>
<td>11 (1.5)</td>
<td>19 (2.6)</td>
<td>1.53</td>
<td>1.78</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Pertaining to the issue of alcohol consumption among the students, most of the students surveyed had indicated “Never” and “Seldom” on all items. However, a small number of students indicated that they “Always” and “Sometimes” on item “I have consumed alcohol beforehand” (n = 19 (3.2%)). For items such as “I had a can of alcohol since the last 30 days”, “I had too much of alcohol since the last 30 days” and “I did buy alcoholic drink for the last 30 days”, less than 1% of the students surveyed had indicated that they “Strongly agree” and “Agree” on these items.

As for the drug intake among students surveyed, only 33 (4.5) of the students surveyed had indicated “Strongly agree” and “Agree” on the item “I have used inhalant drugs beforehand (sniff)”. In addition, only 30 (4.1%) of the students surveyed had indicated “Strongly agree” and “Agree” on the item “I have used hallucinating drugs beforehand”.

In addition to the above findings, students were also asked to provide perceived reasons for alcohol or drug intake. The following Table 10 tabulates the reasons given by students based on number of students who had “Strongly agree” and “Agree” on the statements provided.

21. Question 2: Attributing Factors of At-Risk Behaviors as Perceived by Respondents

As regard to the possible attributing factors for alcohol and substance abuse, only a handful respondent wrote reasons qualitatively for tobacco and substance abuse and it was just based on their perceptions. Table 10 indicated the possible reasons for alcohol and substance abuse as perceived by the respondents of this study.
Table 10: Reasons for Alcohol and Substance Abuse

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reasons</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Family problems. (eg.: divorce/siblings rivalry)</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Problems with partner/separation with partner/woman</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feel aroused/feel excited/wanted to try &amp; looking for experience</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peer influence/wanted to be accepted by peer</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Electronic and printed media influences</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lacked of parental education and information from teachers.</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1.10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Basically the reasons for alcohol and substance abuse were attributed by adolescents’ inability to cope with family problems namely divorce or sibling rivalry, separation with intimate partner(s), sense of curiosity or excitement, peer acceptance and peer rejection, influences that came from electronic and printed media and lacked of guidance and information from parents and teachers in school. However these reasons didn’t represent the entire sample as the percentage (1.10%) for each reason was very small indeed.

Table 11: Suicide Ideation and Suicide Attempt

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>SA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Had serious suicide ideation for the last 12 months</td>
<td>662 (89.8)</td>
<td>38 (5.1)</td>
<td>20 (2.7)</td>
<td>18 (2.4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Had attempted suicide once for the last 12 months</td>
<td>712 (96.4)</td>
<td>10 (1.4)</td>
<td>8 (1.1)</td>
<td>8 (1.1)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This section utilized the Likert scale which ranged from Strongly Agree (SA) - 5 to the lowest (Strongly Disagree) – SD – 1 point. Among all the students surveyed, 38 (5.1%) students had indicated “Strongly Agree” and “Agree” on the item related to “Has serious thought of committing suicide” and 16 (2.2%) students had indicated Strongly Agree” and “Agree” on the item “Had attempted suicide once”. Attention need to be given to suicide ideation and suicide attempt found among these respondents as it highlighted that 54 students were having suicide ideations and made suicide attempt from the total number of respondents examined by this study. The following table indicated the perceived reasons for youngsters to have the tendency to have suicide ideation and make suicide attempts.

Table 12: Possible reasons for suicide ideation and attempt as perceived by secondary school students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reasons</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Emotionally disturbed due to some kind of frustration (eg. Failing in examination)</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1.10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Felt so ashamed / sad (made fun by friends)</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.80%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lost loved objects / pets / friends</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.80%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sexual harassment by close family members or classmates (via vulgar nicknames)</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.10%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

22. Premarital Sex Orientation

Descriptive analysis was employed to ascertain activities related sexual relationship among the Malaysian adolescents. The findings were depicted in Table 13.

Table 13: Premarital Sex Orientation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Never (%)</th>
<th>Once (%)</th>
<th>Twice (%)</th>
<th>Frequent (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Have had premarital sex</td>
<td>648 (87.8)</td>
<td>18 (2.4)</td>
<td>48 (6.5)</td>
<td>24 (3.3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Had premarital sex after 13 years old</td>
<td>651 (86.2)</td>
<td>14 (1.9)</td>
<td>40 (5.4)</td>
<td>33 (4.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Had once been infected by STD due to my sexual relationships</td>
<td>642 (86.4)</td>
<td>11 (1.5)</td>
<td>54 (7.3)</td>
<td>35 (4.7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Became pregnant due to my sexual relationship</td>
<td>680 (89.4)</td>
<td>8 (1.1)</td>
<td>53 (7.2)</td>
<td>17 (2.3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have had an abortion</td>
<td>680 (89.4)</td>
<td>5 (0.7)</td>
<td>55 (7.5)</td>
<td>18 (2.4)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N = 738
Five items were utilized to examine premarital sex among secondary school adolescents. About 87.8% of the respondents admitted that they never had premarital sex before as opposed to 24 (3.3%) frequently had premarital sex. Comparatively 651 (88.2%) never had premarital sex even after 13 years old as opposed to 33 (4.5) of them who frequently had premarital sex. On the contrary 642 (86.4%) of the students had never been infected by STD and 35 (4.7%) had been frequently infected by STD. As for teen pregnancy, 660 (89.4%) of the students were never pregnant as compared to 17 (2.3%) of them. As for abortion, 660 (89.4%) never had abortion as opposed to 18(2.4%) who had several abortions.

23. Runaways

Similarly, descriptive statistics namely frequency counts and percentages were employed to examine students’ runaway history. Findings of this analysis were tabulated in Table 14 below.

Table 14: Runaway from Home

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>SD %</th>
<th>D %</th>
<th>A %</th>
<th>SA %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Runaway history - 2/more times</td>
<td>712 (96.48)</td>
<td>23 (3.12)</td>
<td>3 (6.41)</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Runaway attempt - 2/more times</td>
<td>697 (94.44)</td>
<td>32 (4.34)</td>
<td>7 (0.95)</td>
<td>2 (0.27)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N= 738

Table 14 indicated that only (3) 6.41% of the respondents indicated history of run away from home more than once while only 9 (1.22%) reported that they made more than 2 runaway attempts. Majority of the respondents strongly disagree or opposed the concept of runaway and making runaway attempts.

24. Causes of Runaways as Perceived by Respondents

Table 15 tabulates findings on causes of runaway among Malaysian adolescents. These scores were tabulated in frequency counts and percentages.

Table 15: Causes of Runaway as Perceived by Respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>SD %</th>
<th>D %</th>
<th>A %</th>
<th>SA %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Peer influence</td>
<td>644 (87.27)</td>
<td>37 (5.01)</td>
<td>31 (4.20)</td>
<td>26 (3.52)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Having fun</td>
<td>620 (84.01)</td>
<td>51 (6.911)</td>
<td>47 (6.37)</td>
<td>20 (2.7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alcohol addiction</td>
<td>680 (92.14)</td>
<td>20 (2.71)</td>
<td>24 (3.52)</td>
<td>14 (1.90)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drug addiction</td>
<td>684 (92.68)</td>
<td>7 (0.95)</td>
<td>26 (3.52)</td>
<td>21 (2.85)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Follow boy / girl friend</td>
<td>664 (89.97)</td>
<td>17 (2.30)</td>
<td>25 (3.39)</td>
<td>32 (4.34)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fought with parents</td>
<td>614 (83.20)</td>
<td>58 (7.86)</td>
<td>41 (5.56)</td>
<td>25 (3.39)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fought with siblings</td>
<td>596 (80.76)</td>
<td>75 (10.16)</td>
<td>54 (7.32)</td>
<td>13 (1.76)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lost interest in study</td>
<td>637 (86.31)</td>
<td>50 (6.78)</td>
<td>36 (4.88)</td>
<td>15 (2.03)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fear of threats</td>
<td>651 (82.21)</td>
<td>41 (5.56)</td>
<td>30 (4.07)</td>
<td>16 (2.17)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Were punished / humiliated</td>
<td>650 (88.08)</td>
<td>51 (6.91)</td>
<td>23 (3.12)</td>
<td>14 (1.90)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uncomfortable house / home – small size</td>
<td>671 (90.92)</td>
<td>31 (4.20)</td>
<td>22 (2.98)</td>
<td>14 (1.90)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>had premarital sex and was pregnant</td>
<td>683 (92.55)</td>
<td>9 (1.22)</td>
<td>19 (2.57)</td>
<td>27 (3.66)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sexually harassed by significant others</td>
<td>682 (92.41)</td>
<td>14 (1.90)</td>
<td>21 (2.85)</td>
<td>21 (2.85)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fear of police due to involvement in illegal gang</td>
<td>677 (91.73)</td>
<td>16 (2.17)</td>
<td>26 (3.52)</td>
<td>19 (2.57)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Found jobs - to earn extra money</td>
<td>658 (89.16)</td>
<td>29 (3.93)</td>
<td>26 (3.52)</td>
<td>25 (3.39)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N= 738

The above table demonstrates that the highest causes of runaway (between 11.2% and 11.4%) as perceived by the respondents and were attributed by personal, internal and external factors. Personal factors ranged from fun searching, experimenting with drug and alcohol, lost interest in study, lost self-esteem, in love, fear of threats and wanting independent and to earn money. As for external factor, they ranged from home environment, sibling rivalry, incest and sexual harassment, family disputes and divorce. However these personal, internal and external reasons for runaways were isolated cases and small in terms of their percentages. Majority of the respondents were either strongly disagree and disagree with other statements.
25. Abortion and Baby Abandonment

Majority of the respondents reported that they disagree or strongly disagree with the issue of abortion (99.59%) and attempt of abortion (99.73%) as opposed to the percentage of agree and strongly agree with “had abortion” and “had tried abortion”. There is still strong awareness with regard to the rights of significant others to live.

Table 16: Abortion and Baby Abandonment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>SD %</th>
<th>D %</th>
<th>A %</th>
<th>SA %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Had abortion</td>
<td>735 (99.59)</td>
<td>2 (0.3)</td>
<td>1 (0.13)</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Had tried to abort pregnancy</td>
<td>734 (99.46)</td>
<td>2 (0.27)</td>
<td>2 (0.27)</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N=738

26. Causes of Pregnancy as Perceived by Respondents

The following were causes of teen pregnancy as perceived by the respondents and were tabulated in Table 17.

Table 17: Causes of Pregnancy as Perceived by Respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>SD %</th>
<th>D %</th>
<th>A %</th>
<th>SA %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Influenced by porno film</td>
<td>580 (78.59)</td>
<td>24 (3.25)</td>
<td>106 (14.36)</td>
<td>28 (3.79)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Had frequent sexual relationship with boyfriend without prevention measures.</td>
<td>592 (80.22)</td>
<td>11 (1.49)</td>
<td>99 (13.41)</td>
<td>36 (4.88)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex addiction/unable to control sexual desire.</td>
<td>587 (79.54)</td>
<td>19 (2.57)</td>
<td>90 (12.20)</td>
<td>42 (5.69)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rape victim</td>
<td>591 (80.08)</td>
<td>17 (2.30)</td>
<td>96 (13.81)</td>
<td>34 (4.61)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Involved in prostitution</td>
<td>596 (80.76)</td>
<td>10 (1.36)</td>
<td>94 (12.74)</td>
<td>38 (5.15)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N= 738

The table above indicated that the main causes of teen pregnancy as perceived by the respondents were attributed by pornography influences (18.15%), sexual relationship without prevention measures (18.29%), addiction to sex (17.89%), rape victim (17.62%) and involvement in prostitution (17.89%).

27. Causes of Abortion as Perceived by Respondents

Table 18: Causes of Abortion as Perceived by Respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>SD %</th>
<th>D %</th>
<th>A %</th>
<th>SA %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Aborted - ashamed with parents/friends/community</td>
<td>585 (79.27)</td>
<td>21 (2.85)</td>
<td>86 (11.65)</td>
<td>46 (6.23)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aborted - fear if discovered by parents/school/peers/neighbors</td>
<td>586 (79.40)</td>
<td>15 (2.03)</td>
<td>84 (11.38)</td>
<td>53 (7.18)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aborted - boyfriend refused to be responsible</td>
<td>588 (79.67)</td>
<td>17 (2.30)</td>
<td>89 (12.06)</td>
<td>44 (5.96)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aborted - not prepared to be a mother</td>
<td>587 (79.54)</td>
<td>29 (3.93)</td>
<td>92 (12.47)</td>
<td>30 (4.07)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aborted – forced by boyfriend</td>
<td>589 (79.81)</td>
<td>18 (2.44)</td>
<td>88 (11.92)</td>
<td>43 (5.83)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N=738

Table 18 tabulates respondents' perceptions on the causes of abortion and was perceived as being attributed by the feeling of shame towards others (17.88%), fear of being discovered by parents/school/peers/neighbors (18.56%), boyfriend’s refusal to take responsibility (18.02%), not prepared to be young mothers (16.54%) and forced by boyfriend (17.75%).

28. Research Question 3: Anova Analyses

Are there significant differences in premarital sex orientation as regard to the following*

a. Family SES
b. Student’s background (urban versus rural)
c. Parents’ marital statuses

Comparison on adolescents’ selected at-risk behaviors namely smoking patterns, alcohol and substance abuse, suicide ideation and suicide attempts and premarital sex orientation was made using ANOVA and the findings were tabulated as the following:
### Table 19: Comparison of Smoking Patterns by Age, Family SES, and Parents’ marital Statuses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Age groups</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>2.52</td>
<td>1.89</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>193</td>
<td>2.52</td>
<td>1.48</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>230</td>
<td>2.42</td>
<td>1.44</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>2.40</td>
<td>1.69</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>1.98</td>
<td>1.73</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Btw. Groups</strong></td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>28.41</td>
<td>7.10</td>
<td>2.80</td>
<td>.030*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Within Groups</strong></td>
<td>733</td>
<td>1860.100</td>
<td>2.54</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Family SES</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>2.45</td>
<td>1.55</td>
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*Significant at p < .05

Table 19 tabulates findings on ANOVA analysis on adolescent’s smoking patterns by respondents’ age, family SES and parents’ marital status. Adolescents’ smoking patterns were compared based on their age groups via ANOVA analysis. The only significant differences in adolescents’ smoking patterns were found in adolescents age groups, $F(4,733) = 7.44$, $p = .000$. The mean score was higher for the age groups of 13 through 14 years old respectively.

### Table 20: Comparison of alcohol & substance abuse by Age, Family SES, and Parents’ marital Statuses

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*Significant at p < .05

As regard to alcohol and substance abuse, significant differences were found in adolescents’ age groups $F(4,733) = 7.44$, $p = .00$. and family SES, and Parents’ marital Statuses $F(3,734) = .030$ respectively. As regard to alcohol and substance abuse, the mean scores were higher for respondents whose ages were 17, 13 and 16 years old respondents.
Table 21: Comparison of Speeding, Suicide Ideation & Suicide Attempt and eating disorder by Age, Family SES, and Parents' marital Statuses

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*Significant at P < .05

Similar comparison via ANOVA was made on respondents' perception of motor speeding, suicide ideation and suicide attempt and eating disorder. Significant differences were found in respondents' age group: $F(4,733) = 3.37, p = .01$ and family SES; $F(3,734) = 2.77, p = .041$. Higher mean score were found amongst 17 years old right through 15 years old respondents. Similarly the highest mean score was found amongst respondents from the high SES background as regard to motor speeding, suicide ideation and suicide attempt and eating disorder.

Table 22: Comparison of Premarital Sex Orientation by Age, Family SES, Parents' marital Statuses

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*Significant at P < .05
Table 22 tabulates findings on ANOVA analysis of adolescent’s premarital sex orientation. This comparison was made by considering respondents’ age groups, family SES and parent(s) marital statuses. The findings indicated that significant difference was only found in respondents’ age groups $F(4,733) = 10.82$, at $p = .000$ and not for Family SES and parents’ marital statuses. The mean score indicated higher mean score for adolescents whose age groups were between 13 and 14 years old respectively. This suggests the “storm and stress” period are experienced by many adolescents and as well developmental progression in age which have some effect on adolescents involvement in premarital sex.

29. Findings from T-Test Analysis

$t$-test analysis were executed to examine significant gender and location differences as regard to smoking patterns among the Malaysian adolescents. Findings from the $t$-test analysis were tabulate in Table 23.

Table 23: Comparison of smoking patterns by gender and respondents’ location via $t$-tests Analysis

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*the mean difference is significant at $p < .05$

$T$-test analyses indicated that significant gender differences were found between male and female in teen smoking patterns; ($p = .000$). Male had higher mean scores compared to female. Similarly significant differences were found in the respondents’ location where urban respondents had higher mean scores than their rural counterparts ($p = .000$).

Table 24: Comparison of Alcohol and Substance Abuse patterns by gender and respondents’ location via $t$-tests Analysis

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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>301</td>
<td>1.42</td>
<td>1.43</td>
<td>-.84</td>
<td>705</td>
<td>.403</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>406</td>
<td>1.51</td>
<td>1.60</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Location</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rural</td>
<td>278</td>
<td>1.57</td>
<td>1.75</td>
<td>-.55</td>
<td>736</td>
<td>.579</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>460</td>
<td>1.51</td>
<td>1.58</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$T$-test analyses was undertaken to examine significant gender and location differences in alcohol and substance abuse patterns. The findings indicated that no significant gender ($p = .403$) and location ($p = .579$) differences were found in alcohol and substance abuse.

Table 24: Comparison of Motor Speeding, Suicide Ideation & Suicide Attempt and eating disorder by gender and student’s location

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>301</td>
<td>3.79</td>
<td>2.48</td>
<td>14.69</td>
<td>705</td>
<td>.000*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>406</td>
<td>1.58</td>
<td>1.49</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Location</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rural</td>
<td>460</td>
<td>2.44</td>
<td>2.23</td>
<td>.21</td>
<td>736</td>
<td>.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>278</td>
<td>2.60</td>
<td>2.32</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As regard to motor speeding, suicide ideation and suicide attempt, $t$-test analyses was undertaken to examine significant gender and location differences in them. The findings showed that significant gender differences ($p = .000$) were found in suicide ideation, suicide attempt and eating disorder. Male had higher mean scores as opposed to female. no significant location differences ($p = .35$) were found between students who came from rural or urban schools. On the contrary, significant gender differences ($p = .000$) were found between male and female respondents.
Table 25: Comparison of premarital sex orientation by gender and respondents’ location via t-tests Analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Male</td>
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<td>2.89</td>
<td>1.11</td>
<td>.204</td>
<td>705</td>
<td>.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
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<td>2.87</td>
<td>1.30</td>
<td></td>
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<td>Location</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rural</td>
<td>278</td>
<td>3.03</td>
<td>1.24</td>
<td>-1.80</td>
<td>736</td>
<td>.072</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>460</td>
<td>2.86</td>
<td>1.34</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 25 shows that no significant gender differences was found in adolescents’ premarital sex orientation (p = .84). Inspection of the two groups indicated that the differences in mean scores were small. Similarly inspections on the students’ location indicated no significant difference (p = .072) in adolescents’ premarital sex orientation that either come from rural or urban areas.

30. Discussion and Conclusion

With respect to adolescents’ at-risk behaviors which have been identified by previous studies and ascertained by this study, with respect to smoking habits, majority of the respondents disagreed with the smoking habits. In spite of the respondents’ positive attitude, small percentages of the respondents reported that they had smoked before. This fact should not be dismissed and attentive measures are necessary so as to curb smoking habits among the Malaysian adolescents. It was also notable that majority of the respondents were also against alcohol consumption and substance abuse except for a few minorities. Findings on drug abused revealed that majority of the respondents disagreed with drug abused except for a handful of respondents. Similarly, majority of the respondents were against motor speeding, suicide ideation and suicide attempt and eating disorder except for small percentages of the respondents were for this lifestyle. As for premarital sex orientation, majority of the respondents examined were not in favor of this lifestyle which is perceived as health hazard. Even though only small percentages of the respondents embraced such lifestyle, attention must be given to these unhealthy and devastating practices. Adolescents are the country’s future stakeholders and they will be assuming the country’s leadership in the near future. Thus, exemplary roles models among Malaysian adolescents must be generated from the current pool of adolescents in this country. The current political leadership, NGOs, school, community and parents must work hand in hand to realize these aims and objectives of producing future leaders who are highly competent, conversant, creative and innovative, charismatic and holistically developed to serve the noble aims of education of this country. Hence joint efforts must be taken to rule out these negative elements in schools and homes. In summary, at-risk behaviors among secondary school students are relatively low. Nevertheless preventive measures as well as appropriate intervention strategies are needed to minimize the occurrence of at-risk behaviors among Malaysian adolescents and to produce mentally and physically healthy adolescents who will pave and lead the country’s future.

31. Future Research

Findings from this study can be used as parameters for developing modules and inventories for examining at-risk behaviors among the Malaysian youngsters based on Malaysian norms. Future research on similar area may include new variables such social media addiction (video-gaming), trunky, gangsterism and bullying, participation of youth in misconceived “jihad” and international terrorism.

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Deviant Behavior, 21, 331-347.


Importance of Information and Communications Technology (ICT) in Balance Sheet Categories Training

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Abstract

The paper discusses and examines the importance of information and communication technologies (ICT) in the contexts of balance sheet categories training. In the contemporary education ICT has an important role. It is the most widely spread technology of the modern age which represents the basis for economy and knowledge society in the 21st century. The society should accept the challenge of new technologies, creating new knowledge as the most important supporting pillars of the knowledge society. The promotion of a knowledge society requires radical changes of the school system in general, and a new concept of school as a ‘learning community’. Implementation of ICT are positively associated with increased productivity in the learning process and better performance of educational tasks. Therefore the educational institutions should be flexible, adapt to new changes, constantly learn and introduce innovations. The introduction of ICT to the accounting courses teaching process allow professors and students to have adequate access to all accounting and balance sheet categories, such as resources, liabilities, equity, income and expenses, and understanding of the inter-correspondent relationships in the preparation of accounting balance system equations and balance sheet categories flow based on the equilibrium state of main groups of balance sheet categories. This will make students become adequately equipped with the competences they will need on the labor market.

Keywords: information and communication technologies (ICT), balance sheet accounting categories, knowledge society, ‘learning community’, competences for the labor market.

1. Introduction

The term Information and Communications Technologies implies the technologies used for handling information. This, for example, includes technologies for data storage (magnetic and optical media, semiconductor memory, etc.), technologies for data transmission (radio, television, mobile phones, computer data transmission, etc.), data processing technologies (computers of all kinds and their external devices), computer programs and services, and computer networks. ICT is, therefore, a term that covers a multitude of technologies designed for handling information, which reflects the fundamental importance and essence of ICT activities. During last thirty years ICT deeply modified subjects and society in their approach to learning and in knowledge construction. The main consequences is a double preliminary analysis on the influence that digital device had on mankind: a former perspective in concerned with the impact of digital technologies on the different learning environments (constructivist, socio-constructivist and connectives) responsible for individuals’ learning: the latter viewpoint is mainly interested in communities, both on learning and of practice, their influence on individuals’ learning and their role in organizations (Cartelli, 2010: 123).

Modern technologies bring about new methods of interaction and communication, and require constant adjustment to the new conditions, as well as a systematic implementation of such changes to all aspects of life and work in order to be in tune with the changes, where computer literacy is becoming a fundamental core which the use of ICTs is based on.
2. Information and Communications Technologies (ICT) and Traditional Education

Information and Communications Technology (ICT) is the most widely spread technology of the modern age which represents the basis for economy and society in the 21st century (Tatković, Močinić, 2012). Today, the creation of Europe of Knowledge is a key factor in the development of individuals and the society, and it represents an important component of the 2007 strengthening of competitiveness and improving the economy, science and European citizenry of the new millennium (Europa 2020 – strateški okvir Europske unije).

“A further development of individuals’ competences on all the levels of education is certainly crucial for the promotion of a knowledge society, which requires radical changes of the school system in general, and of the higher education system in particular. A learning society requires a new concept of school as a ‘learning community’. Schools and the entire education system are required to be capable of a quick and efficient adaptation in the changeable globalisation and informatisation conditions, as well as to be able to create mechanisms for a timely and high-quality response to the needs of the ‘learning society’ (Kostović, 2006: 314).

In order to respond to the contemporary constant, variable and turbulent demands of the present-day society, modern ICTs introduce changes and represent a challenge to the classical approach to educating pupils/students (Tatković, 2007). New forms of studying are introduced on the individual, group and institutional levels, collecting information of all sorts, such as knowledge, understanding, the ‘know-how’, techniques and procedures, to continuously enhance the education system and its achievements and results. Education institutions’ ability to teach must be greater and faster than the changes in the environment. Today’s generations of pupils / students are growing up in a digital and virtual environment and thus have a need for a different approach to teaching and learning (Tatkovic 2009). Traditional methods of teaching were based on encyclopaedic knowledge, whereas current teaching methods are more flexible because they strive to adapt to the requirements and needs of individual pupils / students, by departing from a predetermined modular study programme curriculum and pre-planned content of individual courses (De Ascaniis, S. 2006, Tatković, 2009). With this new method of personalized teaching by applying new curricula, the individual students, with the help of the teaching media and educational technology, become responsible for their own intellectual progress in their own education, which brings into focus their individual capabilities for research and problem-solving by relying on a variety of research and discovery methods (Foerster, von H. 1991 in: Giaconi, C. 2008). The purpose of contemporary education is to develop competencies for structuring, designing and implementing modern technologies as an additional support in education, as well as for a future personal development and professional work of an individual. Thus, modern-day education becomes unrestricted and undetermined by the geographic location (e. g. country, city) and physical space (classrooms, houses).

Technological development and new technologies offer advantages which schools and higher education institutions should maximize in order to become competitive in the knowledge market and to keep pace with the modern times. In today’s digital age and technologically developed environment, which becomes increasingly digitized, technologically more developed and evolved with strong developmental prospects for the future, the need arises for new knowledge and skills, such as the following (Tatković, Močinić, 2012, according to Maravić, 2003):

1. Critical thinking;
2. Flexible skills, adaptable to a variety of situations;
3. ICT skills necessary for professional work;
4. Decision-making abilities;
5. Handling dynamic situations;
6. Teamwork;
7. Effective communication.

These skills help prepare the individual for an intense battle on the labor market, where only those who are able to adapt will succeed. If pupils / students have learned and mastered certain skills through interaction with the environment and new technologies, but the educational institution does not know how to take advantage of this particular knowledge, their pupils / students’ potential, or the technology itself, it will fall short of todays’s norms and values instead of attaining success. It should be a mutual, interactive relationship in the form of mutual learning. Educational institutions should be flexible, adapt to new ideas and changes, constantly learn and introduce innovations, and promote the development of knowledge and exchange of information, which will make their pupils / students become more educated and adequately equipped with the knowledge they will need on the labor market in the future, so they can play an active role in it. Quick

1 ICT – abbreviation of the English term Information and Communication Technology - used for both singular and plural (technology / technologies); IKT – Croatian abbreviation of the term Informacijska i komunikacijska tehnologija.
learning also implies rapid adaptation to the environment which keeps advancing in the technical and technological sense, and this in turn determines the institution’s long-term success, continuous improvements, increased creativity and promotion of innovations, thus attracting and retaining people who are willing to learn, thrive and succeed.

3. The Impact of Information and Communications Technologies (ICT) on Teaching Activities within the Accounting - Balance Sheet Training

Competencies of teachers as the main initiators of progress and education as the basis of advancement are the fundamental capital of the modern society and a key factor in the economic development, providing the background and support for a successful use of ICTs, professional advancement and lifelong learning.

If the professors are of high quality, contemporary and familiar with the innovations, they will quickly and effectively deal with a world of constant technological changes, new accounting methods and legal solutions, introducing them successfully into the process of creating and performing their teaching. The professor, as the creator of the teaching process and the person who conducts classes with the use of modern ICT, is not only responsible for, but also essential in a successful implementation and integration of ICTs in the teaching process, where ICT itself is an indispensable element of effective education that encourages innovation, communication and interaction (e. g. interactive exercises) in the teaching process. Therefore, pupils / students should be motivated enough by their faculty teachers to use the available ICT, and thus gain confidence in their use and take advantage of numerous benefits that ICTs can provide to a modern student’s education. The use of ICTs in the accounting course teaching process also requires a close familiarity with the content of the accounting courses. The introduction of ICT to the accounting courses teaching process will therefore allow professors and students to have adequate access to all accounting and balance sheet categories, such as resources, liabilities, equity, income and expenses. It will facilitate the presentation and understanding of the intercorrespondent relationships in the preparation of accounting balance system equations and balance sheet categories flow based on the equilibrium state of main groups of balance sheet categories. For this purpose, the following equation of the opening balance will be set:

\[
\begin{align*}
A &= P \\ 
DI + KNI + NI &= K + Od + Ok 
\end{align*}
\]

where:

- \(A\) = assets
- \(B\) = liabilities
- \(DI\) = non-current assets
- \(KNI\) = short-term non-monetary assets
- \(NI\) = monetary assets
- \(K\) = equity
- \(Od\) = non-current liabilities
- \(Ok\) = current liabilities

The displayed equation expresses the balance sheet at the beginning of a period – a year. It results in the equality between assets and liabilities in the balance sheet as a whole, and equality between the initial categories of assets and the initial categories of liabilities in the balance sheet. Each balance sheet category can be expressed as a resultant of the other balance sheet categories. With the emergence of an economic process, all the elements are dynamized, changing from the initial balance into a dynamic state. Certain categories increase, and the others decrease, which establishes a continuous equilibrium of the balance sheet. Income and expenses that directly affect the amount of equity and assets emerge in the process. Such a setting is interpreted in the following dynamics equation:

\[
\begin{align*}
DI+ (p-s) + KNI+ (p-s) + NI+ (p-s) + T &= K+ (p-s) + Od+ (p-s) + Ok+ (p-s) + P 
\end{align*}
\]

where:

- \(p\) = relevant category increase
- \(s\) = relevant category decrease
- \(T\) = expenses
- \(P\) = revenues

This equation includes the balance sheet categories’ initial state and all subsequent changes that increase and decrease the related categories in an accounting period. If, at the end of the period, the amount of generated revenues exceeds the expenses incurred, then the profit will be included in the equation:

\[
\begin{align*}
DI+ (p-s) + KNI+ (p-s) + NI+ (p-s) &= K+ (p-s) + Od+ (p-s) + Ok+ (p-s) + D 
\end{align*}
\]

where:

- \(D\) = profit

which also represents the value of the balance sheet at the end of the period. By abstracting or by including profits into the amount of equity, the following situation will occur at the end of the period:

\[
\begin{align*}
DI+ (p-s) + KNI+ (p-s) + NI+ (p-s) &= K+ (p-s) + Od+ (p-s) + Ok+ (p-s) 
\end{align*}
\]

If we want to show the state of one balance sheet category at the end of the period by using the state of other balance sheet categories, then we will isolate the desired category to the left side of the equation, and place all other
balance sheet categories to the right side. This will be shown as follows:

\[ DI^+ (p-s) = K^+ (p-s) + O_t^+ (p-s) + O_k^+ (p-s) - KNI^+ (p-s) - NI^+ (p-s) \]  
\[ KNI^+ (p-s) = K^+ (p-s) + O_t^+ (p-s) + O_k^+ (p-s) - DI^+ (p-s) - NI^+ (p-s) \]  
\[ NI^+ (p-s) = K^+ (p-s) + O_t^+ (p-s) + O_k^+ (p-s) - DI^+ (p-s) - KNI^+ (p-s) \]  

An increase in one type of assets corresponds to a decrease in another type of assets, with an increase in capital, and with an increase in liabilities. A decrease in one type of assets corresponds to an increase in another type of assets and the reduction of capital and liabilities.

With the above mentioned groups of balance sheet categories equations, we have determined that the individual balance sheet categories of assets positively affect the balance sheet categories of liabilities, and negatively affect the remaining balance sheet categories of assets. We will show the category of balance sheet liabilities as follows:

\[ K^+ (p-s) = DI^+ (p-s) + KNI^+ (p-s) + NI^+ (p-s) - O_t^+ (p-s) - O_k^+ (p-s) \]  

Increase in equity corresponded to the increase in assets and with the reduction in liability. Conversely, reducing equity corresponds with a decrease in assets and an increase in liabilities.

\[ O_t^+ (p-s) = DI^+ (p-s) + KNI^+ (p-s) + NI^+ (p-s) - K^+ (p-s) - O_k^+ (p-s) \]  

Increase in long term liabilities corresponds to the increase in assets, with a decrease in equity and a decrease in current liabilities. Conversely, a decrease in liabilities corresponds with a decrease in assets, an increase in equity and an increase in current liabilities.

\[ O_k^+ (p-s) = DI^+ (p-s) + KNI^+ (p-s) + NI^+ (p-s) - K^+ (p-s) - O_t^+ (p-s) \]  

In that sense we got an equilibrium state for the increase in balance sheet categories, and all balance sheet categories recorded positive increment. We determine the difference between the final and the initial balance, i.e.:

\[ final\ balance = balance\ sheet \ category\ increase \]
\[ DI_{1} + KNI_{1} + NI_{1} = D_{1} + KNI_{1} + NI_{1} = K_{1} + O_{t1} + O_{k1} \]  

where:

1 = indicates the final balance of the respective category

In the sense of this, ICT in training for accounting balance sheet categories can be viewed from various perspectives. First of all, the ICTs themselves can be the topic of study. In fact, prior to any application in the teaching process, a student should master them, learn about their functionality and possible implementation, with particular emphasis on their use within the accounting balance sheet categories framework. This means that the very use of ICT must be a learning topic. ICT can be used as a tool within the teaching process for the presentation of balance sheet categories when calculating the correspondent relations and projecting future conditions and processes. Finally, ICT can be used as a means of testing, communication, research, etc.

A Professor / teacher should be competent in using ICTs and computers as supporting tools for teaching classes, and for different intended teaching purposes, to ensure the achievement of optimal technical, pedagogical, professional and working conditions in the educational process. By using ICT in education, pupils / students become active and disciplined participants, thus making teaching itself more effective.

Apart from professors / teachers, the management structure of an education institution also plays an important role in the implementation of ICT and innovations in this field. They should also be aware of the major role, various
possibilities and the pedagogical advantages of using modern technologies to ensure material resources for their acquisition and didactical use and its subsequent operational use, which is also based on new methods of teaching in accordance to the times we live in.

Computer and IT knowledge, skills and competencies, and the curriculum for professor/teacher training, as crucial factors of participation in ICT-based education, have a cause-and-effect relationship with the computer and IT education, as well as with achievements of pupils / students, and of all those who participate in the education process. In order to achieve a successful application of ICTs in teaching and professional development, teachers / educators at all levels of education have to continuously improve their competencies which are required for the application of ICTs, and improve their pedagogical and methodological / didactic competencies in order to carry out their tasks effectively in today's technological environment.

The introduction of ICT in the teaching process should be regular, systematic and direct, subordinated to and in line with specific goals and a variety of learning contexts, along with the modification of the existing sources, while developing new educational contexts and choosing the working environment and working conditions appropriate to different groups of pupils / students.

4. Terms of Application of Information and Communications Technologies (ICT) in Learning Activities within the Education Process

In these new technological conditions, which are constantly changing, teachers must be trained for the work, which means they need to adapt quickly to new requirements and develop specific communication skills, such as the use of e-mail, tracking chat conversations, moderation of forums, dealing with blogs, etc. , which pupils / students use in order to keep pace with the modern trends.

Three basic requirements could be identified which are necessary for the teachers to successfully apply ICT in the accounting / balance sheet teaching process:

- professor-teacher must be convinced that the use of ICTs will be more effective in the presentation of materials, securely defining the balance sheet accounting categories and establishing inter-correspondent balance-sheet relations;
- the use of ICT will also help to understand other goals of business entities' operations, such as the rationalization of the production process or the application of adequate purchasing policies, etc;
- all of this is possible if the professor / teacher possesses the necessary competence to use ICT.

Educational experience which a professor / teacher possesses will be appreciated according to the application of ICT, oriented towards the purpose, goals and relationships within the appropriate learning context. It is necessary to continue the analytical research of opportunities provided by the selected application in relation to the balance sheet accounting categories and its possible practical use; to anticipate subsequent training of technical skills; to propose programming and / or adjustment of specific activities (e. g. programming of didactic activities) to verify understanding; to guarantee support and tutorship by colleagues or other professionals in the following stages.

Thus, UNESCO's ICT competency standards for teachers / educators (ICT CST, 2008) provide guidelines for professors / teachers and pupils / students on how to live, learn and work in an extremely complex and rich IT knowledge society, emphasizing the need for an effective use of ICT, where professors / teachers need to possess competence for the organization and implementation of technologically supported learning and stimulating environment. From UNESCO's publications, as well as from the EU documents on ICT and computerization (Digital Agenda for Europe 2010-2020),2 emerges the conclusion about an exceptional importance of information literacy and digital competencies development of all European citizens, especially those involved in the teaching process (teachers, professors), for a successful work and life in Europe as a knowledge society.

The present time is characterized by the reign of technology. Technology is becoming increasingly more contemporary. It rapidly becomes obsolete, and continuously requires new knowledge, skills and competences, so that individuals and the whole society could quickly adapt to the ever growing demands of new technologies and thus ensure

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2 The Digital Agenda for Europe establishes seven priority areas of action at EU level, among which an important one is improving digital literacy, knowledge and e-inclusion. Other priority areas of the Digital Agenda for Europe are the following: creation of a single digital market, improving the interoperability of information and communication products and services, fostering trust and security on the Internet, ensuring the provision of much faster internet access, encouraging investment in research and development, improvement of digital literacy, knowledge and e-inclusion and the application of information and communication technologies in addressing key challenges of society, such as climate change, increasing health care costs and aging population.
progress and wealth of the nation (Ghisla, G. 2006). With the help of modern ICTs, the field of education and other areas of social life can be managed, further increasing the high quality of education process and the quality of knowledge.

5. Conclusion

The quality of modern knowledge has far surpassed traditional encyclopedic learning at schools, replacing it, with the help of ICTs, with new knowledge, which is based on logical reasoning, pupils’ / students’ creativity and mutual expansion and exchange of knowledge. A high degree of interactivity and adaptability is required at all levels of the education system, which contributes to a quicker and more efficient education. In fact, in this way, knowledge is adopted more quickly, thus achieving higher productivity and expanding education and knowledge, modernizing and improving it with new contents, methods and forms of work at all levels of education, thus ensuring integration into modern teaching trends (Gerlič, I. 2010).

In order to significantly improve and enhance education and increase the quality of the education process in the form of teaching and learning at all levels of education, it is necessary to computerize educational institutions, i.e. to increase financial investments in IT equipment such as hardware and software.

The importance of ICTs in the education quality management is indirectly visible in the following areas (Tatković, Močinčić, 2012):

- Selecting the most favorable education options;
- Improvement and effectiveness assessment of the chosen teaching methods and strategies;
- Development of systems and tools to support the education performance;
- Improving methods of monitoring and evaluating the progress of educational projects;
- The implementation of the teaching process itself.

References

The Story of Charlie Hebdo: An Analysis of European and American Newspapers

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Abstract

The attack on Charlie Hebdo was widely spread throughout the world. It caused the reactions of politicians, celebrities and journalists. Journalists treated the attack on the editors as an attack on freedom of speech. On the other hand, the attack led to the political debate on terrorism on both sides of the Atlantic. The thesis put by the author says that the same event is the starting point for spinning two different stories. The aim of the article is to present an American and European narrative of the attack and its consequences. Research answers the questions such as: How narratives were constructed? What are the most commonly used media sources? Did materials contain additional explanations? Did they contain different points of view? Whose interests it represented? Because of access to sources of analysis were subjected to newspapers and online news sites.

Keywords: journalism, mainstream, freedom of speech, terrorism, narratives

1. Introduction

It is an axiom that the functioning of free media is one of the conditions necessary for the democracy to exist; it is also a widely acclaimed statement that free media have beneficial influence upon democracy. However, Hans Matthias Kepplinger, a German media scientist, proves (on the basis of the German opinion-forming press) that the presence of free media can have dysfunctional consequences for the democratic system as well.

Owing to the dominant media, news reporters perform a significant role in the production and support of social knowledge. Most of the journalists participating in the study declare that they are neutral and objective news reporters. Yet, the media function in such a way as to promote any events of negative nature, which are much more marginal in the relation to the socio-political reality that in it is presented in the media account. Thus, the reconstructed reality is deformed and distorted (Kepplinger, 1998).

Another important characteristic of the media is that they do not allow the discussion of fundamental subjects concerning most of people. Media adopt the agenda of the elites. They do not touch on the subjects that would be of interest for 80% of the society (Herman, 2006)[1].

2. Objectivity in Media Outlets

The objectivity principle is an issue of central importance in journalism; it comes as standard for most of the Western media. It is an established norm that news should be reported in a neutral manner and should contain as much information as possible. While there is an agreement when it comes to the objectivity principle, the attempts to define objectivity and its application are a problematic issue.

In the scientific discussion on objectivity, the starting point is a statement that objectivity should relate to the relationship between media content and reality (Kunczik, Zipfel, 2000, p. 107). The simplest view of the concept of objectivity is fact-collecting, understood in the terms of content created from information necessary in order to grasp the news on a particular event. In journalistic understanding, it means providing answers to the following questions – who? What? Where? When? And perhaps, why?

Another aspect of objectivity is impartiality, though it is difficult to provide its explicit definition. Impartiality is most valued in the description of conflict situations since they generate competing interpretations and judgements. Balanced selection of sources is a widely acclaimed norm of impartiality; it takes into account different points of views, especially if the judgements or facts are challenged. Distinguishing facts from opinions as well as choosing words that are not of evaluative nature are also aspects of impartiality.

1 Translated by Patrycja Karpińska
More refined criteria are used in order to analyse the quality of media outlets; questions whether the presented facts are accurate and complete are posed. Compliance with the independent records of the event, other media outlets, witnesses and documents may be an indicator of accurateness. However, accurateness may also mean compliance of the media outlets with perception of the society by the source of information as well as the coherence of informative text.

As it is difficult to verify whether the information is complete, it leads to the questions about the relevance of presented facts. There are numerous criteria of relevance; one of them are theoretical assumptions on how the media outlets should report. In theory, relevance is identified with what is crucially important from a long-term historical perspective and what favours the function of the society. The second criterion is journalists’ opinion on the relevance. The study of American journalists shows a clear discrepancy between the notions of ‘significance’ and ‘interest’ (McQuail 1992, p. 218). The following aspects are relevant for the journalists: firstly, what affects people; secondly, what is interesting and unusual; thirdly, what is up-to-date and relates to the local or global events. On the bases of his own experience, a German TV journalist describes what is objective in the following way, ‘objective is what we like, what we can use, what we are eager to hear and what confirms our own opinion’ (Kunczik, Zipfel, p. 111) [2]. Hans Kepplinger used a term ‘instrumental revision’ for the journalists’ tendency to select from all available information those which conform to their own views and editorial staves’ stance.

By presenting and justifying the choice of particular topics and frames of interpretation, journalists are one of the most significant social groups which influence formation of social representations of issues, new phenomena, conflicts and catastrophes (Lisowska-Magdziarz, 2014).

3. Attributes of Information

On the basis of their research, Johan Galtung and Mari Ruge (1965, after McQuail, 2005, p. 311) distinguish three basic groups of factors that influence the value of information; thus, the properties that make an event material worth publishing. These are organisational, genre-related and socio-cultural factors. Organisational factors often have an ideological nature and they are the most unavoidable as well as universal. Collecting material requires certain organisation of work; hence, it favours events that take place, for instance, near major information centres with well-developed infrastructure. Genre-related factors include preference of the events which can maintain the audience’s interest through the reference to earlier facts or events which can be easily inscribed on existing frames, e. g. conflict, crisis etc. Finally, socio-cultural factors are rooted in the features characterising Western culture. These are: interest in the elites, brutal and drastic events, close-proximity of the event, personalisation of the event, tragedy, and legibility.

4. Legitimisation of the News

Media need sources of information. In order to legitimise the media outlets, producers of information refer mostly to the official authorities and common sense. This inevitable form of legitimising information, which disguises itself as a safeguard of objectivity, can lead to the distortion of reality. According to Stephen Reese, August Grant and Lucig Danielian, journalists refer to a restricted group of sources, which makes it impossible to reveal multiple points of view. The authors of the study suggest that ‘[b]y relying on a common and often narrow network of sources … the news media contribute to [a] systematic convergence on the conventional wisdom, the largely unquestioned consensus views held by journalists, power-holders and many audience members’ (Reese, Grant, Danielian, 1994)

In the times of crisis, media derive their news from foreign media and official local sources, making the interpretation of events biased.

5. Framing Theory

One of the conclusions based on the study of the content of media outlets is that they have a predictable construction. As Park observes it, ‘if it is the unexpected that happens it is not the wholly unexpected which gets into the news. The events that have made news in the past, as in the present, are actually expected things … it is on the whole the accidents and incidents that the public is prepared for … the things that one fears and that one hopes for that make news’ (1940/1967, after McQuail 2010, p. 378).

Gaye Tuchman (1978) refers in this context to Erving Goffman, who is an author of the frame concept which serves as a tool necessary for the organisation of dispersed fragments of experience or information. Frames in information are applied as frames of reference, i. e. context and theme. In the context of journalism, meaning of topics is a result of reference to a particular informational value which connects one event with another. According to Entman
(1993), the application of frames consists of the selection and hierarchy of priorities. Frames define the issue in question, diagnose the causes, impose moral judgements and suggest the solutions to those issues.

Journalists cannot escape from partiality, to say the least, because their informants also apply frames conforming to their aims. Frames of interpretation make an individual capable of using information. Frames applied by the media are patterns of selection, which allow both to highlight certain fragments of reality and to omit others (Gitlin, 1980).

Depending on the country and media system, different frames – governed by political factors and public opinion – are applied to describe the same event.

6. Media Content as Narrative

Most of the media content tells a story about something in a well-ordered and predictable manner. The most important function ascribed to the narrative is the facilitation of understanding of the news report meaning. This aim is fulfilled in following two ways: either through arranging actions and events in logical sequence (chronological, causal) or through the introduction of regular and realistic persons and places. Narrative helps to understand the logic behind human actions whereas fragmentary observations form coherent whole.

7. Subject of the Study

The subject of analysis are online editions of French, British and American newspapers issued from the 7th day of January, 2015 to the 22nd day of February, 2015. Only the articles which titles directly referred to the events at Charlie Hebdo headquarters from the 7th day of January, 2015 were analysed.

In accordance with the agenda-setting theory, media indicate certain events to be the most important events of a given day; consequently, they are perceived as such by the audience. The highest amount of news about Charlie Hebdo was published within the first 7 days. This is understandable due to the novelty of the news. On the 14th day of January, the first issue after the shooting is published and also immediately becomes a national topic. Media report on endless queues and millions of sold copies. Six weeks later, repercussion of the shooting are still present in the media but to a lesser degree.

8. Attack on Charlie Hebdo

First reports from the 7th day of January, 2015 on the attack on satirical magazine Charlie Hebdo headquarters were of factual nature. The undermentioned chronology of the events was retrieved from L’essentiel online. In the first minutes, media quote the accounts of witnesses and the police. All of them provide information that attackers screamed ‘Allahu Akbar!’ and opened fire. The source of this information is a journalist from Premières Lignes information agency, who posted also a video, on which a cry ‘Allahu Akbar!’ and shots can be heard http://www. lessentiel. lu/fr/news/france/ story/22976860). During the first hours, the French police are the most important source of information, who inform about the number of victims and the chase after attackers. On 12:44 PM the French president François Hollande arrives at the crime scene and says that this was an act of extreme cruelty and there are no doubts that it was a ‘terrorist attack.’ Later, the French media inform that British Prime Minister David Cameron posted a twit, in which he condemned the attack and expressed solidarity with France ‘in the fight against terror and defending the freedom of the press.’ L’essentiel posts also a twit by Laurent Mosar, MP Deputy Speaker of Luxemburg, who says, ‘I am staggered by and terrified of the brutality and cowardice on this frontal attack on the freedom of speech’. [3]

At 1:19 PM the information about number of victims is posted – 12 people were killed.

At 6 PM, the statement of former editor of Charb et Tignous Mourad Boudjellal is issued. He refers to the attack on Charlie Hebdo headquarters as the ‘9/11 of the press.’ At the same time, the press conference of the Public Prosecutor’s Office in Paris begins.

L’essentiel posts information that Stephane Charbonnier (Charb), one of the murdered caricaturists, was in 2013 on the Al-Qaeda’s most wanted list for his crimes against Islam. The list was published in English by the Internet newspaper Inspire.

According to the police, aggressors were well-equipped (for example, in automatic weapons) and well-prepared; they acted calmly and methodically (AFP). In one of the cars (Citroën C3) abandoned by the assassins, ID card of one of the attackers, Saïd Kouachi, was found (www. lefigaro. fr).

On the same day, ‘The National Union of Journalists (NUJ) has described the shooting at the Charlie Hebdo offices in Paris today (January 7) as ‘an attempt to assassinate the free press.’ (Nissim, 2015, Jan. 7).
Michelle Stanistreet, a general secretary of NUJ, stated that ‘[t]he newspaper had already been the subject of attacks by people who want to suppress democracy and freedom of speech’ (ibid.).

9. The Day After

Directly after the attack on Charlie Hebdo headquarters, editorial staff of European magazines express their solidarity with the murdered cartoonists. Titles and headlines in the magazines clearly indicate that it was a terrorist attack, which shocked people all over the world. The Huffington Post writes that ‘[n]ewspapers around the world are rallying around Charlie Hebdo, the French satirical newspaper targeted in a terror attack on Wednesday in which 12 people were killed’ (Mazza, 2015, Jan. 7).

The newspaper publishes also front pages of the magazines from Great Britain, Germany, France, and Canada, showing how the world reacted to the attack. [4] On the front page, The Independent publishes an illustration, which is described by The Huffington Post as ‘a message for the terrorists’. The drawing shows a middle finger protruding from the bloodstained page of Charlie Hebdo newspaper. Similar illustration, with a middle finger shaped as a pencil, is published by L’Echo, a newspaper from the Limousin region of France. The Huffington Post presents also an illustration from L’Équipe, French sports magazine, who depicted the attack as a contest between Liberte (freedom) and Barbarie (barbarity). As The Huffington Post reports, ‘in the hours after the attack, “Je Suis Charlie” (“I Am Charlie”) became a cry of solidarity, both on the streets of Paris and online, where #JeSuisCharlie was trending on Twitter. Many newspapers also use the phrase, including France’s L’Independant’ (ibid.).

In Canada, The Toronto Sun publishes an illustration, on which a cartoonist, with a bloodstained hand, draws by means of a pencil with an inscription ‘Freedom’. Next to the illustration, there is a caption, ‘Draw strength.’

The most significant American media react with remarkable restraint and carefulness. They do not show the caricatures from Charlie Hebdo magazine that were the reason for terroristic attack.

Officially, President Barack Obama condemns the terroristic attack in Paris and declares solidarity with the French; however, two years before the attack happened, the French magazine had been criticised by the White House for publishing Mohammed’s caricatures which had led to Muslims’ protests in Arab countries.

CNN Senior Editorial Director Richard Griffiths sends to his employees such an ‘Although we are not at this time showing the Charlie Hebdo cartoons of the Prophet considered offensive by many Muslims, platforms are encouraged to verbally describe the cartoons in detail. This is key to understanding the nature of the attack on the magazine and the tension between free expression and respect for religion. Video or stills of street protests showing Parisians holding up copies of the offensive cartoons, if shot wide, are also OK. Avoid close-ups of the cartoons that make them clearly legible.’ (Gold, 2015, Jan. 7).

A spokesperson of NBC, which owns several channels, announces that ‘[o]ur NBC News Group Standards team has sent guidance to NBC News, MSNBC, and CNBC not to show headlines or cartoons that could be viewed as insensitive or offensive’ (Wilstein, 2015, Jan. 7).

New York Daily News shows archive photographs of one of the twelve victims – Stephane Charbonnier – who holds the magazine; yet the front page with a caricature is blurred by the New York Daily News graphics.

New York Times spokesman states that ‘[u]nder Times standards, we do not normally publish images or other material deliberately intended to offend religious sensibilities. After careful consideration, Times editors decided that describing the cartoons in question would give readers sufficient information to understand today’s story.’ (Smith, 2015, Jan. 8)

Such media outlets as Bloomberg, Vox, Huffington Post and Daily Beast do not follow this trend. Some of them demonstratively show numerous caricatures, including the most provocative ones and those criticised by the Muslims (Gazeta Wyborcza, 2015).

10. Al-Qaeda and the Climate of Fear

On the 8th day of January, 2015 The Guardian quotes French public poll in the attempt to explain the reasons standing behind the attack on Charlie Hebdo. The data from the poll indicates that ‘in France 80% of French people judged the risk of terrorism in the country as high - a record level. Greater than figures post- 9/11, the London bombings, the killing of Osama bin Laden and the Boston marathon attack’ (Nardelli, 2015, Jan. 8).

Citing scientific research is an effective way to legitimise and give credence to information. After the murder of a dozen or so people committed by the French Muslims, there is nothing that would appeal to people more than the results of the study, which reveal that ‘[l]ooking at the Muslim community specifically, 63% of French voters in the Ipsos study
said that Islam isn’t compatible with the values of French society. Looking at other religious beliefs, 24% said the same for Judaism and 9% for Catholicism. Almost three-quarters, 74%, said Muslims want to impose their values on others Overall, just under 70% of respondents said that religious fundamentalism is a worrying problem that needs to be seriously dealt with. These views are probably not helped by a noticeable gap between perception and reality (ibid.).

However, the editorial staff makes it clear that “numbers alone cannot explain a tragedy, but they can help provide a few of the threads, and the context and clarity needed to better understand complexity” (ibid.).

On the 9th day of January, Le parisien, referring to AP, reports that Kouachi brothers, suspected of the attack on Charlie Hebdo, were in the USA’s Terrorist Identities Datamart Environment (TIDE) system and that Said, older of the two brothers, was trained in Yemen (www.leparisien.fr). [6]

Richard Clarke, a former White House counter-terrorism expert, told ABC news: “This does not look at all like a spontaneous attack or a lone wolf attack,” he told ABC News. “This looks like a team that was selected, trained, probably over the course of a long period of time, and sent in with this particular target in mind.” (Millward, 2015, Jan 9)

On the 9th day of January, NY Times, referring to AP, publishes an article which opens with a statement that the hunt of the two suspected of terrorism has transformed into the fear that the terrorists strike again in the centre of Paris. There is an investigation taking place in order to establish whether the attack was co-ordinated and, if yes, by whom. The profile of Kouachi brothers is described in order to justify these fears; the description comprises their connection to Yemen’s Al-Qaeda. Furthermore, the statement is legitimised by quotations of Michel Thooris, the secretary-general of France's police labor union, who told AP he didn't believe these were “three people isolated in their little world. “This could very well be a little cell,” he said. “There are probably more than three people.” (NYTimes, 2015, Jan 9).

Furthermore, as NY Times writes, ‘French Prime Minister Manuel Valls, speaking in a TV interview late Friday, also indicated [that] authorities are bracing for the possibility of new attacks.’ They quote such Valls’s phrases as, ‘We are facing a major challenge’ and ‘very determined individuals.’ (ibid.)

NY Times, referring to an anonymous American official, claims that Kouachi had travelled to Yemen to train with Al-Qaeda. Furthermore, one of the brothers was sentenced for terrorism whereas the other one was on the USA’s no-fly list. According to the official, investigating officers are still trying to determine whether the attack on Charlie Hebdo headquarters was organised by Al-Qaeda or by the brothers themselves.

The official also states that no evidence that the brothers contacted anyone in the United States has been found; however, this issue is still subject to investigation.

CNN publishes the same news. CNN adds that the US agencies had observed Said and his younger brother Cherif even before the attack. Both of them were on the USA’s no-fly list. According to CNN, American services are trying to determine whether the attack took place on Yemeni Al-Qaeda’s order; so far, there is no proof to indicate so.

11. Where is Charlie?

Week after the tragic events, a new issue of Charlie Hebdo is published. On the 13th day of January, 2015 The Guardian publishes an article with such a warning: ‘this article contains the image of the magazine cover, which some may find offensive’ (Penketh, Weaver, 2015, Jan. 13). The Guardian reminds that 12 people died in the tragic events from the 7th day of January. Then, the content of the newest Charlie Hebdo’s issue is described as follows: ‘The cover shows the prophet shedding a tear and holding up a sign reading “Je suis Charlie” in sympathy with the dead journalists. The headline says “All is forgiven.” At the same time, The Guardian refers to an interview with Zineb El Rhazoui, one of the Charlie Hebdo’s writers who survived the attack and contributed to the new issue of the magazine. As The Guardian reports, “[t]he columnist said the cover was a call to forgive the terrorists who murdered her colleagues last week, saying she did not feel hate towards Chérif and Said Kouachi despite their deadly attack on the magazine, and urged Muslims to accept humour. “We don’t feel any hate to them. We know that the struggle is not with them as people, but the struggle is with an ideology,” she told BBC Radio 4’s Today programme.’

According to the Guardian, the words spoken by Zineb El Rhazoui – ‘The two terrorists who killed our colleagues, we cannot feel any hate … The mobilisation that happened in France after this horrible crime must open the door to forgiveness. Everyone must think about this forgiveness’ – are an answer to the president of British Muslim Association Omer el-Hamdoon, who said, ‘My reaction to the cartoon is disgust, but lending more to annoyance as well because I feel that what’s happening here is not that different from what we witnessed back in 2005 with the Danish cartoons when media outlets went into a cycle of just publishing the cartoons just to show defiance. And what that caused is more offence.’

El Rhazoui explains also that her colleagues ‘died because of small drawings, because of a joke, but what happen to us was not a joke. Muslims must understand that we in Charlie Hebdo just consider Islam as a normal religion just like
any other religion in France. Islam must accept to be treated like all the other religions in this country. And they must accept humour also' (ibid.).

On the 14th day of January, 2015 John Lichfield, Parisian correspondent of The Independent, reports as follows: 'Where’s Charlie? Parisians scrambled and, against all their instincts, queued this morning for a copy of the first edition of Charlie Hebdo since last week’s massacre. Although 3 million copies are to be printed, most newsagents and news kiosks received scarcely more copies than a usual week. By 7am, most newsstands [sic] in the capital were sold out. Long queues formed outside those which opened later'.

When Europe and the USA are flushed with feverish excitement at the newest issue of Charlie Hebdo, in non-Christian parts of the world there are protests against the caricatures; and those are not only verbal.

On the 14th day of January, a week after the attack, NY Times, referring to Reuters, provides information that even though Muslim world leaders condemn the attack on Charlie Hebdo, they consider the publication of another Muhammad’s caricature to be unnecessary provocation and a sign of the lack of respect (NYTimes, 2015, Jan. 14).

The Huffington Post reports on the Muslim reactions in the article ‘Muslims Around The World React To Charlie Hebdo’s New Cover’ (Kuruvilla, 2015 Jan. 14).

Two days later, The Associated Press and Reuters publish the news about the anti-Charlie protests, which took place in Nigeria. The Huffington Post writes that ‘Niger’s interior minister says at least four people have died and dozens have been wounded in violent protests against French newspaper Charlie Hebdo’s publication of a cartoon of the Prophet Muhammad’ (Huffingtonpost, 2015, Jan. 16).

BBC, NY Times, NBCnews, Euronews quoted Reuters that ‘[i]n Niger, demonstrators said they were angered by the latest front cover of Charlie Hebdo this week, which despite the Paris killings again featured a cartoon of Mohammad’ (Reuters 2015, Jan 16).

12. Alternative Voices. Criticism of the Mainstream Narrative

Media reaction after the attack on Charlie Hebdo headquarters and the way in which narrative was created have faced critical analysis in both United Stated and the Middle East.

On the day of the attack, France Internationale Radio (RFI) informs that one of the persons who survived the attack on Charlie Hebdo is Sigolène Vinson, a freelance writer and novelist. After the tragedy, Vinson tells RFI that she survived because one of the attackers said, ‘We do not kill women, but you have to convert to Islam and veil yourself,’ before shouting “Allah Akbar” (RFI, 2015, Jan. 7).

George Conger (2015, Jan. 13) describes in his article ‘NYT vs RFI Over Made-Up Quotes’ how NY Times altered Vinson’s statement from the above mentioned interview in its text, which is published two days after the attack. [7] In the first version of the text, NY Times publishes the following quote:

‘Instead, she told French news media, the man said, “I’m not going to kill you because you’re a woman, we don’t kill women, but you must convert to Islam, read the Quran and cover yourself,” she recalled.’

However, the online version of NY Times publishes a quote, “Don’t be afraid, calm down, I won’t kill you,” the gunman told her in a steady voice, with a calm look in his eyes, she recalled. “You are a woman. But think about what you’re doing. It’s not right.” Then she said he turned to his partner, who was still shooting, and shouted: “We don’t shoot women! We don’t shoot women! We don’t shoot women!”

NY Times is criticised for the rewriting of the quote by Jim Teacher, who claims the magazine to act cowardly. Jim Teacher says, ‘[h]ere’s the latest example of the New York Times censoring itself to avoid offending Muslims after an act of Islamic terror. Nothing about telling her to convert to Islam. Nothing about telling her to read the Quran. Nothing about telling her to cover her face’ (Conger, 2015, Jan. 13).

Soon enough, New York Times changes the text again. In the new version, paragraph on Vinson is as follows:

‘She disputed a quotation attributed to her and carried on the website of the French radio service RFI stating that the gunman had told her she should convert to Islam, read the Quran and cover herself. Instead, she told The New York Times in an interview, the gunman told her: “Don’t be afraid, calm down, I won’t kill you. “ He spoke in a steady voice, she said, with a calm look in his eyes, saying: “You are a woman. But think about what you’re doing. It’s not right.” Then she said he turned to his partner, who was still shooting, and shouted: “We don’t shoot women! We don’t shoot women! We don’t shoot women!”

Both Mirror (Lines, 2015, Jan. 8) and The Guardian (Willsher, 2015 Jan. 14) cite Vinson’s statement in the version published by RFI.

Media outrage over the attack on the freedom of speech is also questioned by Noam Chomsky. [8] In his article for CNN, Chomsky critises the reactions of politicians and journalists who sought an explanation for the attack on Charlie Hebdo headquarters in the Islam culture. He writes that ‘The New York Times described the assault as a “clash of
civilizations," but was corrected by Times columnist Anand Giridharadas, who tweeted that it was "Not & never a war of civilizations or between them. But a war FOR civilization against groups on the other side of that line. #CharlieHebdo" (Chomsky, 2015, Jan. 19).

Chomsky quotes also a report by correspondent Steven Erlanger who described in detail the events from Paris for New York Times in such words: ‘a day of sirens, helicopters in the air, frantic news bulletins; of police cordons and anxious crowds; of young children led away from schools to safety. It was a day, like the previous two, of blood and horror in and around Paris.’

Chomsky criticises the Erlanger’s description of the events in Paris and recalls another event, also reported by the said Erlanger, which took place on the 2nd day of April, 1999. On this day, NATO launched a bombing raid on the headquarters of Serbian television, in the event of which 16 journalists died. Western media described this event as an attempt to overthrow the regime of the President Slobodan Milošević. Chomsky cites the words of Kenneth Bacon, the spokesman of the Pentagon at that time, who said at the press conference in Washington that ‘Serb TV is as much a part of Milosevic’s murder machine as his military is.’ With a hint of sarcasm, Chomsky comments that ‘[t]here were no demonstrations or cries of outrage, no chants of "We are RTV," no inquiries into the roots of the attack in Christian culture and history. On the contrary, the attack on the press was lauded. The highly regarded U. S. diplomat Richard Holbrooke, then envoy to Yugoslavia, described the successful attack on RTV as "an enormously important and, I think, positive development," a sentiment echoed by others’ (ibid.).

In the same article, Chomsky reminds that many journalists died in the summer of 2014, during the Israeli attacks in Gaza as well as in Latin America. He concludes that “[b]ut again, not an assault on freedom of press within living memory’ (ibid.).

On the other hand, Jamil Khader, a dean of research and professor of English at Bethlehem University in Palestine, publishes in AlJazeera his opinion on the Western media narrative after the attack on Charlie Hebdo headquarters. Referring to the events of 9/11, media apply a frame or a point of reference, which is well-known and recognised in the Western world – Islam terrorism (2015, Jan. 14).

According to Khader, ‘[d]espite residues of the Islamophobic rhetoric in representing Islamic terrorism in mainstream media, there is a paradigm shift in the way that media and politicians are framing these incidents. The current neoliberal framework pushes away any radical solution to the problem of fundamentalist-terrorism’ (ibid.).

Brandon Turbeville also voiced a critical opinion on the issue of media. According to Tuberville (2015, Jan. 8), ‘the pathetic left-wing attempts to blame the victim for incitement and focuses on the need to become more politically correct, self-censoring, and linguistically minimal. The vast majority in the middle, however, believe the official mainstream version of events, quake in their boots, and move on to the next form of entertainment provided to them by the culture creators without a second thought. Yet, as is almost always the case, there is much more to the story than is being reported by mainstream outlets. There exist a number of questionable details regarding the Charlie Hebdo attack, as well as the relatively open control over terrorist groups and Islamic jihadists by the French intelligence apparatus, the US, and NATO’ (ibid.).

13. Conclusions

The presented analysis does not exhaust the topic; it is an attempt to understand how the media form narrative in a threatening situation and how they unanimously refer to the same frames of reference, well-known from the past, as well as how the geographic, social and cultural proximity of the threat influences its perception.

Media plurality, such as in the case of Charlie Hebdo, do not result in different narratives. It is difficult to discuss the competition among the news; we rather deal with consumption of the alike news by the most significant European and American media outlets. Only few sources of information serve as a point of reference. Two press agencies dominate; these are AP and AFP. European leaders are often quoted. Histories are told from the perspective of an individual; it gives the human dimension to and domestic character of a tragedy – ‘this happened to our friends, neighbours’.

Two narratives dominate in the analysed media outlets; the first one refers to the freedom of speech, while the second one to the fight with terrorism.

In the West, the attack on Charlie Hebdo headquarters has become a symbol of the fight for freedom of speech. Slogan ‘Je suis Charlie’ (‘I am Charlie’) has become both a symbol of solidarity with the victims and a weapon in the fight with those who threaten the freedom of speech. Journalists, celebrities, and politicians widely and publicly criticise the attack. 3 million copies after the attack is also a form of solidarity. The Associated Press reports that this issue was published in many languages and that 50 times more copies were printed than usual (Kuruvilla, 2015). [9]
The comparison of the attack on Charlie Hebdo to the attack on WTC in 2001 becomes a ready frame to create the narrative of spreading terrorism and the need to fight it. Even though American media (except for few Internet media) unofficially adopt the rule of not posting content which could be provocative to Muslims, they willingly refer to the narrative of fight with terrorism by looking for the connection between Kouachi brothers and Al-Qaeda. American media more frequently refer to the American officials than press agencies.

European media apply a wider frame and they analyse the Parisian events in the context of current European issue, i.e. the immigration of Muslims to Europe. They see immigrants as a threat to the European culture. In the analysis of the narrative in the main European media, references to terrorism and Islamic immigrants, who constitute a real threat to the fundamental European values, can be perceived. They underline the Islamic extremism by repeating that the satirical magazine mocked all religions, including the cartoons of the Pope, yet only Muslims reacted in such a violent way.

According to the Western media, Charlie Hebdo is ‘far from targeting Muslims in particular, the satirical newspaper has ridiculed everyone from English people to the Pope’ (Lewis, L., White, A. (2015, Jan. 7.). The Independent explains to its readers that ‘Charlie Hebdo is a left-leaning French weekly satirical magazine known for its provocative tone and anti-religious stance, and features cartoons, reports, polemics and jokes. The cartoon-led secular magazine mocks religious faiths of all kinds, defends women’s rights, and satirises public figures, from politicians to judges, bankers, and religious founders’ (Eleftheriou-Smith, 2015, Jan. 7).

On the other hand, according to the non-central European stance, ‘much of their [Charlie Hebdo’s] material is offensive, Islamophobic (and anti-Semitic, as well as racist, sexist, and homophobic), and the argument that it is “freedom of speech” is a very crude way to allow offensive material to be published’ (Yazan al-Saadi, 2015, Jan. 8).

The enormous publicity over the first Charlie Hebdo issue after the attack (14th day of January, 2015) resembles the mythological Phoenix arising from the ashes. Despite the attempt to terrorise the journalists, the magazine arises even stronger.

The official outrage on the attack on the freedom of speech and press blends with critical opinions on hypocrisy and lack of solidarity with journalists murdered in different parts of the world.

American media allow more critical opinions to be voiced. Muslim Frenchs comment in the reports; criticism of Charlie Hebdo by European editors [10] and French immigration policy are reminded. But on the day of the attack on Charlie Hebdo headquarters, NBC reports the event on the basis of sole source – the officials of US government (Conger, 2015, Jan. 10).

In general, the analysis of available mainstream media outlets proves that:

- Opinions of the persons of high status and official positions are over-represented in the news reported by the media.
- Media focus predominantly on the members of political and social elites.
- Universal values, strengthening the status quo, are the most underlined social values. The freedom of speech is presented as the most significant Western value and the heart of democracy.
- Foreign news focuses on the closest, richest, and strongest countries. Reports from countries outside Europe are limited to short news agencies reports.
- Media outlets display a tendency towards ethnocentrism. European countries represent the most regarded values: freedom, brotherhood, tolerance.
- Ethnic minorities and immigrants are marginalised or stigmatised. Islamic culture threatens the Western values and, thus, the extremism should be fought with (see McQuail, 2005).

To sum up, we are the witnesses of the creation of a new frame; a frame, which will be undoubtedly used by the media to describe similar conflicts in the future.

References


Footnotes

1. Ed Herman, Professor Emeritus of Wharton School, University of Pennsylvania; co-author (with Noam Chomsky) of the breakthrough book ‘Manufacturing Consent’.

2. Translation mine: PK

3. ‘Je suis abasourdi et horrifié par la brutalité et la lâcheté de cette attaque frontale à la liberté d’expression’ (retrieved from http://www.lessentiel.lu/fr/news/france/story/22976860). L’essentiel was established in 2007 and is published in French.

4. It’s mean rich Western countries (I. W-Z).

5. A poll released in France by Ifop on the 5th day of January, 2015.

6. Le parisien refers to the AFP whereas the same information appeared as own information on the 8th Day of January at http://news.yahoo.com/terror-suspects-in-charlie-hebdo-massacre-were-on-u-s---no-fly--list-212840229.html


8. Noam Chomsky, Professor Emeritus of Linguistics, is known for his critical media analysis and critical approach towards internal and foreign politics.


Back to Work with Small Children Comparative Analyses of Maternity/Paternity Leave in the Member States of the European Union

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Abstract

The paper contributes to the debate on how to increase fertility. The design of maternity/paternity leave in the 28 member states of the European Union (EU) is researched by secondary analyses on Eurostat and MISSOC databases. Results are presented by three categories of member states: EU founders, other old member states, and Central and East European (CEE) countries. The first part of the article overviews 1960-2012 demographic trends. The second part compares maternity/paternity leave as regulations, applicable statutory basis, basic principles and qualification conditions for benefits in kind and cash benefits, and the duration. 2012 EU-28 confronted the second highest values of deaths recorded for the period 1960-2012 while EU-28 births scored the lowest value since 2006. Updates for maternity/paternity leave date since 2000 in 24 out of EU-28. Five member states follow pre-accession regulations. Legislation focuses specifically on maternity/paternity leave was adopted in 14 member states. Affiliation to compulsory social insurance scheme is the basic principle in providing benefits in kind and cash benefits. Half of member states do not request qualifying conditions for benefits in kind while six don’t request any conditions for cash benefits. As duration, the pre-natal maternity leave implies either a precise period of time; either the total leave is to be shared with the post-natal periods. Pre-natal parental leave is regulated in only one country (Estonia); while post-natal is available in 21 member states. Maternity/paternity leave in the case of adoption is regulated in 21 EU member states.

Keywords: EU-28, population change, demographic drivers, fertility rate, maternity/paternity leave, benefits in kind, cash benefits

1. Introduction

Harmonisation of acquis communautaire in the social field within adherence to EU process by each candidate country, and further engagement towards achieving common targets (Europe 2020) question the post-accession development of national frameworks. On one hand, the European social model is challenged by newly entered member states, and one the other hand, the EU accession shape their social policy design (Vaughan-Whitehead, 2004, 496-501; Vonica, Raduti 2004: 55-56, Stănescu, 2006, 101-102; Kvist, Saari, 2007, 246-248; Uzlau et al, 2009, 26-29; Cerami et al, 2009, 124-126; Stănescu, 2013, 173-177, Stănescu, 2014, 191-192). From this perspective, the article offer a comparable comprehensive picture of provision of maternity/paternity leave as strategic elements in supporting EU-28 fertility.

The „Incomplete revolution” draws attention to the way public institutions respond to the new role of women in society (Esping-Andersen, 2009). Current family is challenged by demographic trends (Rotaru, 2009, 102-107; Popescu, 2009, 177-181; Ghetau, 2012, 56-58); postponement of marriages and children (Kuronen, 2010, 9; Muresan, 2014, 147-148), precarious work and unemployment especially for women from vulnerable groups (Preoteasa, 2013, 165-166; Balan et al, 2014, 17-18; Vlase, 2014, 253-255); family conflicts (Turiciu et al, 2013, 42-46), the quality of community life (Mihalache, 2011, 138-139), migration (Balan et al, 2013, 78); provision of cash benefits and social services and the orientation of family support policies (Stanescu, 2014, 779-782). The degree of appropriateness answer to needs in taking care of the children have a direct consequence on children as they risk to be neglected or abused, to drop out school or to become delinquent (Neamtu, 2007, 212-233; Cojocaru, 2009, 70; Panzaru et al, 2013, 33; Luca, 2014, 37-41; Tomita, 2014, 83-84).

2. Methodology

The first part of the article analysis the demographic trends in the EU-28 member states for the period 1960-2012: number of births and death, population change, demographic drivers, and fertility rate (live births per women). The second part focuses on national regulations adopted in the EU-28 with respect to maternity/paternity leave as
chronological development of national regulations, basic principles, types of benefits (in kind, cash); and duration of leave. The third part of the paper is focus on conclusions and further research directions.

In terms of methodology, secondary analysis and content analysis were used for Eurostat, the statistical office of the EU and the Mutual Information System on Social Protection (MISSOC) database of the European Commission, Directorate-General for Employment, Social Affairs, and Equal Opportunities. Desk research allows that national information was double checked and improved updates were added.

Compared EU-28 research outputs were presented in relation to their accession to the EU by the following typology: the EU founder states1, other old member states than EU founders2, and Central and East European (CEE) member states3 (Stănescu, Nemtanu, 2015). The paper continues previous research done on EU member states and on family benefits as part of a post-doctoral programme as acknowledged.

3. Demographic Trends

According to Eurostat data for the period 1961-2012, the number of EU-28 births continues to decrease while the number of EU-28 deaths is slowly increasing.

The highest value of births was registered in 1964 with 7.81 millions while the lowest one was recorded in 2002 with 5.03 millions. In 2012, the number of births was 5.23 millions representing the lowest since 2006, and one of the lowest for the period 1961-2012.

The number of deaths scored the highest value in 1993 with 5.03 millions, and the lowest one in 1961 with 4.14 millions. Both in 2012, and in 1985, the second highest EU-28 value of deaths was registered: 5.01 millions.

The EU-28 natural change as the difference between live births, and number of deaths registered top three highest values during the 1960s: 3.6 millions in 1964, 3.5 millions in 1961, and 3.3 millions in both 1963, and in 1965. Lowest values of natural change were recorded starting with the mid 1990s: 0.1 million in both 2002 and 2003; and 0.2 millions for the period 1995-1999, for 2001, and for 2012.

![Figure 1: Births and deaths, EU-28, 1961–2012 (million)](image-url)

Source: Eurostat

Note: 1960 not available. Excluding French overseas departments up to and including 1997

The EU-28 total population change for the period 1960-2012 registered the highest three values during the 1960s: in 1962 with 10.16 per 1000 inhabitants; in 1964 with 8.43; and in 1963 with 8.35. Lowest values of total population change were recorded during the second half of the 1990s: in 1997 with 1.39; in 1998 with 1.44, and in 1996 with 1.53.

Net migration and statistical adjustment as the total change minus natural change registered the highest EU-28 values during the 2000s: 3.66 in 2003, 3.41 in 2004, and 2.63 in 2006. To the contrary, the lowest values were registered in 1970 (-1.60), in 1982 (-0.52), and in 1967 (-0.49).

1 France, Germany, Italy, The Netherlands, Belgium, and Luxembourg
2 Denmark, Ireland, United Kingdom, Greece, Portugal, Spain, Austria, Finland, and Sweden
3 Cyprus, Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Malta, Poland, Slovakia, Slovenia; Bulgaria, Romania, and Croatia
Figure 2: Population change by component (annual crude rates), EU-28, 1960–2012 (per 1000 inhabitants)

Source: Eurostat


In respect to EU-28 population change between 1st of January 2012 and 2013 by the three analysed categories of EU member states, demographic drivers led to growth. It was the case of all six EU founder states; five out of nine other old member states than the EU founders, and five out of 13 CEE member states. Growth due only to natural change was not registered in any EU founder states, but this was the case of Ireland and Cyprus. None of the CEE countries registered positive population change because the population growth was faced with the negative net migration (and adjustment).

No population decline was registered in the six EU founder states. In the case of other old member states, the population decline was not due to natural change but, similar to the new member-state, some of these states (Greece, Portugal, and Spain) recorded decline because of net migration (and adjustments), and to negative migrations (and adjustments).

Table 1: Contribution of natural change and net migration (and statistical adjustment) to population change, 2012

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Population growth</th>
<th>EU founder states</th>
<th>Other old member states</th>
<th>CEE member states</th>
<th>Population decline</th>
<th>EU founder states</th>
<th>Other old member states</th>
<th>CEE member states</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Only to natural change</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>IE</td>
<td>CY</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>HU, RO</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More to natural change</td>
<td>FR, NL</td>
<td>UK</td>
<td>SI</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>BG, HR</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More to net migration (and adjustment)</td>
<td>BE, LU</td>
<td>DK, FI, SW</td>
<td>CZ, MT, SK</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>EE, PT</td>
<td>ET, LV, LT</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Only to negative net migration (and adjustment)</td>
<td>DE, IT</td>
<td>AT</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>ES</td>
<td>PL</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Eurostat

For the period 1960-2012, the highest values of fertility rates as live births per women developed different trends among the three categories of EU member states.

Top position for EU founder states was shared by two countries: The Netherlands and France.

The category of other old member states than EU founders was the most stable one with the same country occupying top position except for one year. Ireland had highest values of fertility rates except for 1990 when Sweden registered 2,13 (comparable with 2,11 in Ireland). It is to be mention that abortion is allowed in Ireland only to safe the life of the women. At EU-28 level, abortion restrictions in Ireland are surpassed only by Malta where even above mention ground is strictly forbidden.

The situation of fertility rates in the CEE member states is differentiated as six out of the 13 countries ranked on top positions. The highest values were registered three times in Estonia (2005, 2010, and 2011); twice in Slovakia (1960 and 1970); and once in Romania (1980); in Cyprus (1990); in Malta (2000); and in Lithuania (2012). It was noticed a slight difference in the case of Croatia which registered 1,50 in 2005 as compared with top 1,52 for Estonia.
In terms of highest value per categories of countries, the EU founders members registered fertility rate of 3.12 in 1960 in the Netherlands, while other old member state had rates of as had 3.85 in 1970 in Ireland, and CEE registered fertility rates of registered 3.04 in 1960 in Slovakia. Looking at the highest value of fertility rates indicator, we notice that the lowest values registered per category of countries were: 1.78 (in 1990 in France as representative for the EU founder states category); 1.86 in 2005 in Ireland (for the category of other old member states); and 1.52 also in 2005 in Estonia (for the CEE member states).

Table 2: Highest values of fertility rates per categories of member states of the European Union

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>EU founder states</th>
<th>Other old member states</th>
<th>Central and Eastern member states</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1960</td>
<td>3.12 Netherlands</td>
<td>2.78 Ireland</td>
<td>3.04 Slovakia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1970</td>
<td>2.57 Netherlands</td>
<td>3.85 Ireland</td>
<td>2.41 Slovakia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1980</td>
<td>1.95 France</td>
<td>3.21 Ireland</td>
<td>2.43 Romania</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1990</td>
<td>1.78 France</td>
<td>2.13 Sweden</td>
<td>2.41 Cyprus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>1.89 France</td>
<td>1.89 Ireland</td>
<td>1.70 Malta</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>1.94 France</td>
<td>1.86 Ireland</td>
<td>1.52 Estonia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>2.03 France</td>
<td>2.05 Ireland</td>
<td>1.72 Estonia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011</td>
<td>2.01 France</td>
<td>2.03 Ireland</td>
<td>1.61 Estonia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012</td>
<td>2.01 France</td>
<td>2.01 Ireland</td>
<td>1.60 Lithuania</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Eurostat

We analyse bellow the lowest values registered for the fertility rate looking at top ranked countries and their recorded values. Looking at the EU founder states, Luxembourg occupied this position three consecutive times (1960, 1970, and 1980), and than Italy follows for three times in this ranking (1990, 2000, and 2005). Starting with 2004, Germany is constantly the EU founder state with the lowest fertility rate.

Lowest fertility rates in other old member states than the EU founder states was recorded in two north countries (in 1970 in Finland and in 1980 in Denmark), followed by two south countries Greece (1960, 2005, and 2012); and Spain (1990, 2000, 2010, and 2011). The slight value difference can be noticed which was registered in Spain in respectively 1.33, as compared with 1.32 in Greece.

Five out of the 13 CEE member states, registered lowest values of fertility rates: three times in Hungary (1980, 2000, and 2011); twice in the Czech Republic (1970 and 2000); twice in Poland (2005 and 2012); and once in Estonia (1960); and in Slovenia (1990). Estonia is the only country which was present in both top rankings: as the country with the lowest fertility rate in 1960 and the highest one in 2005, 2010, and 2011. An in-depth national analysis of the reasons behind this change is not the topic of the present paper but these findings could be further developed and could support the identifying process of best practices in the pro-fertility field that would have the potential to be adjusted for other EU national contexts.

Table 3: Lowest values of fertility rates per categories of member states of the European Union

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>EU founder states</th>
<th>Other old member states</th>
<th>Central and Eastern member states</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1960</td>
<td>2.29 Luxembourg</td>
<td>2.23 Greece</td>
<td>1.98 Estonia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1970</td>
<td>1.97 Luxembourg</td>
<td>1.83 Finland</td>
<td>1.92 Czech Republic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1980</td>
<td>1.50 Luxembourg</td>
<td>1.55 Denmark</td>
<td>1.91 Hungary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1990</td>
<td>1.33 Italy</td>
<td>1.36 Spain</td>
<td>1.46 Slovenia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>1.26 Italy</td>
<td>1.23 Spain</td>
<td>1.15 Czech Republic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>1.34 Italy</td>
<td>1.32 Greece</td>
<td>1.24 Poland</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>1.39 Germany</td>
<td>1.37 Spain</td>
<td>1.25 Hungary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011</td>
<td>1.36 Germany</td>
<td>1.34 Spain</td>
<td>1.26 Hungary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012</td>
<td>1.38 Germany</td>
<td>1.32 Spain</td>
<td>1.30 Poland</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Eurostat

Different statistic data are provided by Eurostat for Slovakia and for the Czech Republic before 1989. Still, while Slovakia
held the top position in 1970, the Czech Republic registered the lowest values among CEE countries. The differences due to different regulations in supporting families are not approached in this paper but they could bring further insights in this matter.

4. Chronological Development of Regulations of Maternity/Paternity Leave

Recent updates in maternity/paternity leave in 24 analysed countries date since 2000. The four exceptions are: Austria with regulations from 1967; United Kingdom back in 1992; and Belgium and Hungary since 1997. The newest EU-28 legislative modifications were adopted by Bulgaria in 2014.

Among EU founder states, Belgium preserves its regulations since 1997 while latest changes were registered in 2012 in Germany and in Italy. In the case of France the modifications in maternity/paternity leave are impacted also by the Social Security Code which is regularly updated.

Table 4: Recent regulations of maternity/paternity leave within founder members of the European Union

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Country</th>
<th>EU</th>
<th>Latest regulations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>France</td>
<td>1951</td>
<td>2015</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>1951</td>
<td>2012</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>1951</td>
<td>2012</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>The Netherlands</td>
<td>1951</td>
<td>2005</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Belgium</td>
<td>1951</td>
<td>1997</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: MISSOC data base

Within other old member states than EU founders, Austria is the only case where latest regulations date before its accession to the EU. The newest ones are in Denmark, since 2013, 30 years after becoming a member state. In comparison with the moment of joining the EU, latest regulations date 32 years after EU accession in Ireland; 23 years after in both Spain and Portugal; 19 years after in United Kingdom and Greece; 15 years after in Sweden; and nine years in Finland.

Table 5: Recent regulations of maternity/paternity leave within other old member states except founder states of the European Union

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Latest regulations</th>
<th>EU accession</th>
<th>Latest regulations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Ireland</td>
<td>1973</td>
<td>1973</td>
<td>2005</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: MISSOC data base

Four CEE countries provide maternity/paternity leave following updated regulations adopted before their EU accession. It is the case of: Hungary and Croatia (seven years before); Lithuania (four years before), and Estonia (two years before).

Eight CEE countries changed their regulations after joining EU: Poland and Slovakia in 2004; Czech Republic and Romania (three years after); Bulgaria (seven years after); and Cyprus, Latvia, and Slovenia (nine years after). Maternity/paternity leave in Malta is governed by the Social Security Act.
Table 6: Recent regulations of maternity/paternity leave within Central and Eastern European member states

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Latest regulations</th>
<th>EU accession</th>
<th>Latest regulations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Cyprus</td>
<td>2004</td>
<td>2013</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Czech Republic</td>
<td>2004</td>
<td>2008</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Estonia</td>
<td>2002</td>
<td>2004</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Latvia</td>
<td>2004</td>
<td>2013</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Malta</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2004</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Poland</td>
<td>2004</td>
<td>2004</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>Slovenia</td>
<td>2004</td>
<td>2013</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.</td>
<td>Romania</td>
<td>2007</td>
<td>2010</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.</td>
<td>Croatia</td>
<td>2008</td>
<td>2013</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: MISSOC data base

5. Applicable Statutory Basis for Maternity/Paternity Leave

Depending on the national legislative frameworks, maternity/paternity leave is governed by various normative types such as: acts, codes, laws, emergency ordinances, and decrees. No common trend was identified in EU-28 analysed countries.

Still, dedicated normative acts on the subject of maternity/paternity are in force in 14 member states. The detailed picture is as follows: three EU founder states (Belgium, Italy, and The Netherlands); four other old member states (Denmark, Finland, Portugal, and Sweden); and seven CEE member states (Croatia, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, Romania, Slovakia, and Slovenia). Laws on protecting working mothers were adopted in Germany and in Italy.

Maternity/paternity leave is also regulated under complementary legislative acts under various subjects such as:

- health care (Belgium, Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, Hungary, Ireland, Italy, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, Slovakia, Slovenia, and The Netherlands);
- social insurance (Austria, Bulgaria, Cyprus, Czech Republic, Greece, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, Slovakia, and Sweden);
- labour (Belgium, Bulgaria, Denmark, France, Malta, Portugal, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain, and The Netherlands);
- social security (France, Germany, Luxembourg, Malta, Spain, and United Kingdom);
- equal treatment between men and women (Italy and Spain);
- family (Austria);
- social welfare (Hungary);
- child (Romania).

6. Basic Principles of Providing Maternity/Paternity Leave

The main principle in providing benefits in kind and cash benefits related to maternity leave is the affiliation to compulsory social insurance scheme. In Denmark it is in-force the universal public health service for benefits in kind, and universal protection scheme for cash benefits. A similar situation is in Finland. Voluntary insurances are available for self-employed persons in Bulgaria, in Czech Republic, and in Slovakia. In The Netherlands not insured self-employed can apply for cash benefits. In Finland, Portugal, Spain, and United Kingdom special cash benefits are available for parents who do not satisfy the minimum conditions for ordinary maternity/paternity support.

Residency criteria is specifically mentioned in Bulgaria, France, Ireland, Italy, Latvia, Malta, Poland, Portugal, Slovakia, Sweden, The Netherlands, and United Kingdom. A further research on eligibility criteria for being socially insured in other EU member states than above mentioned ones would probably support the idea of residency for more countries than the ones explicitly referring to it. In The Netherlands working non-residents are entitled for benefits in kind.
Unauthorised foreigners in Spain are entitled to receive health care during pregnancy, birth and postpartum. Other expressions used when referring to potential beneficiaries of maternity/paternity leave are:

- all inhabitants (Denmark, Finland, Ireland, Italy, Latvia, Portugal, and Romania);
- members of the family (Belgium and Spain);
- active population and assimilated groups (Poland and Spain);
- national (Bulgaria);
- certain categories of citizens (Cyprus);
- female dependants (Greece);
- various other groups (Hungary);
- employees and assimilated (Italy);
- spouses of residents (Malta).

Profession related insurance approach for maternity/paternity leave is applicable in one EU founder (France), and two CEE member states (Lithuania and Slovakia). In the case of benefits in kind in France the difference is made between compulsory social insurance scheme with affiliation based firstly on professional criteria and secondly based on residency. Similarly, special schemes applies for certain professional categories in Lithuania (officers of the police, state security, defence and related services financed by the state), and in Slovakia (for policemen, soldiers, and customs officers).

7. Benefits in Kind Related to Maternity/Paternity Leave

Half of the EU member states do not request any qualifying condition. It is the case of three EU founder states (Germany, Luxembourg, and The Netherlands); three other old member states (Austria, Finland, and Spain); and eight CEE countries (Croatia, Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Poland, Romania, and Slovenia).

Frequent eligibility criteria for benefits in kind are: residence (Cyprus, Denmark, Ireland, Portugal, Slovakia Sweden, and United Kingdom); previous contribution to insurance scheme (Belgium, France, Greece, and Malta); working status (Sweden). In Cyprus citizenship as eligibility criteria is not applicable for beneficiaries of public assistance. In Italy the beneficiary should be registered at the National Health Service.

Various forms of benefits in kind are offered in analysed EU-28 member states. They include free medical services/midwife care during the pregnancy, birth, and postpartum; pharmaceutical products; or forms of exemption or reimbursements of payments of various patients’ fees and contributions. Monitoring and assistance during labour, and delivery at home are provided in Belgium. In slightly different conditions due to recent changes they are also available in Hungary. Home care is offered in Germany. In Slovenia includes two visits of the nurse. In Greece childbirth benefit is provided for women giving birth out of hospital facilities (for example at home). Different amounts are supported for hospitalisation in private clinics in Greece depending on their contracts with the National Health System. A maternity package with necessities for child care (or its 140 euro equivalent) is offered in Finland.

8. Cash Benefits Related to Maternity/Paternity Leave

Six EU member states do not request any qualifying conditions: two EU founder (Italy and The Netherlands); one other old member state (Austria); and three CEE countries (Latvia, Poland, and Malta).

The most frequent condition for receiving cash benefits is the previous contributions to insurance scheme (Belgium, Bulgaria, Croatia, Cyprus, Denmark, France, Greece, Hungary, Ireland, Lithuania, Portugal, Romania, Slovenia, and Sweden). The insured period vary between 26 weeks (Cyprus); to six months (Belgium, Luxembourg, and Portugal); 240 days (Sweden); 270 days in the last two years (Czech Republic and Slovakia); and 12 months (Bulgaria, Croatia, and Lithuania).

Insurances contributions with interruptions are accepted in Croatia (18 months during last two years); in Denmark (120 hours worked in previous 13 weeks); in Greece (200 days during last two years); in Ireland (39 contributions paid or credited one year before for employees and 52 contributions within last, second last or third last year for self-employed); in Lithuania (12 months insurance during past 24 months); in Romania (1 month in the last 12 months); and in Spain (180 contributions in the previous seven years before birth or 360 contributions days in the whole working life).

Other eligibility conditions include: working status (Estonia); and determined period of previous residency (Finland). No minimum working contribution is required in Spain in the case of workers under 21 years.

Other eligible categories of beneficiaries include unemployed entitled to unemployment insurance, persons
finalising a vocational course within previous 18 months, beneficiaries of activation measures on the labour market, students in paid internship, or people in a flexible job. A ten days benefit is paid in Sweden for parents who refrain from work in connection wit the death of their child under 18 years child.

9. Duration of Maternity/Paternity Leave

Analyse includes two dimensions: before and after birth periods, and support measures allocated by gender. By categories of EU member states, the EU founder states is the most stable category providing similar pre-natal and post-natal coverage of maternity/paternity leave. The following category is represented by CEE member states. All EU founder states provide pre natal and post-natal maternity leave. None of them provides pre-natal paternity leave. Post-natal paternity leave is provided in all six countries except Germany.

As for the category other old member states than EU founders, pre-natal maternity leave is regulated except Spain. Post-natal paternity leave is not provided while the post-natal one is provided in five countries: Denmark, Spain, Portugal, Finland, and United Kingdom.

Pre-natal and post-natal maternity leave are regulated in all CEE member states. Estonia is the only EU country providing pre-natal paternity leave which optionally could be taken after the birth. Post-natal paternity leave is provided in nine CEE states.

Table 7: Provision of maternity/paternity leave in EU-28 member states

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>EU founder states</th>
<th>Other old member states</th>
<th>CEE member states</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre-natal maternity leave</td>
<td>BE, DE, FR, IT, LU, NL</td>
<td>DK, IE, EL, AT, PT, FI, SW, UK</td>
<td>BG, CZ, ET, HR, CY, LV, LT, HU, MT, PL, RO, SI, SK</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-natal paternity leave</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>ET</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-natal maternity leave</td>
<td>BE, DE, FR, IT, LU, NL</td>
<td>DK, IE, EL, ES, AT, PT, FI, SW, UK</td>
<td>BG, CZ, ET, HR, CY, LV, LT, HU, MT, PL, RO, SI, SK</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-natal paternity leave</td>
<td>BE, FR, IT, LU, NL</td>
<td>DK, ES, PT, FI, UK</td>
<td>BG, ET, LV, LT, HU, MT, PL, RO, SI</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Author’s calculations based on MISSOC data base

Two cases of before birth maternity leave were identified: either a precise period of time is mentioned, either a total amount of time to be split between pre-natal and post-natal periods. Countries from the first category are: Belgium, Croatia, Denmark, France, Germany, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Romania, Slovakia, Spain, and Sweden. The second category includes: Austria, Bulgaria, Cyprus, Czech Republic, Estonia, Finland, Greece, Hungary, Ireland, Italy, Latvia, Malta, Poland, Portugal, Slovenia, The Netherlands, and United Kingdom. Some countries from the first category offer the possibility to add the remaining pre-natal maternity leave to the post-natal one. It is the case of Belgium, France, Germany, and Romania. A further research on this particular aspect would support a better understanding of pre-natal common trends in EU-28.

Table 8: Provision of pre-natal maternity leave by regulated amount of time

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>EU founder states</th>
<th>Other old member states</th>
<th>Central and Eastern member states</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fixed</td>
<td>BE, FR, DE, LU</td>
<td>DK, ES, SW</td>
<td>HR, LT, RO, SK</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flexible</td>
<td>IT, NL</td>
<td>AT, PT, FI, ES, IE, UK</td>
<td>BG, CY, CZ, ET, HU, LV, MT, PL, SI</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Author’s calculations based on MISSOC data base

Maternity leave in analysed EU-28 member states include different periods of time as follows:
- eight weeks (Austria);
- 14 weeks (Belgium, Germany, Malta, and Sweden);
- 15 weeks (Finland and Slovenia);
- 16 weeks (France, Latvia, Luxembourg, Spain, and The Netherlands);
- 17 weeks (Greece);
- 18 weeks (Cyprus, Denmark, Lithuania, and Romania);
• 20 weeks (Estonia and Poland);
• 24 weeks (Hungary);
• 26 weeks (Ireland);
• 28 weeks (Czech Republic);
• 34 weeks (Slovakia);
• 52 weeks (United Kingdom);
• 120 or 150 days (Portugal);
• five months (Italy);
• seven months (Croatia);
• 420 days (Bulgaria).

The compulsory maternity leave period is mentioned rather after the birth than before the birth. Still, compulsory pre-natal leave varies between minimum one week in Belgium and a maximum of four weeks in The Netherlands. Regardless the two above mentioned category of time regulation, other recommended period of pre-natal leave are:
• two weeks (Ireland);
• four weeks (Denmark, Estonia, Hungary, Italy, Portugal, Slovenia, and The Netherlands);
• five weeks (Malta);
• six weeks (Belgium, Bulgaria France, and Germany);
• seven weeks (Sweden);
• 56 days (Greece and Latvia)
• 30-50 days (Finland);
• 63 days (Romania)
• Between the 9th and 2nd weeks (Cyprus);
• Six to eight weeks (Czech Republic, Poland, and Slovakia);
• 11 weeks (United Kingdom);
• 70 days (Lithuania).

Special cases (multiple births, complication, premature, hospitalisation, and Caesarean) implies additional period of leave in Austria, Belgium, Croatia, Czech Republic, France, Germany, Poland, Latvia, Lithuania, and in Spain. Benefits for risk during pregnancy are provided in Portugal and in Spain.

When regulated, the compulsory post-natal maternity leave could include: four weeks (Ireland); six weeks (Czech Republic, Romania); or nine weeks (Belgium). For more details please consult Annex 1: Duration of maternity/paternity leave in EU-28 ember states.

The only country mentioning conditions for paternity leave is Estonia where ten days can be taken either before or after the delivery. The minimum numbers of days for post-natal paternity leave is one compulsory day in Italy while the maximum is 54 days in Finland. Other allocated amounts of time are:
• two days (Luxembourg, Malta, and the Netherlands);
• five days (in Hungary and Romania);
• One or two weeks (United Kingdom);
• ten days (Belgium, Estonia, Latvia, and Portugal);
• 11 days (France);
• 14 days (Denmark and Poland);
• 15 days (Bulgaria and Slovenia);
• 18 days (in France in the case of multiple births);
• four weeks (Lithuania and Spain);
• 54 days (Finland).

Additional days for paternity leave are available: two days in Italy; ten days in both Romania (if the father graduates an infant care course) and Portugal; and 75 days in Slovenia.

No post-natal paternity leave is regulated in Austria, Croatia, Cyprus, Czech Republic, Germany, Greece, Ireland, Slovakia, and Sweden. Still, in some of these countries fathers are supported by other means. In Croatia, the father can continue the maternity leave but only after 70 days after birth. In Ireland some employers provide paid leave even if it is not compulsory in the country. Reduced working hours are available in Greece for parents after an additional special maternity leave (which follows the ordinary maternity leave and can be up to six months).

Some countries support the involvement of both mothers and fathers in the child care during first months. Two
sets of measures were identified: either by the possibility to transfer the remained time from not used maternity leave to
the father; either by common parental leave (32 weeks in Denmark before the 9th birthday of the child, 158 days in
Finland, and three months in Portugal). The Slovenian father can take 75 days unpaid leave till the third anniversary of
the child. The Romanian father should take one month out of the 12 child raising leave which follows the maternity leave.
Difference between employed and self-employed people when touching maternity benefits is made in both Belgium
and France. Special maternity allowance is offered for Finish mothers if the working environment exposed them to
chemical substances, radiation, or to an infectious disease. Austrian post-natal maternity leave is provided for the
duration of an individual employment prohibition. Reduced working hours for parents are regulated in Denmark, in
Greece, and in Sweden. A benefit for risk is paid for Spanish breastfeeding working mothers till child reaches nine
months of age.

The Finish maternity/paternity leave includes consecutive calendar days except Sundays. Calendar days are also
mentioned in Latvia and in Lithuania.

Portuguese grandparents are entitled to substitute parents in leave if special conditions are accomplished (i.e. living in the same household or parents less than 16 years).

Adoption maternity/paternity leave is regulated in 21 EU member states as follows: five EU founders (Belgium, France, Italy, Luxembourg, and the Netherlands); eight other old member states (Denmark, Finland, Greece, Ireland, Poland, Portugal, Spain, and United Kingdom); and eight CEE countries (Bulgaria, Croatia, Cyprus, Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Slovakia, and Slovenia).

Regarding continued payment of maternity/paternity leave by the employer, no statutory continuation is regulated
in 21 EU member states: half of EU founder states (Belgium, Luxembourg, and The Netherlands); seven other old
member states (Austria, Denmark, Finland, Ireland, Portugal, Spain, and Sweden), and 12 CEE countries (except Malta).

Employer is involved in the payment for differences in the case of poor employees (Austria); or for the differences
between maternity benefits and salary (France and Germany). Payments are also supported by the employer in line with
additional conditions included in collective agreements (Cyprus and Spain). Certain periods of time are supported by
employers from Belgium (first three days of the paternity/adoption leave); from Greece (15 days/one months depending of
number of completed worked days); and from Malta (14 weeks of maternity leave, and two days of paternity leave).

10. Conclusions

First part of the paper overviews demographic trends in EU-28. Eurostat 1960-2012 data showed a decreased number of
births and an increased number of deaths. As shown in figure 1, EU-28 births in 2012 scored the lowest value since
2006 while the number of death was the second higher one since 1960.

Demographic drivers conducted to population growth in 17 member states: all EU founder states, six other old
member states than EU founders, and five CEE countries. No growth only to natural change was registered in EU
founder states. No population decline due only to or more to natural change was recorded in the category of other old
member states than EU founders.

1960-2012 fertility rates showed different patterns within the three categories of member states. Top position as
highest fertility rates within other old member states was occupied by Ireland (except for 1990); while The Netherlands
and France shared top positions among EU founders. Six CEE countries occupied this position among which Estonia
three for three consecutive periods of time. The highest value for 1960-2012 was 3,85 registered in 1970 in Ireland, country where abortion is only allowed to save the life of the women.

The second part of the article compares provision of maternity/paternity leave in EU-28 by the three categories of
EU member states. Analysed aspects were the following: national regulations, applicable statutory basis, basic principles
and qualification conditions in providing benefits in kind and cash benefits, as well as the duration of maternity/paternity
leave.

Updated regulations for maternity/paternity leave date since 2000 in 24 out of EU-28. Among other old member
states than EU founders, Austria is the only country which still follows pre-accession adopted regulation. The same
applies for four CEE member states: Estonia, Hungary, Lithuania, and Croatia.

From the applicable statutory basis, special legislative acts on maternity/paternity leave were adopted in 14
member states: three EU founder states, four other old member states, and seven CEE countries. Complementary
regulations with impact on maternity/paternity leave refers to various issues such as health care, social insurance, labour,
social security, equal treatment between men and women, family, social welfare, and child.

Main basic principle in providing benefits in kind and cash benefits related to maternity/paternity leave is the
affiliation to compulsory social insurance scheme. Some countries accept contributory periods with interruptions.
Half of EU-28 member states do not request qualifying conditions for providing benefits in kind. Still, eligibility criteria include residence, previous contribution to insurance scheme, or working status. Six EU member states don’t request qualifying conditions for cash benefits. Still, the most frequent condition is previous contribution to insurance scheme.

Duration of maternity/paternity leave was analysed as pre-natal and post-natal regulated for both mothers and fathers. Per category of EU member states, CEE counties covered all four types of leave (pre-natal and post-natal leave for both men and women).

Two cases of before birth maternity leave were identified: either a precise period of time is mentioned, either a total amount of time to be split between pre-natal and post-natal periods. Detailed analysis for each category are included in the article.

21 EU member states regulate adoption maternity/paternity leave as follows: five EU founders (except Germany); eight other old member states (expect Austria); and eight CEE countries (except Latvia, Lithuania, Malta, Poland, and Romania).

Continued payment of maternity/paternity leave is not regulated in 21 member states. In other states, the employer is involved in the payment related to income differences or to regulated periods of time.

Research on maternity/paternity leave will be continued with analysis of complementary family benefits. Few questions arise. To what extent are the current maternity/paternity leave related regulations suitable in the child delivery and care process? Which elements are to be further adjusted? Are the parents really supported in the process of having and raising a child? Can parents go back to work having small children at home?

Despite common interest for family within current demographic trends, the design of family support policies is to be further tackled and, in this respect, one of first steps is a better harmonisation of maternity/paternity leave among EU-28.

Home-work struggle for balance and population change call for a friendly approach of designed social policy measures. One cannot dream about sustainable demographic scenario without paying proper attention to efficiency of child delivery and care process.

11. Acknowledgement

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Neamtu, N. 2007. Succes si esec in plasamentul familial, in contextul reformei sistemului de protectie a copilului din Romania, Cluj-Napoca, Accent
Annex 1: Duration of maternity/paternity leave in EU-28 ember states

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Before birth</th>
<th>After birth</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Austria</td>
<td>8 weeks (before + after)</td>
<td>6 weeks /12 (pregnancy, multiple birth or Caesarean)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belgium</td>
<td>6 weeks (1 compulsory)/8 (multiple births)</td>
<td>9 mandatory weeks (+remained prenatal)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bulgaria</td>
<td>410 days (45 before + after)</td>
<td>410 days (before + after)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Croatia</td>
<td>28 days/45 days (complications)</td>
<td>6 months</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cyprus</td>
<td>18 weeks (before + after)</td>
<td>18 weeks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Czech Republic</td>
<td>28 weeks /37 days (multiple births)</td>
<td>28 weeks /37 days (multiple births)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Denmark</td>
<td>4 weeks</td>
<td>14 weeks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Estonia</td>
<td>140 days (before 30 days + after)</td>
<td>10 days</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finland</td>
<td>105 days (before 30-50 days + after)</td>
<td>105 day (55-75 days after)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>6 weeks + 2 (pathological pregnancy)</td>
<td>4 weeks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>12 weeks (twins)/24 (multiple births)</td>
<td>12 weeks (3rd child)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greece</td>
<td>119 days (56 before + 63 after)</td>
<td>119 days</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hungary</td>
<td>24 weeks (4 optional before)</td>
<td>24 weeks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ireland</td>
<td>26 weeks (at least two before)</td>
<td>26 weeks (at least four after)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>5 months (1 or 2 before + after)</td>
<td>5 months (before + 3 to 4 months)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4 For eligible at least 12 months of insurance fathers
5 Including 70 compulsory days after which father can continue
6 Beginning the 9th to 24th weeks before expected birth
7 An extension of maximum six weeks for hospitalized child
8 Beginning the 8th to 6th weeks before expected birth
9 Shorter 14 weeks leave in total including six weeks after if the child dies
10 Continuous weeks within the 14 weeks after birth
11 Within the period of two months before the estimated date of confinement or two months after the birth of a child.
12 Excluding Sundays. The father can take 1–18 days as paternity leave after the child is born during the maternity and parental leave.
13 Parental leave excluding Sundays. In case of multiple births 60 days are added for each additional child.
14 Within the four months after the birth
15 To be claimed within five months after the child’s birth
16 In replacement of maternity paid leave
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Before birth Maternity</th>
<th>After birth Maternity</th>
<th>Paternity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Latvia</td>
<td>112 days (56 before + after)(^{17})</td>
<td>112 days (before + 56 days after)</td>
<td>10 calendar days</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lithuania</td>
<td>70 calendar days</td>
<td>56 days(^{18})</td>
<td>1 month</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Luxembourg</td>
<td>8 weeks</td>
<td>8 weeks(^{19})</td>
<td>2 days</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malta</td>
<td>14 weeks (maximum 9 weeks before + after)</td>
<td>At least 5 weeks</td>
<td>2 days</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poland</td>
<td>20 weeks (6 before /8 for hospitalisation)</td>
<td>20 weeks(^{21})</td>
<td>2 weeks(^{21})</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Portugal</td>
<td>30 days(^{31})</td>
<td>6 weeks/8 (multiple) (an additional maternity leave)</td>
<td>10 days(^{20}) + 10 days(^{20})</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Romania</td>
<td>63 days(^{31})</td>
<td>6 weeks compulsory</td>
<td>10 days(^{20}) + 10 days(^{20})</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slovakia</td>
<td>6 - 8 weeks</td>
<td>3 months (extended parental leave)</td>
<td>6 weeks (42 compulsory)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slovenia</td>
<td>105 days (28 days before + after)</td>
<td>105 days (before + 77 after)</td>
<td>15 days(^{26}) + 75 days(^{29})</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spain</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>16 weeks(^{31})</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sweden</td>
<td>7 weeks</td>
<td></td>
<td>7 weeks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Netherlands</td>
<td>16 weeks (compulsory 4 to 6 before )</td>
<td>16 weeks (10 to 12)</td>
<td>2 days</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United Kingdom</td>
<td>52 weeks (since 11th before and after)</td>
<td>52 weeks (before and after)</td>
<td>1 or 2 weeks(^{31})</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: MISSOC data base, 1st of January 2014

\(^{17}\) 14 additional days of leave and benefit for women who have received continuous medical care commencing before the 12th week of pregnancy. Further 14 days are available for complications during pregnancy, delivery or post-natal period and for multiple births.

\(^{18}\) In cases of complicated deliveries or multiple birth, benefits are payable for 70 days after delivery. In case of premature childbirth (more than 22 weeks of pregnancy) benefits are paid for 28 days after delivery (if the child survives: for 120 days).

\(^{19}\) Supplement of four weeks for nursing mothers and in case of premature birth or multiple births.

\(^{20}\) Minus pre-natal weeks and varies to 31 weeks (twins), 33 weeks (triplets), 35 weeks (quadruplets), 37 weeks (quintuplets or more)

\(^{21}\) To be taken until the child is 12 months of age.

\(^{22}\) Part of initial parental leave 120 or 150 consecutive days

\(^{23}\) Of which five days must be taken consecutively immediately after birth and five days during the subsequent 30 days

\(^{24}\) Consecutive or not but to be taken during the initial parental leave of the mother

\(^{25}\) Periods may be compensated between according to medical advice and the option of the beneficiary, provided the period after confinement is longer than 42 days.

\(^{26}\) Additional ten days if father graduates a child-care course

\(^{27}\) If the child dies, the total duration is shorter, but not less than 14 weeks and cannot be terminated in the six weeks following the delivery

\(^{28}\) During the first six months of the child’s life

\(^{29}\) To be used until the child’s 3rd birthday, during which the state pays social security contributions for the father.

\(^{30}\) Two extra weeks per child as from the second child in case of multiple birth; and birth, of a disabled child. If both parents work, ten weeks may be granted to the father.

\(^{31}\) Can be taken within 56 days of the date of birth, or if the child is born early, within the period from the actual date of birth up to 56 days after the first day of the week in which the birth was expected.
An Extraordinary Leader: Queen Christina

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Abstract

Queen Christina (Maria Christina Alexandra) (1626-1689) who marked the 17th century’s history of Sweden emerges as a major political actor. She has reached to this period not only with her activities but also with her appearance, her free soul and her extraordinary character. Owing to be the person who would assume responsibility of a country in the near future, she had grown more like a man than a woman. In another words, her parent’s training style shaped her gender. She never married and avoided living according to customs. Hereby, she was considered as an hermaphrodite by some people. This study examines the Queen Cristina’s reflection in popular culture. With this purpose, literature review method is used in the study. The research results indicate that there are strong links (with many aspects; literature, art, cinema, cultural events, spor activities etc.) between Queen Christina and popular culture. Queen Christina was the founder of the world’s oldest newspaper called “Post och Inrikes Tidningar” (PoIT-Post and Domestic Times). The newspaper was founded in 1645. She was interested in philosophy, science, religion and art. Queen Christina was in close contact with fine arts in Rome where she spent the last days of her life. Her sophisticated character has being source of inspiration for many works of art (films, paintings, photographies etc.). For example, there is a photo called “Christina of Sweden-The Androgynous Queen” as a part of “The Regal Twelve” series by Alexia Sinclair. Also, a film called “Queen Christina” was directed by Rouben Mamoulian in 1933. Swedish-born actress Greta Garbo starred in the film with John Gilbert. The museum called “Livrustkammaren” (The Royal Armoury) is the oldest museum in Sweden. The museum collection has many pieces about Queen Christina. As a result, it is observed that Queen Christina has significant contribution to popular culture from past to present.

Keywords: Queen Christina, Gender, Leader, Popular Culture

1. Introduction

Queen Christina is known not only with her royal identity but also with her intellectual personality, with her actions, with her different appearance in the world history. She was daughter of King Gustavus II Adolphus and Maria Eleonora. King Gustavus II Adolphus is an also very important leader.

Gustavus II Adolphus was known as “The Golden King” and “The Lion of the North”. According to a prophecy made by Paracelsus in 1549; a series of worldwide disasters that he had foretold would only end when a Golden Lion came from the north to defeat the Eagle. The Thirty Years’ War which broke out in 1618 is expressed as the beginning of the disasters. The Catholic Emperor of Germany (his emblem was the black eagle) went on the rampage in Protestant Germany. Gustavus II Adolphus came to the rescue in 1630 (Brzezinski, 2004: 3). Gustavus II Adolphus died in late 1632 in the battle of Lützen (Goes, 2013: 301).

Christina was born on December 8, 1626 as a member of Swedish royal family. Her family hoped for a boy who would become King. So, Maria Eleonora disdained her daughter. Kristina was insisted to be provided with the princely education that would have been accorded a male heir by King Gustavus (http://www.iep.utm.edu/wasa/). Christina began to participate in the national government and attend meetings of the cabinet of ministers in 1640. Queen Kristina began a correspondence, about the nature of love, the question of the universe’s infinity, and the nature of the sovereign good, with Descartes in 1646. Queen Kristina played a crucial role in ending the Thirty Years’ War (in 1648) with the Treaty of Westphalia. Christina abdicated the Swedish throne in June 1654 (http://www.iep.utm.edu/wasa/#H1).

After her abdication at the age of twenty-seven, Christina went to Rome. She supported some musicians and artists like Scarlatti, Corelli and Giovanni Bernini (Cavendish, 2004: 54). In Rome, Christina continued to use masculinized strategies. For example, she reportedly wore male clothing most of the times she appeared in public (Lucca, 2010: 387). After abdication, she left Sweden with masculine attire under the name of Count Dohna. In Rome she received permission to wearing men’s clothes as she chose (Bullough, 1993: 97). Before finally settling in Rome until her
death in 1689 she had travelled in Germany, the Low countries and France. She collected very special works of art (pictures and sculpture) (Haskell, 1966: 494).

Christina converted to Catholicism in 1655. Due to this conversion she was greeted by Pope Alexander VII with lavish ceremonies in Rome (http://www.iep.utm.edu/wasa/). According as converting to Roman Catholicism, Christina is one of four women to be buried in the crypt of St. Peter’s Basilica alongside the remains of the popes (http://www.unisa.edu.au/global/samstag/exhibitions/2009/documents/alexiasinclair_roomnotes.pdf).

According to the 17th century text as well as the brief passages from various web pages Nivre (2010: 54) emphasizes that Queen Christina is commonly used as a model to define historical and cultural criteria for the identification of sex and gender.

Contrary to common belief that Christina was lesbian, now she is believed to be bisexual. Because she had many loves both female (Ebba Sparre and Angela) and male (her cousin Kari, the courtier Magnus De la Gardie and Cardinal Azzolino) in her life. Although Christina is assumed to have been a virgin until her death, she is said to had numerous infatuations and affairs. Many people think that Christina’s bisexuality and her constant behavior as a man stems from her upbringing. Because, as an infant Christina was told to be raised as a prince by her father (http://royalwomen.tripod.com/id4.html). Christina’s body was exhumed for testing in 1965 to determine whether she had signs of hermaphroditism. However the results were inconclusive (http://www.unisa.edu.au/global/samstag/exhibitions/2009/documents/alexiasinclair_roomnotes.pdf).

The short life story of Queen Christina above, reflects her colorful personality. As well as not being a member of an ordinary family she wasn’t grown as an ordinary girl. Christina was grown like a boy more than a girl. This seems to be the turning point of her life and her gender. She was dead in 1689. But, her impact on culture keeps going. Her politic career, her gender, her cultural activities etc. are reflected in popular culture in many ways.

Popular culture seems to be a controversial area which contains different perspectives. The six definition of popular culture which are given by Storey (2009: 5-12) can be summarized as follows:

1) The culture that is widely favoured or well liked by many people (It can be examined by sales of books, CDs, DVDs or records at concerts, sporting events, festivals etc.)
2) The culture that is left over after we have decided what is high culture (Inferior culture).
3) The culture is as “mass culture”
4) The culture that originates from “the people”. “Authentic” culture of “the people”. (Folk culture)
5) The culture from the perspective of “hegemony theory” of Antonio Gramsci.
6) The culture that informed by recent thinking around the debate on postmodernism.

Owing to development of industrial system, which based on factory, production economy evolved in 19th century. Railroad lines in Europe and USA, The Brooklyn Bridge, Eiffel Tower, canned food, cotton clothing, the department store etc. are some indicators the new economy (Betts, 2004: 9). Storey (2009: 12) emphasizes that popular culture is definitely a culture which only emerged following industrialization and urbanization.

Figure 1. Queen Christina Nations Cup’s Logo

Erdogan and Alemdar (2005: 39) assert that the popular was being determined and defined by folk with their daily practices in the past. But today, the popular is being determined and defined by industries (fashion, soda, toy, tourism, culture, entertainment) that selling goods and consciousness. Mutlu (2006: 27) emphasizes that popular culture contains both works of high culture art like Mona Lisa (which is visited by many people from every segment of society) and popular culture products like film posters, cartoons, stardom’s clothes and accessories which are incorporated into the tradition of museum.

There are many sources of popular culture. But the major is the mass media, particularly popular music, television, film, radio, books, video games and the internet (https://philosophynow.org/issues/64/Pop_Culture_An_Overview).
Popular culture seems to usually use the major figures of everyday life. So renowned historical figures like Queen Christina have become the subjects of several popular culture products. In this context, the study aims to follow Queen Christina’s reflection in popular culture.

2. Methodology

In this study, literature review method is used. At the beginning of the research, resources and documents that relate to the subject were detected. In this process; books, academic articles, newspapers, biographies, literary works in libraries and internet resources were examined. Also, the study which was done in the context of popular culture made necessary to examine visual sources like films, photos, book covers, posters and postage stamps.

According to literature review, both visual and written sources helped to examine the subject in different views. The research revealed Queen Christina’s multifaceted relationship with popular culture as a leader, a woman, an intellectual etc.

The literature review provided a historical perspective for the research. The research subject was examined through both current resources and historical sources by literature review. In this regard, examples that took place in the study were varied through different resources as books, articles, poems, stamps, films, newspapers, biographies, paintings etc. Also internet resources made significant contributions to study.

3. Analysis and Discussion

Queen Christina is reflected by several ways in popular culture. Literature review about Queen Christina which was made in the context of popular culture referred to the various events, works of art, everyday products, written and visual works etc.

The Project “the European Culture Initiative, Queen Christina of Sweden, the European” which follows the path of Queen Christina through Europe after her abdication, has concerts, seminars and other events during 2014-15 in nine different cities in Austria, Belgium, France, Italy and Sweden. The Queen Christina Project (The QC Project) is held with cooperation between cultural institutions in Sweden, France, Italy and Austria. Also it’s supported by the Culture Programme of European Union as well as educational and research institutions, national art councils, foundations corporations, associations, individuals in four countries (http://queenchristina.eu/the-qc-project/). The project called “the European Culture Initiative, Queen Christina of Sweden, the European” has different popular culture activities like concerts, seminars. The project provides an important contribution to present Swedish history to the other countries as well as to introduce the Queen to new generation.

Sport is representing a primary source of media spectacle in contemporary popular culture (Barron, 2012: 106). Boyle and Haynes (2009: 2) point out ties between sport and media as two great forces of twentieth-century popular culture have never been closer.

The first Queen Christina Nations Cup (QCNC) (See: Fig-1) was hosted by the United States Puget Sound Fleet in 2003 (http://old.portmadisonyc.org/wp-content/uploads/2010/09/qcnc-story.pdf). QCNC which is an sailing competition between six meter sailors has been held in many countries since 2003. Sport as a great popular force of popular culture appeals to broad audiences. This situation increases the effects of competitions like Queen Christina Nations Cup (QCNC).

Queen Christina is used as a character in literature by writers. “Cristina and Monaldeschi” is a poem which was probably written in the late summer or autumn of 1882 at St. Pierre de Chartreuse by Robert Browning. In the poem, Cristina refers to Queen Christina of Sweden (Browning, 2007: 265).

“Christine ou Stockholm, Fontainebleau et Rome” was written by Alexandre Dumas in 1830. It was staged at “Théâtre Royal de L’odéon” in Paris. Mademoiselle George starred in the role of Queen Christina (See: Fig-2) (Dumas, 1830).
Madeleine de Scudery gave Queen Christina the role of Cleobuline in her roman which is called Artamene, ou le Grand Cyrus (See: Fig-3) (Waters, 1994: 42). Madeleine de Scudery (1607-1701) is a prominent novelist who composed a series of dialogues dealing with philosophical issues. Her works fall into several varied genres; the novel, the novella, the dialogue, the oration, and the letter (http://plato.stanford.edu/entries/madeleine-scudery/#Wor).

Museum as a cultural space is the bridge between past and future. Museums carry historical values (leaders, artists, works of art, documents etc.) today. Queen Christina takes part with works of art, in which she was used as a model, in museums like “National Museum” (Stockholm), “Museo del Prado” (Madrid). Also her personal belongings, her costumes, her documents are exhibited in “Livrustkammaren” (The Royal Armoury - Stockholm).

One hundred original documents from the “Vatican Secret Archives” displayed in the halls of Capitoline Museum (Rome) between 29/02-09/09/2012 for the first time (http://en.museicapitolini.org/mostre_ed_eventi/mostre/lux_in_arcana_l_archivio_segreto_vaticano_si_rivela). One of these original documents was “the abdication letter of Queen Christina of Sweden” (http://www.telegraph.co.uk/news/worldnews/europe/vaticancityandholysee/9111168/Vatican-Secret-Archives-reveal-abdication-letter-of-hermaphrodite-Swedish-queen.html).

Photography was a major player in establishing and confirming the scientific and political power of the historical archive (Wolthers, 2013: 157). Since the late 60s, when nostalgia began to be profitable, popular culture classics have been usually revived in modernized forms (Gans, 2008: 33).

Alexia Sinclair is an Australian Artist and Photographer. Her celebrated series called “The Regal Twelve” portrays historical Queens (Isabella of Spain, Elizabeth I, Marie Antoinette, Cleopatra etc.) (https://alexiasinclair.com/about).
“Christina of Sweden-The Androgynous Queen” (See: Fig-4) is a part of “The Regal Twelve” series. According to photo, Christina is huntress and protectress. She wears a mask which represents other faces or realities and alludes to Christina's cross gender through the two faces of one Queen (https://alexiasinclair.com/collections/the-regal-twelve#christina-of-sweden-description).

Figure 4: “Christina of Sweden-The Androgynous Queen” by Alexia Sinclair

Since the late 1700s; urbanization, industrialization, the mass media and the continuous growth in technology have all been significant factors in the formation of popular culture. Their influence on popular culture continues today (https://philosophynow.org/issues/64/Pop_Culture_An_Overview).

Newspapers are important sources in terms of popular culture. Centuries ago, Queen Christina made a significant contribution to the development of today’s press and popular culture.

The Post och Inrikes Tidningar (PoIT-Post and Domestic Times), which is regarded as the world’s oldest newspaper, was founded in 1645 by Queen Christina. Queen Christina and Axel Oxenstierna (Christina’s chancellor) started the paper in 1645. PoIT has become available only on the Internet since 1 January 2007. The newspaper remains the official news organ of the government, a role enshrined in Swedish law as it has been since 17th century (http://www.washingtontimes.com/news/2007/jan/28/20070128-104107-2575r/). After Swedish Academy (who is the owner of PoIT since 1791) had granted the publishing rights to Bolagsverket. PoIT has transformed from a paper edition to a web service since 1 January 2007 with the name of “Posttidningen and Inrikes Tidningar” by Bolagsverket (https://poit.bolagsverket.se/poit/PublikOmTjansten.do?method=redirect&forward=main.omtjansten.inenglish).

Child (2005: 136) highlights postage stamps can be seen as icons of popular culture according to his research on Latin American postage stamps. Because, he represents that stamps are the products of government and the icons are seen and handled repeatedly by large numbers of people.

Considering her role in the establishment of the Finnish Postal System and as the Founder and Patron of the University of Helsinki, Queen Christina featured on some commemorative Finish stamps. Christina first issued standardised postal tariffs in 1638. For celebrating 300 years of the Finnish Postal System a set of commemorative stamps (See: Fig-5) issued in 1938. Also the 350th Anniversary of the University of Helsinki a commemorative stamp (See: Fig-6), on which Queen Christina took part, issued in 1990 (http://www.vam.ac.uk/blog/creating-new-europe-1600-1800-galleries/born-on-this-day-queen-christina-of-sweden).

Figure 5: A commemorative stamp for celebrating 300 years of the Finnish Postal System
It's claimed that, the pop culture serves the same kinds of social functions as did the medieval carnivals, by Mikhail Bakhtin (Danesi, 2008: 59). Carnival is a ceremony which has no distinction between audience and carnival performers. Everyone is an active participant in the carnival (Bakhtin, 2001: 238). Today the tradition of Carnival seems to continue by modern ways in many countries of world (Rio de Janerio, Venice, Munich etc. )

The 7th edition of Roman Carnival (See: Fig-7) which took place between 7-17 February 2015 dedicated to Queen Christina of Sweden on the occasion of the 360th anniversary of her entry into the capital (http://www.romecentral.com/carnevale-romano-2015-roma-sfilate-e-feste-maschera/?lang=en). When Christina lived in Rome, the city's Carnival was more famous than Venice's. Also it was one of the most renown all over Europe. The Carnival was bound to take place for two more centuries until 1871 when it was abolished due to security problems. In 2015, the Carnival was decided to reborn with 7th edition of it's. It had many events which dedicated to Christina like a baroque music concert, a history talk, an academic seminar, a photography exhibition, the ancient costume party (http://www.buzzinrome.com/2015/02/06/rome-dedicates-the-2015-carnival-to-christina-queen-of-sweden/).

According to Walter Benjamin’s view that reproduction (by photography and film) disrupted the aura of art, Weaver (2009: 31) expresses: “Art was open to the consumption of the “masses” ushering in the beginnig of popular culture and the end of high art.”

Today, famous works of art not only stay in museums but also take part in our everyday life as accesories. These works of art are used as a part of popular culture. Queen Christina, as an important historical figure, is also used with her portrait on many accesories like watches (See: Fig-8) and brooches (See: Fig-9)
Queen Christina as a famous historical figure inspired many writers. So there is an extensive literature of books which were written about Queen Christina. Some of these can be listed as follows: “Queen Christina of Sweden” (Hardinge, 1880), “Queen Christina” (Masson, 1974), “Outrageous Queen: Biography of Christina of Sweden” (Cartland, 1974), “Christina Queen of Sweden: The Restless Life of a European Eccentric” (Buckley, 2005), “Kristina: The Girl King, Sweden, 1638 (The Royal Diaries)” (Meyer, 2003), “Queen Christina of Sweden (Queens and Princesses)” (Mattern, 2009).

Popular culture affects film industry. Tracer events and figures of world history are preferred as the subject of films. There are many films which based on; wars, leaders, scientists, politicians, victories etc.

“Queen Christina” is a film (See: Fig-10) in which Greta Garbo (See: Fig-11) plays as Queen Christina. Co-star is John Gilbert, who acts Don Antonio, an emissary from the King of Spain. The film was based on a story by Salka Vierted and Margaret P. Levino. It was directed by Rouben Mamoulian in 1933¹

Giving the leading part to Garbo, who was born in the same territory with Queen Christina, strengthens the impact of the film as a popular culture product.

4. Conclusion

Popular culture and its products surrounds the everyday life. Major historical figures as artists, politicians, leaders, scientists etc. are becoming a part of this culture over time. Queen Christina is one of the famous personality whom has involved in popular culture with her many features (gender, appereance, personality etc.).

Queen Christina is located in the popular culture by many different ways; as novel character (Cleobuline), as subject of works of art (oil painting, photography), as woman to whom cultural and sports activities dedicated (Queen Christina Nations Cup, 7th Roman Carnival 2015), as founder of the world’s oldest newspaper (The Post och Inrikes Tidningar), as subject of commemorative stamps (300 years of the Finnish Postal System and the 350th Anniversary of the University of Helsinki).

According to literature review this study shows that Queen Christina’s contribution to popular culture is not limited only with her geography. It seems to spread a wide area including America (in Hollywood with Garbo’s film called “Queen Christina etc.) and Europe (in Finland with post stamps, in Italy with 7th edition of Roman Carnival etc.). Also this contribution is recognized in other parts of the world by the other popular culture products like; books (Queen Christina of Sweden” (Hardinge, 1880), “Queen Christina” (Masson, 1974), “Outrageous Queen: Biography of Christina of Sweden” (Cartland, 1974), ”Christina Queen of Sweden: The Restless Life of a European Eccentric” (Buckley, 2005), “Kristina: The Girl King, Sweden, 1638 (The Royal Diaries)” (Meyer, 2003), “Queen Christina of Sweden (Queens and Princesses)” (Mattern, 2009) etc.) which are written on Queen Christina and accessories like watches, brooches on which her portraits are used and newspaper which is the oldest one of the world (also which has transformed as a web service since 1 January 2007 with the name of Posttidningen and Inrikes Tidningar by Bolagsverket). Especially, her gender through her clothes, her attitude, her love relationships and her intellectual experience/contribution are emerging as the aspects which mainly discussed in popular culture. In this respect, it can be said that Queen Christina has great impact on popular culture. This impact has continued it’s presence from her century till today. Consequently, Queen Christina seems to be a sophisticated woman and an extraordinary leader who has been prevailing beyond her century.

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**Footnotes**

2. She, later known as Maria Christina Alexandra occasionally Countess Dohna, Received from: [http://www. numismatas. com/Forum/Pdf/David%20Ruckser/Coins%20of%20Sweden](http://www.numismatas.com/Forum/Pdf/David%20Ruckser/Coins%20of%20Sweden.pdf).

3. Theophrastus Aureolus Bombastus von Hohenheim (1493-1541) who changed his name to Paracelsus (‘equal to Celsus’) was the Swiss Physician and Alchemist, Received from: [http://www. sciencemuseum. org. uk/broughttolife/people/paracelsus. aspx](http://www.sciencemuseum.org.uk/broughttolife/people/paracelsus.aspx).

4. Sébastien Bourdon (1616-1671) was a French painter. In 1652 he became the chief painter of Queen Christina, who posed him several times, Received from: [http://global. britannica. com/EBchecked/topic/75794/Sebastien-Bourdon](http://global.britannica.com/EBchecked/topic/75794/Sebastien-Bourdon).
Italian Language in Istria: Status Planning, Corpus Planning and Acquisition Planning

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Abstract

The geopolitical features and the historical cohabitation of the Slavic and Romance ethnic and socio-cultural components in the Croatian Istria County marked the overall heterogeneity of the multicultural and multilingual Istrian territory. A particularly important issue regarding language planning and policy is the statutory official status of the Italian language, besides Croatian. This paper focuses on analyzing language policies and practices based on status planning, acquisition planning and corpus planning. Language planning in the context of the Croatian-Italian bilingualism in Istria is considered significant the role of the legal system which guarantees the preservation of the Italian language as the language of the social environment, helping to create the conditions for its use and the availability of its services, ensuring linguistic rights to the members of the Italian national community, the only (autochthonous) national community in Istria (status planning). In order to determine and increase its prestige on the social level, learning Italian as the language of the social environment is encouraged among members of the majority in Croatian language teaching schools, for broadening its knowledge and the use of available services for a wider range of users (acquisition planning). The least efforts are applied to the development of attempts to ensure and expand its use within various social language functions (corpus planning). Although Italian is institutionally protected and its teaching is widely encouraged, the goal of its application in everyday socialization remains unreached.

Keywords: language planning, Istria, Italian, Istrovenetian.

1. Introduction

The geopolitical features and centuries of cohabitation of the Slavic and Romance ethnic components in the Croatian Istria County marked the overall heterogeneity of the multicultural and multilingual Istrian territory. From 1994 the Croatian-Italian bilingualism is recognized not only de jure, but it is de facto realized at the social and institutional level. The application of the institutional Croatian-Italian bilingualism, claimed to be a part of the socio-political, socioeconomic and administrative system (Orbanic, 1999: 45), is marked by legal policy regulations and the specific sociocultural and sociolinguistic settings characterized by the autochthonous presence of the Italian national community (Blagoni, 2001; 2007). The Istrian sociolinguistic context is thus complex and fragmented. Language planning and policy are characterized by the particular heteroglossic diversity and the complex interrelations of the Istrian linguistic repertoire. Beside the two official standard languages Croatian (the language of the majority) and Italian (the language of the Italian national minority and the language of the social environment for the majority), other national languages are used: the minority allochthonous languages such as Serbian, Bosnian, Slovenian, Albanian, Macedonian, etc. Relevant is the ethnolinguistic vitality of the macroregional or panregional dialects (Chakavian dialect and Istrovenetian dialect) (Orbanic, 1999). Besides them, microregional (Chakavian, Kajkavian and Shtokavian) dialects and local dialects (the Istriot dialect, the Istroromanian dialect, the Montenegrian dialect of Peroj) are spoken (Blagoni, 2001; 2007).

2. Bilingualism and Heteroglossic Diversity in Istria

2.1 Bilingualism vs. diglossia

Before describing the heteroglossic diversity in Istria, it is necessary to define the fundamental distinction between bilingualism and diglossia (Ferguson, 1959; 1977; Fishman, 1967; 1970; 1971; 1972). Bilingualism assumes the coexistence of two linguistic codes with equal status, while diglossia (or functional bilingualism) implies the complementary relation between two language varieties; each one has a specific social function, in accordance with the applied communicative rules shared by a given speaking community, and is used only in certain domains (while in bilingual settings the two varieties are equally interchangeable in all the domains and interactive situations). Diglossia
implies a sociolinguistic hierarchy between a superior or high language variety and a subordinate or low language variety. Between the two there is a functional division of complementarity (Ferguson, 1959; 1977): the high variety is usually used in formal public and official situations and never in informal, private, family and everyday domains, where the low variety is commonly used. Diglossic situations are therefore very frequent and assume a vertical relationship between the two codes of the repertoire (one or the other code is used). Bilingualism in turn provides a horizontal relationship between two language systems, both considered functionally equal and having equal rights in terms of social communication efficiency (both can be interchangeable used) (Milani Kruljac, 1990).

2.2 Bilingualism with (double) diglossia and imperfect poliglossia

The phenomena of bilingualism and diglossia are not necessarily mutually exclusive: they can simultaneously be manifested and mutually supplemented (Fishman, 1967). Fishman’s (1967) traditional distribution (diglossia with bilingualism, bilingualism without diglossia, diglossia without bilingualism, absence of diglossia and bilingualism or monolingualism) is not fully applicable to the Istriotn situation. The Istriotn linguistic repertoire is characterized by specifically strong language contacts between standard languages (colloquial varieties of Croatian and Italian), koinos or regional dialects (the Chakavian dialect – one of the two components of the croatophone diasystem; the Istrovenetian dialect – one of the two components of the italophone diasystem) and local dialects. When a speaker uses Croatian, Italian and Istrovenetian dialect (two languages and one dialect), bilingualism with diglossia is encountered. If Croatian, Italian, Istrovenetian dialect and Chakavian dialect are used, bilingualism with double diglossia are achieved. Further on, if a speaker uses in everyday interactions the two official languages, the two regional dialects and one or more local idioms, the state of tetranglossia or pentaglossia is manifested. If an allochthonous language or a foreign language is added to the list, multilingualism is achieved (Milani Kruljac, 1990; 1996; 2003).

The majority of interactional habits of the members of the Italian national community in Istria usually belongs to the category of bilingualism with diglossia, involving the statutory recognized equal status of Croatian and Italian and the functional diglossic differentiations between Istrovenetian dialect (subordinate low variety) and Italian (high variety). Italian is the national language of the members of the Italian national community, the language of formal education and certain formal situations. The Istrovenetian dialect is their first language, the language of identity and sociocultural belonging, traditions and intergenerational transfers and the expression of the whole cosmos of the original and autochthonous intangible cultural heritage of the Istriotn italophone microcosm (Bursic Giudici, 2011: 66). Istrovenetia is even the favorite code for private everyday communication needs. The diglossic state of italophone speakers can be even defined as dialectal bilingualism, since the majority of the members of the Italian language community acquires Istrovenetian dialect as their first language, and only later master the Italian language (their second language), usually when they enroll in kindergarten or school. If they acquire Croatian after Istrovenetian (and before enrolling in the formal educational system), Italian is considered their third language (Milani Kruljac, 1990; 2001; 2003). Unlike Italian, Istrovenetian has an enormous communication prestige and ethnolinguistic vitality. However, Italian has an institutionalized status and institutional preservation is provided for it, while Istrovenetian is not institutionally protected. So, care and protection are directed only to the official language of national minority, and the efforts are negligible towards the inner diasystemic and heteroglossic diversity (Biongo, 2002).

In the italophone family, school and society domains in Istria, the Istrovenetian dialect represents the dominant language (L1) in the family domain, which is dialectophone; the Italian language is only ideally dominant in the school domain if the speakers attend Italian schools (where all the subjects are taught in Italian); the majority Croatian language, the first official language of Croatia, is obviously dominant in the wider social context (L2), as it is the code of social cohesion, essential for societal needs in all public official and informal domains (Milani Kruljac, 1984b; 1990; 2001; 2003; Milani Kruljac & Orbanc, 1989a; Strukelj, 1986), owning an undeniable social prestige because it covers almost all the communication functional ranges. Taking into account that a member of the Italian language community in Istria lives and works as a member of a minority group within the croatophone social majority, the functional use of Italian and Istrovenetian is limited to specific domains, while Croatian is the socially dominant language. Italophone speakers are required to know and use the Croatian language and become bilingual, which is not the case of croatophone speakers, because their learning of Italian is optional and depends upon the interest, motivation and attitudes (of parents and children) towards the Italian language and culture and their acquisition/learning (Orbanic, 1999).

Milani Kruljac defines the global image as imperfect poliglossia (Milani Kruljac, 1990; 2001; 2003; cf. Skubic, 1984), since the term best describes the complex relationship between the Istriotn croatophony and italophony, which implies the alternation of two high varieties, between which Croatian language is considered to be the first official language (first high variety, used in formal and informal interactions), while Italian is the second official (high) variety, or
the medium variety covering only certain limited formal interaction domains, according to social role and communicative dominance relationships. According to that limitation, Milani Kruljac (1990; 2001; 2003) talks even about double diglossia with potential bilingualism, which applies only to a limited number of speakers, mostly students of Italian schools over the duration of the educational process. When the educational process ends, it is usually converted into diglossia with latent bilingualism.

3. Language Planning in Istria: Status Planning and Corpus Planning

Language planning deals with the discursive creation of a language policy (Antia, 2000; Blommaert, 1996; Fishman, 1974; Haarmann, 1990; Haugen, 1966; Kaplan & Baldauf, 1997; Rubin, 1983). Language planning is subdivided in three main interrelated and complementary focuses: status planning, corpus planning and acquisition planning. Status planning regards the modifications of the societal and functional status of a language within a speaking community. Corpus planning deals with decisions and activities undertaken in order to codify and elaborate certain language functional forms and structures. Acquisition planning aims at increasing the amount of existing and/or potential speakers using a given language variety or enabling them to learn a language variety or acquire particular skills for implementing status and corpus planning (Kaplan & Baldauf, 1997; Coopler, 1989; Haugen, 1987; Kloss, 1987).

The Italian minority is the only recognized national community in Istria that has a privileged position compared to other minorities (all reduced to ethnic groups) because of its autochthony (historical presence). The rights of the Italian national community are guaranteed by national and international acts and agreements. The Statute of the Istria County guarantees the institutional Croatian-Italian bilingualism and the official status of the Italian language in all the Istrian areas where the presence of the Italian national community has been historically registered. Croatian and Italian are given equal rights for their usage in all the regional and local self-government settings. The Croatian-Italian bilingualism is the only Istrian bilingualism that has been institutionalized, objectified and theorized. The position of the Italian national community and the Italian language in Istria is determined by the durability of institutional recognition of the Italian language as the language of the social environment and the education system (there is a parallel system of education in Croatian and Italian) (Hrizica, Padovan and Kovacevic, 2011). Special protection is given to status planning of the Italian language (just one of the components of the Istrian italophone repertoire), especially in the formal educational system. In fact, in the majority schools (Croatian schools, where all the subjects are taught in Croatian), the learning of Italian, as the language of the social environment, is particularly ensured and especially encouraged or mandatory in the statutory bilingual municipalities, towns and villages. Furthermore, incentivated is the creation of the conditions for the use of the Italian language and the availability of its services.

The functional use of Croatian and Italian and their literary and cultural prestige is shaped by sociolinguistic factors layering language use. Croatian, the absolute koine throughout the County, is the language that everyone understands and almost everyone speaks. Croatian might be used in all the communicative situations and is sometimes used even as a transregional or panterritorial koine (outside the borders of Croatia, in the bordering regions) (Filipi, 1989a; 1989b). Speaking community in Istria. Italian literary language, the sole and exclusive language of the Italian national community and simultaneously just one of the languages of that speaking community, has not managed to achieve sociolinguistic capillarity which an official standard literary language usually owns during the centuries (not even in the Fascist era) nor nowadays (Blagoni, 2007). Consequently to sociohistorical and geopolitical events, it has been institutionalized, although its application is considerably narrowed, restricted to certain interactive spheres and to the cross-border communication (mostly with Italian tourists coming to Istria during their holidays). Its use is characterized by innovative features resulting from linguistic contact and exchange phenomena, in particular with the Croatian language and the Istrovenetian dialect, that have shaped its specific regional substandard regional variants (Orbanic, 1999).

After the mass emigration movement after World War II, the Italian national community in Istria, as well as the dialectophone Croatian community, have experienced the impact of linguistic homogenisation of the Yugoslav language policies. Moreover, the geographical and political distance and lack of direct connection with the continuity of the social dynamics with Italy, induced the italophone speaking community to reduce the use of Italian to reproductive schemes of educational, political and media institutions, with only two types of sociolinguistic variation (the diaphasic and the dimesic ones). Written Italian is very present in extra-curricular domains, as well as in the media and literary competitions. Oral Italian, regarded primarily as the teaching language of Italian preschool and school (where the subjects are taught in Italian) and the language of cross-border cultural heritage is limited to rare language production occasions and is used in a very narrow part of oral communication, limited only to several domains within formal administrative and political settings, educational and media domains, cultural events organized by the Italian national community in Istria, to the Italian literary tradition, scientific activities and cross-border communication. Hence, two varieties are in use: Italian for
literary-scientific-media purposes, which is mostly written and sometimes oral, but never conversational (used by educated individuals in formal contexts) and Italian used in occasional episodic communication, which is characterized by numerous traces of linguistic contact and is typical for speakers whose mother tongue in Istrovenetian or croatophone/chakavophone speakers educated in Italian schools (Blagoni, 2007).

4. Acquisition Planning

As already mentioned, according to the Croatian Constitution, members of national minorities have the right to be educated in their mother tongue. This right is respected only for the Italian national community in the Istria County. State educational curricula, established by the Ministry of Science, Education and Sports of Croatia, which apply to all school levels and commitments, are equal for Croatian and Italian schools (only the teaching language differs). In comparison to the Croatian school program implementation plan, subjects in the Italian schools possess substantial additions related to the Italian history, literature, language, art, music, geography, nature and society. The Italian educational process is considered one of the main fundamental instruments for the fostering, maintaining and supporting the institutional structure of the vitality of Italian culture, national identity and the renewal of tissues and use of the Italian language among young generations (Borme, 1990/1991).

In order to increase its prestige on the social level, the learning of Italian as the language of the social environment is particularly encouraged in majority schools (Croatian language teaching schools). The teaching of Italian in the Croatian schools is being financed by the Ministry of Science, Education and Sports of Croatia from 2006. Previously, funds were allocated from the municipal and County budgets. In bilingual towns and municipalities schools (such as Buje-Buie, Rovinj-Rovigno, Vodnjan-Dignano, etc.), Italian became a compulsory subject in 1973 and it is being taught from the first grade of Elementary school (approx. age 6-7). In the other (partially bilingual or non bilingual) areas of the Istria County, it became optional from the first/second or the fourth grade (Milani Kruljac, 1987).

5. Conclusion

Even if the Italian language is institutionally protected and its teaching is encouraged in the majority formal education, the goal of its oral use in everyday socialization (Blagoni, 2007) was not reached. The ethnolinguistically vital Istrovenetian is the Istrian italophone speakers’ preferred code of social communication. Consequently, Istrian croatophone speakers learning Italian in their formal education are unable of using Italian in everyday socialization with their italophone peers, not because they are not able or inclined to do so, but because the italophone speakers prefer to use almost exclusively Istrovenetian (Filipi, 1989b). Nevertheless, Italian is still taught in Croatian schools and there is a highly positive social evaluation of Italian language learning, since its usefulness is undeniable in the context of tourism, travel, cross-border exchanges with Italy, academic and professional opportunities. Italian language as the language of the social environment was added instrumental values becoming the main motivation for its learning, taking into account the utilitarian purposes. Affective-emotional factors act as an added value and a means of strengthening the desire for arbitrary linguistic mastery and use, which affects the development of positive attitudes (Blagoni, 2002). The Italian language, therefore, occupies a symbolic linguistic space of a national language by which the members of the Italian national community are identified, and the value and potential of its public use have symbolic functions.

Footnotes


3. Besides the Croatian schools (where all the subjects are taught in Croatian), the members of the Italian national community in Istria have the right to attend Italian schools (where all the subjects are taught in Italian), according the right to use publicly their language and for preserving the national and cultural identity. According to the disposition of the Croatian Ministry of Research, Education and Sports, special programmes had been designed for these schools whose teachings include notions of italian history, geography, music, arts, literature, grammar,
In the Republic of Croatia there are 14 Italian elementary schools (with peripheral sections) attended by approx. 1,800 students. There are three Italian high schools (in Pula, Rovinj-Rovigno and Buje-Buje), attended by approx. 750 students. Italian schools are attended not only by children members that are members of the Italian national community but even by the members of the Croatian majority and those coming from mixed families (croatophone father and italophone mother, or viceversa, etc.), including other nationalities (Scotti Juric & Poropat, 2012: 423).

4. The members of the Italian national community do not necessarily attend only Italian schools. They attend even the Croatian ones.

5. Chakavian and Istrovenetian are the two low varieties, used mainly in informal domains.

6. Treaties between the Republics of Croatia and Italy; the Paris peace treaty (1947); Memorandum of understanding between the Governments of Italy, Great Britain and Yugoslavia (London, 1954); the Treaty of Osmo (1975); the Convention for the Protection of Human Rights and Fundamental Freedom (1950); the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (1966); the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (1966); the Helsinki Final Act (1975); the Document of the Copenhagen meeting (1990); the Framework Convention for the Protection of National Minorities’ Languages (1992.) and other treaties, like the International Labour Organization Convention (n. 111) concerning discrimination in respect of Employment and Occupation (1958); the UNESCO Convention Against Discrimination in Education (1960); the International Convention on the Elimination of All Form of Racial Discrimination (1966); the Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989) and documents without legal obligations, like the Declaration on Rights of Persons belonging to National, Ethnic, Religious and Linguistic Minorities (the UN Declaration) (1992), the Hague Recommendation regarding the Education Rights of National Minorities (1996); the Oslo Recommendation regarding the Linguistic Rights of National Minorities (1998), etc.


8. Besides the teacher-student class interactions, it is mainly related to the receptive, passive and unproductive everyday language activity outside the educational institution. The participants of the educational process (teachers and students) do not use Italian outside the classroom (in extracurricular domains) and, taking into account the frequent everyday use of Croatian and/or Istrovenetian, it can be assumed that there is a high probability that the average Italophone speaker will no longer (have the continuous need to) use the Italian language on everyday basis (which of course depends on single individuals), except in the various forms of cross-border cooperation, in communication with the Italian tourists/friends/partners and a few other circumstances (Milani Krujic, 1990; 2003). The media partly enhance the continuity of the Italian language (mostly in the form of passive receptive exposure) and undeniably affect the maintenance of social bonds and exposure to cross-border cultural models, but fail to influence enough, to design and create productive habits of its use (Milani Krujic, 1990).
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Social Protection and Support for Vulnerable Categories in Albania

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Abstract

One of the most sensitive areas faced by the Albanian society in the period of transition from a centralized economy to the path of free market economy, has been the construction of a modern system of social protection. This article aims to present social protection system in Albania, focused on their distribution especially to the third age and gender differences. The methodology used is qualitative research based on a systematic analysis of the literature. Are analyzing social protection schemes and legal aspect which is based on, referring to the latest official data. The study arrives in two main conclusions. First, due to the global financial crisis and economic growth slowdown, there was an overall increase in poverty, which constitutes a challenge for the reform of social protection scheme for our country. Second, it appears that older women face to more difficulties due to gender policies not right to social protection scheme.

Keywords: social protection; poverty; third age; gender differences

1. Introduction

Social services are what they expected from a country where through legislation and responsible institutions, as a regulator of welfare in complexity, to help all its citizens.

From a worldwide perspective, the European Union (EU) is clearly a model of social protection. Unemployment, poor health, invalidity, family situations and old age are some of the risks which these systems were created to deal with. The systems also guarantee access to several services that are vital to the preservation of human dignity.

One of the most sensitive areas faced by the Albanian society in the period of transition from a centralized economy to the path of free market economy, in the way of the rule of law, has been the provision of freedom, economic rights and social skills, the right of private property, employment, housing, health, education, and building a modern system of social protection that guarantees the individual member and the families that fall into poverty, financial support to meet basic living needs and services vulnerable groups, in order to include them in social life.

Albania as a country that adheres to be part of a European Community legislation did already enjoys the support through social services for vulnerable category / in need? A enjoys its structures protective institutions to meet the needs for persons with special needs belonging to vulnerable groups? In its development policy or is the focus of the third age, as a target group with special needs?

*** Article 151 of the Treaty on the functioning of the EU (ex Article 136 TEC) names proper social protection and improved living and working conditions among the objectives of the Union and the Member States. Article 153 (TFEU) states that the Union shall support and complement the activities of the Member States concerning, inter alia, social security and social protection of workers. Social protection in the strict sense usually means social security, while social protection in a broad sense includes social security among other social rights of the citizens. In fact, under the heading "solidarity", the Charter of Fundamental Rights of the European Union mentions several rights, such as: the workers' right to information and consultation within the undertaking; the protection in the event of unjustified dismissal; fair and just working conditions; protection of young people at work; and, of course, social security and social assistance.

Concerning this subject, namely social protection in the strict sense, the Charter of Fundamental Rights declares that the Union recognises and respects the entitlement to social security benefits and social services providing protection in cases such as maternity, illness, industrial accidents, dependency or old age, and in the case of loss of employment, in accordance with the rules laid down by European law and national laws and practices.

2. Analysis

The methodology used is qualitative research based on a systematic analysis of the literature. With the progressive
ageing of Europe’s population, the problems of retirement and post-retirement become increasingly acute and require cooperation between Member States. In a Resolution on flexible retirement arrangements the Council wants older people to continue to play an active part in society and maintain a link with the labour market. It emphasises that a flexible retirement policy could constitute a rational response to changing demographic patterns and to labour-market changes, but that flexible retirement arrangements are a matter for each Member State, bearing in mind the principle of subsidiarity.

2.1 Types of social protection

Social assistance: Social assistance is direct, regular and predictable cash or in-kind resources transfers to poor and vulnerable individuals or households (Arnold et al., 2011: 91). It is usually provided by the state and financed by national taxes (Barrientos, 2010). Support from donors is also important in lower income contexts. Transfers are non-contributory, i. e. the full amount is paid by the provider. Some are targeted based on categories of vulnerability, and some are targeted broadly to low-income groups. This is the primary form of social protection available in most developing countries (Barrientos, 2010).

Cash transfers: are direct, regular and predictable transfers that raise and smooth incomes to reduce poverty and vulnerability (Arnold et al., 2011: 2). Unconditional Cash Transfers (UCTs) are for the beneficiary to decide how to spend. Conditional Cash Transfers (CCTs) are given with the requirement that the beneficiary meets certain conditions – often related to human capital development, such as visiting a health clinic or ensuring children go to school.

Social pensions: are state pensions, a form of cash transfer targeted by age. Pensions are the most common social protection tool, with the widest global coverage and often highest national spend.

In-kind transfers: are economic and livelihood asset transfers to households, facilitating income generation. They tend to be larger, one-off transfers but can also be smaller, regular transfers, such as food transfers. They tend to take an integrated approach, linking the transfer with skills training and other activities (Holmes & Jones, 2013: 65).

2.2 Legislation

The Constitution of the Republic of Albania in its fourth chapter, establishes and develops in 10 separate articles “Freedoms and rights, economic, social and cultural rights” of individuals.

Thus, in its Article 52/2 provides that: "Everyone, who remains without work for reasons independent of his will and has no other means, is entitled to assistance under the conditions provided for by law".

In its Article 59 stipulates that " . . . the State, within its constitutional powers and means at its disposal, to supplement private initiative and responsibility, aims to: a) employment under suitable conditions for all persons able to work; b) meet the needs of citizens for housing; c) the highest standard of health, physical and mental potential; d) education and qualification according to ability of children and youth, and unemployed persons; e) care and help for the elderly, orphans and the disabled; f) health rehabilitation, specialized education and integration in society of disabled people, as well as continual improvement of their living conditions."

2.3 The legal basis for the elderly in Albania

In the Albanian legislation, the standard services for the elderly are used as an instrument for insurance and maintaining the quality of services and ensuring that the rights of the elderly will be applied according to the Albanian Constitution, the Political Declaration and the International Action Plan for Aging, Madrid 2002, the European Social Cart (revised) and the recommendation of the European Council. In fact these standards regulate the issue of the elderly through the law nr. 9355, date 10. 3. 2005 “For the help and social services (revised), the regulations “For the standard services and social care for the elderly in the centers for the elderly” and “For standard services and social care for the elderly in the day centers”. We should emphasize that the law “For help and social services”, does not regulate in a specific way all issues that regard the elderly. In the meantime it is seen as necessary from the Albanian Government the application of the standards while placing rules for the quality of the services, which are compulsory for all service providers in the public institutions and other services founded by the NGO sector, and for the private providers as well. These standards are supported in the package of The General Standards of Services, which is approved with a decision by the Ministers’ council and are helping governmental structures in fulfilling the new functions such as: fulfilling of the social needs of a community, decision making for improving the services, securing the necessary funding, contracting the service providers etc. These legal initiatives regarding the elderly should not contradict the obligations deriving from the declaration of the human rights and should be harmonized with the International Action Plan for the Aging and other international
instruments (the Ministry for the Social Issues and Equal Chances).

2.4 Importance of demographic ageing

Demographic changes will lead to an unprecedented number of the elderly in the whole world and they will be directly affected by age discrimination. Therefore it is important to increase the pressure on governments and on the society as a whole to respond to this phenomenon. The strengthening of the rights of the elderly is the only proper respond. Even though the governments will implement the development of a new UN cart of declaration, without the elderly advocacy, reach the support without the advocacy. A key role, in order for this to happen, has the civil society organizations, which also can request for accountability from governments regarding their decision on this topic. This is the reason why the society needs more active participation from the elderly. Aging of a nation is one of biggest challenges and it sets the requests related to economic and social growth in all countries. In the whole world, the number of the people that are > 60 is increasing and will continue to increase more than other age groups because of the low fertility rates and the increase life expectancy. The group age of 60 plus years is expected to grow from 600 million in the year 2000, to more than 2 billion in 2050 (source: the population section of the department for economy and social issues in the secretariat of the UN for projecting world population). This growth will increase faster in developing countries where the number of elderly is expected to triple in the next 40 years. In 2050, more than 80% of the worldwide elderly will live in developing countries. At the same time, the number of the elderly (80 years and above) in the developed countries will increase in the unpredictable proportions. While aging, the elderly have the need for the financial support, for a chance to get a job, in order to be active and to have access in suitable long-term health and social care.

2.5 The Albanian population structure

The Albanian population is considered young compared to other countries in Europe, however, now is showing signs of aging. According to the latest report from the institute of statistics (INSTAT) “Projections of population in Albania 2001-2021”, the number of the young people will significantly reduce while the number of the elderly will progressively increase. The actual population in Albania is 2 821977 people, according to the 2011 census, with a slightly bigger percentage of the people under 15 years old, around 29.5 percent, and with a lower percentage of the elderly who are 65 years old with 7.4 percent, and with the average age of 29 years old. However even though now considered as a “young population” it seems like the population in Albania will age in the next few decades, and this is a consequence of the low birth-rate. The aging is inevitable and will be accompanies with the decreased number of little children, if birth-rates decrease with fast pace. In the 90’ the population structure was significantly changed, while introducing phenomenon like migration and the low birth-rate. According to the average population projection by the INSTAT, and based on high birth-rate the population in Albania is expected to reach 3 711 929 people, and in case of the increased migration and low birth-rate rate it’s projected to be 3 215 753 people. Nevertheless, it is the birth-rate the one factor that has a direct impact in increase or decrease of the aging of a population. Even though now decreasing, the birth-rate rate used to be one of the highest in Europe. In meantime, the future projections who that the present population of all ages and gender ages every year more and more, compared with mortality rates and migration. Albania is a country with the fastest fall in birth-rates in the last few decades and it is projected to fall in the next few decades. In this way, from an average 2.3 babies being born per woman in 2011, to three times less than 40 years ago, will decrease in 1.4 babies in 2021. This is one of the main reasons of aging population. In meantime, the increase of the life expectancy, as an important demographical coefficient gives positive data for Albania.

2.6 Urban and rural population in the years 1950-2050

The population living in urban and rural areas in the group of indicators Rural Development or/and Urban. Generally, developed countries tend to have a higher population in urban areas compared to rural areas. This facilitates access to basic services, such as provision of water, health care or education. Consequently, it can be said that the higher the ratio of urban to the rural population, the higher the welfare of the inhabitants of a country.

The figures show a global trend of relocation of residents of rural areas to urban areas, a trend that applies to our country:

The years 1950-1990 marked an increase with relatively high rates of population, averaging 13%. This pace of growth was reflected in the indicators of population growth of rural and urban areas. However, the growth of urban areas was consistently higher than that of rural areas.


The years 1990-1995 marked significant developments. In this period the total population decreased by 4.73%, this low rate compared to previous years, due to two main factors, immigration and fertility reduction. In the same period, the population in rural areas, for the first time marked swing downward, dropping to 8.45%, while urban areas grew by only 1.76%. Already people were free to choose whether they wanted to live in the city or in the countryside and their movement was not controlled. The possibility for a more comfortable and still further, higher opportunities for work, making the population in the countryside to fall steadily while the number of city residents were growing.

Even on the projections of the future, there is an exodus from rural areas and predominantly urban population. Starting since 2010, the urban-rural population becomes 50% to 50%. N 2020, the proportion of urban population is thought to be 60% of the total population, and after the 2035's, the ratio will be about 70%.

2.7 The comparison between men and women and the third age

Furthermore, the high number of the women with long life expectancy also presents a challenge for the policymakers. The lack of policy, which addresses these issues, sends lots of elderly toward poverty, and also leads to the non-gratitude of their economical and social contribution, which they offered to their families, communities and to the whole society. Quite often an idea prevailed that in the world there are more women than men. In fact, generally there are only few
countries where the population of women is higher than 52% (Switzerland, Armenia, Belarus etc.). On average, in the world in 2009 49.59% of the population was consisted by women. In EU this indicator reached 51.16%. These percentages are similar in Albania as well. In the time period of 1998-2010 the number of women as part of general population varied from 49.8% - 5017%. On average, in our country, this number was 99.99 women to 100 men, in other words it was 1 to 1. In 1998 there was 12.246 more men than women or 0.8% more. As time passed, this percentage started to change while the number of women started to grow and in 2004-2005 the difference was 11.000. After this period, men were the ones presented in higher numbers, and in 2010 in Albania there are 16.400 men more then women. It is interesting fact that men dominate the numbers throughout all these years in age groups of 0-24 years old and 50-69 years old. Women are in dominance in age groups 25-49 and above 70 years old. The latter is because of the longer life expectancy of women compared to men.

![Graph showing age distribution](image)

Even though the graph shows negative correlation between two extreme age groups. The percentage taken by the 0-14 years old compared to the total number is decreased on yearly bases while the category of 65 years and above is growing. This fact shows the phenomenon that is slowly becoming evident in our country as well, the nation is getting older. The decrease of birth-rates is expected to become more evident in future generations. In the meantime, the growing number of above 65 years old people should have the state attention for creating preventive social policies and retirement schemes.

### 2.8 Older Woman

Nowadays it is accepted fact that reaching equal gender equality and empowering women is a right thing to do and will have wide effects for women and girls of poor countries in the whole world. We are all aware for the hard conditions in which the older women are, not only in the years of communism and total isolation when they had to worked without receiving any salary and with terrible working conditions, but in the years of transition she also had to face with myriad problems, such as unpaid labour, discrimination in the workplace, in services, retirement etc. in every discussion and all global initiatives was confirmed that the women of the third age are a factor of change, of development and of daily creative solutions, of initiatives and service as a supportive foundation of the families and their communities. Gender inequalities are the different aspects of discrimination with which the older women are facing with and other women also. Women earn less than men. They also quite their careers to take care for their children and other members of the family. In fact, when women are accepted to paid job, it rarely frees her up from other home-related labor and this additional hardship quite often weighs on their health. Knowing that women live longer than men, they have more chances of becoming widows and this is one of the most important factors that relates with poverty, loneliness and isolation. The international plans of action, that are created in different international conferences held by UN, are encouraging countries to reviews their legal human resources in order to eliminate the discrimination between woman and a man. Issues covered here also include the equal access to education of both boys and girls, fighting any kind of gender based discrimination and reducing the negative traditional practices. Many of these preventive interventions on inequality will lay foundations with a sole purpose to lead toward a decent healthy and active aging. The current situation requires a common local strategically partaking and developing of the responsibilities for many decision makers of local issues in Albania, in order for the voice of women to be listened in palling and distributing the services that currently did failed to address the proper needs.
2.9 Social Isolation

As far as the human contacts are concerned, one particular alarming issue is the elderly who are totally isolated (3%) who do not have any kind of contacts with their families, including cousins or their friends. We should emphasize that still there are strong family relationships and their children and other members of their family are visiting many elderly. Nevertheless, sometimes the elderly are keen to express their family and community’s lack of interest for them. Even though strong family ties are still evident in Albania, many of the elderly feel that the “situation is worsened” in the last 10-15 years as far as family relationships are concerned, and members of community are less concerned with their problems. Lack of respect is one of the most disappointing issues according to the concepts and feelings that the elderly expressed. Referring to a study done by the Movement of Organizations Supporting a Healthy Ageing – MOSHA, the elderly do not receive the same respect as they were suppose to according to the old Albanian Tradition.

As far as being part of a community is concerned, most of the elderly reported to have difficulties in actively contributing and to be involved in community programs and activities. The elderly are sensing that their voice is not being heard and their opinions are not being taken into consideration.

At the elderly public and non-public residential centres in 2012 there were treated 410 and in daily canters 787 elderly.

During the last year in the elderly residential centres are admitted 67 from which 58 in public institutions and 9 in non-public institutions.

It is noticed that the requests for admitting the elderly in public institutions is growing, and this is happening for the following reasons:

- Increase of the life expectancy in our country,
- The growing phenomenon of small family lifestyle,
- Abandonment of the elderly by their children because of the migration.
- And the improvement of the living conditions in the elderly centres.

Taking into account the increased number of the requests in 2012 for admitting in the elderly residences, there is a need for increasing the institutional capacities and adding new daily services and more alternatives for this target group especially in the community where they live (Yearly Analysis of SHSSH 2014).

2.10 How are violated the rights of the elderly?

The elderly rights are violated in different ways, such as:

- The rights of the elderly to be free of any kind of discrimination – the Elderly, women or men, are often denied the access to the services, jobs are treated without a respect because of their age and other factors such as gender or disability.
- The rights of the elderly to not be abused – The elderly, women or men are often a subject of verbal, sexual, psychological or financial abuse.
- The rights of the elderly for social security – many of the elderly do not have any kind of financial support such as pension or other forms of social security. The lack of minimum income can lead them and their families into poverty.
- The rights of the elderly for healthcare – the elderly because of their age sometimes cannot receive the needed social healthcare. They can be denied of a treatment or can get limited services.
- The right of the elderly to work- Quite often the elderly are considered as “not capable to get a job” because of their age. This is a violation of human rights, because everyone has a right to a job as long as they consider themselves capable of working. Moreover, the elderly can be asked to quite a job because of reaching the retirement age.
- The rights of the elderly to own real-estate and to inherit wealth – In many parts of the world, the inheritance law denies the rights of women of any age to own or inherit real-estate after the death of their husband. The members of the family often force widows to quit on their right to real-estate, they confiscate it which presents a direct violation of their rights for equal inheritance, managing and selling the wealth.


As a result of the global financial crisis and overall macroeconomic situation associated with low rates of growth since
2008, poverty has increased. Part of the population, real per capita monthly consumption of which is under the 4891 ALL (2002 prices), grew by 12.4% in 2008 to 14.3% in 2012. In previous years, poverty has fallen from 25.4% in 2002 to 18.5% in 2005 and 12.4% in 2008 (Figure 1 and Table 1). This means that about 28,896 additional individuals 373.137 poor individuals in 2008 have fallen into poverty. Extremely poor population, defined as individuals who have difficulty meeting basic food needs, has increased from 1.2% in 2008 to 2.2% in 2012. Extreme poverty fell from 4.7% in 2002 to 3.5% in 2005 1.2% in 2008. In 2012, extreme poverty has risen to 2.2% in urban areas and in rural areas 2.3%

The overall increase in poverty was associated with a higher growth rate of urban poverty. Poverty does not seem to be just a rural phenomenon. Instead, poverty is moved mainly in urban areas. Table 2 shows that, while the rural population in poverty has fallen by about 12% urban population in poverty has increased by about 37%. The poverty rate in rural areas increased from 14.6% in 2008 to 15.3% in 2012, while urban poverty increased from 10.1% to 13.6%. Moreover, even within rural areas, the poverty rate is significantly reduced in the Mountain areas. Poverty seems to be a more widespread than in 2008 and is not concentrated in rural mountain areas (Table 1). Other indicators of poverty maintain similar rates of change, as described above, both in urban and rural areas. The poverty gap (depth of poverty) is similar for both urban and rural areas. However, urban areas have had a significant increase in the poverty gap compared to previous years. In rural areas, this figure is 3.0%, compared with 2.9% in urban areas; for rural areas, this indicator has increased by about 15% compared to 2008, while the urban areas has grown by about 53%

2.11.1 Rate and the reduction of poverty in urban and rural areas:

<table>
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<tr>
<th>The number of poor by areas urban/rural</th>
<th>Change in poverty</th>
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<td></td>
<td>% change 2002-2005</td>
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<tr>
<td>The population in poverty</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urban areas</td>
<td>29.2</td>
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<tr>
<td>Rural areas</td>
<td>41.1</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

2.12 Poverty, how sensitive the third age is?

Referring to different studies and especially to the survey done by the Movement of Organizations Supporting Healthy Aging – MOSHA, concerning the self-perception of the poverty we have the following result:

- 17% of the elderly consider themselves as “extremely poor” and 40% as “poor” compared to 2% who consider themselves to be “in good financial situation”.
- More than 33% of the elderly were identified in the informal and rural parts of the country that receive no pension at all (it’s worth mentioning that the pensions in the village “the farmers pension” is considerably lower than the one in the cities”).
- 16% of the participants did not have water supply system in their homes or their apartments. Nevertheless there were big differences between the zones: in informal zones in Tirana the percentage can go up to 28%, whereas in rural zones the proportion of the elderly without access to water supply system was 35%.
• Same inequality goes for the access a toilet (WC) inside the house/apartments, with 100% in urban zones compared with only 66% in informal and rural zones.

• Around 27% of the elderly in urban zones, 25% in informal zones and 34% in rural zones did report that they did not have heat in their homes in the wintertime.

• The electricity was available for 94% of homes/apartments where the elderly live (99% in urban zones, 87% in informal zones of Tirana and 88% in rural zones).

• Something less than (11%) reported that they did not have a TV (no significant difference among the above mentioned categories).

Knowing that the most of the elderly are not able to work (adding the discrimination that is done upon them, where because of the age, even though they might be well qualified and able no jobs are available for them), the only financial resource that they have is a pension.

In Albania the number of the elderly who receive a age based pension is 303. 100 in cities and 57. 068 get the pension for their disabilities also in the cities, and 48. 053 in urban zones. In the rural parts there are 136. 828 who benefit from the age based pension, and 30. 205 people get pensions from specific programs such military, miners, professors, ex-workers of military industry/pilots/marines. In total there are 591. 600 people who receive pensions.

After the last raise of the pensions that took place on 1st of August 2013, the minimal pension in the cities will be 12. 024 lek per month, whereas in the rural parts it will be 8. 233 lek per month, while the maximum monthly pension in the cities might reach 24. 048 lek and in the rural parts might reach 12. 140 lek. On the total, after this raise, the minimal full pension will not be less than 14. 174 lek per month; the minimal full pension in the rural parts cannot be less than 9. 123 lek per month; and the maximal full pension in the cities will be 24. 548 lek per month (source: ISSH).

Referring to the numbers above, the difference between the rural parts pensions and city pensions is quite visible. This situation can be justified in few cases because the rural parts pension beneficiaries (known mostly as farmers) own land which they can use to produce extra income, but of course this is hardly true when we talk about the third age which being that physically it is not always possible for them to work on the field, nonetheless they have the full right that they receive decent benefits for the hard work that they did all their lives.

3. Conclusions

This article analyzes trends in poverty in Albania. The study arrives in two main conclusions. First, due to the global financial crisis and economic growth slowdown, there was an overall increase in poverty, which constitutes a challenge for the reform of social protection scheme for our country. Second, it appears that older women face to more difficulties due to gender policies not right to social protection scheme.

Firstly, due to the global financial crisis and economic slowdown, there was an overall increase in poverty. Secondly, poverty is not just a rural issue. There has been a shift of poverty from rural to urban areas, where the latter has been a large increase in poverty. This may have been due to more concentrated efforts towards rural development, while population movements may have moved from rural to urban areas and the consequences of the crisis have affected mainly urban areas. Further efforts are needed to bring poverty to lower levels. More detailed data will shed light on regions and areas where poverty is concentrated and where interventions should therefore initially. The phenomenon of urban poverty should be examined in depth in further analysis in a future closer to understanding the causes and change in monetary poverty.

Secondly, even that Albania, is in the process of reforming social services, in a way, has made progress in performance in the legislative adjustment in terms of gender equality perspective and social policies, there is still room for improvement when it comes to gender equality in the third age. It is worth mentioning here legally protection cases identified as constituting a violation of the employment identification without underwrote older women as caregivers in the family, babysitters, cleaning the family.

To achieve legislative harmonization and social services Albania has implemented standards of service for the elderly, which serve as the basic instrument for ensuring and measuring the quality of services and guaranteeing the exercise of the rights of the elderly in accordance with the Albanian Constitution, Declaration political and International Plan of Action on Ageing, Madrid 2002 European Social Charter (revised) and the Council of Europe recommendations. Applying these standards by establishing rules for the quality of services, are required to be implemented by all providers of services in public institutions and services raised by non-profit organizations (NGOs) and other private providers.

Meanwhile, the growth of the population over 65 years old should draw the attention of state social policy making proactive and prudent pension schemes. Local authorities showing sensitivity towards the elderly, mostly female category
where the level of jetgjatësisë for them is higher, can develop and implement through social projects and awareness campaigns or new employment opportunities in order to avoid legal violations occur; as undeclared employment; but they themselves feel more valued against their families but also from civil society. Third Age is part of society and therefore should be treated equal as everyone else, even their contribution and experience to be evaluated more in society.

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Formation of the Volunteering Institute in Russia as an Indicator of the Civil Society Development

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Abstract

In conditions of exacerbation of social problems, complexity of modern societies and the limited capacity of public authorities in their decision, attraction and activation of internal resources of the Russian society become urgent for social development. One of these resources is volunteering. Volunteer activities aimed primarily at helping needy segments of the population who can not help themselves due to objective circumstances and conditions (including elderly people, street children, people with disabilities or people who find themselves in the area of natural disasters and social cataclysms). The authors examine the legal conditions for the development of volunteering in Russia at federal and regional levels. They concluded that the potential for citizens’ involvement in volunteer activities, at both the regional and federal levels, is higher than the participation itself. The development of the institutional environment for volunteering, including increasing the efficiency of public institutions of social development, are crucial for the actualization and realization of the hidden, untapped potential. Thus, to solve the problems of social development system requires more than just external, but, primarily, internal additional resources, methods of their searching, and technologies of its attraction. Volunteering as a social institution meets the objective challenges of our time and necessity of social and political modernization of regional society and Russian society as a whole.

Keywords: volunteering, civil society, legislation, civil activity

1. Introduction

According to the scenario of modernization, Russia in the foreseeable future should become a state, providing social guarantees to citizens to the extent to which a society can not do it itself. It assumes accessibility of basic social services, that are provided free of charge for citizens; the redistribution of social expenditures in favor of the most vulnerable groups, while reducing services for prosperous groups.

At the same time, the possibility of state budget currently allow only soften the situation of the poorest in relation to which state has part of the liability measures; in relation to others - suggests preventive action in order to reduce unemployment and mitigate the effects of mass social risks. It seems that the solution to this problem is the gradual disposal of paternalism in the relationship model between the state and the citizen and the gradual transition to a more efficient mechanism of social adaptation and rehabilitation of socially weaker sections. The main mechanism of the formation and implementation of effective social policies, in our opinion, is to use the resources of civil society and social partnership of government, business and non-profit organizations.

Thus, in conditions of exacerbation of social problems, complexity of modern societies and the limited capacity of public authorities in their decision, attraction and activation of internal resources of the Russian society become urgent for social development. One of these resources is volunteering.

Volunteers, in terms of legislation of the Russian Federation [9], are citizens carrying out charitable activities in the form of unpaid labor in the interests of beneficiaries, including in the interests of a charitable organization without receiving monetary remuneration.

The term "volunteerism (voluntary) work" is often understood as a socially useful activity (individual or collective),
The Federal Law (Draft) defined as a system of public benefit, social and political activities, which includes subjects, objects, motivation, forms, find themselves in the area of natural disasters and social cataclysms). Volunteering, in terms of active approach, can be gratuitously carried out on the basis of good will and free choice in favor of third parties or the public as a whole [6; p. 150]. Volunteer activities aimed primarily at helping needy segments of the population who can not help themselves due to objective circumstances and conditions (including elderly people, street children, people with disabilities or people who find themselves in the area of natural disasters and social cataclysms). Volunteering, in terms of active approach, can be defined as a system of public benefit, social and political activities, which includes subjects, objects, motivation, forms, methods and technologies.

Traditionally, volunteerism or volunteer activities are considered either from the sociology point of view - as a way of solving social problems [5], either in terms of pedagogy - as a method of education and socialization [1]. However, in our opinion, volunteering should be considered in a broader perspective - as an institution of civil society and an effective mechanism of civil participation. In the Universal Declaration on Volunteering [12] notes that volunteerism - is "the foundation of civil society, it brings to life the need for peace, freedom, security and justice, it is a way of preserving and strengthening human values, the rights and obligations of citizens, personal growth, through the human capacity realization."

Thus, by understanding social institution (following the neo institutionalisms' theory) as a certain set of rules, formal or informal, and a mechanism to ensure their implementation [2], we can say, that volunteerism, in modern crisis conditions, becomes a social institution that is able to compensate "failures" of market economy, as well as, some of the inefficient functioning of state institutions.

2. Legal Terms of Volunteering

The Federal Law (Draft) № 300326-6 «About volunteerism (volunteer work)», submitted on June 21, 2013 to the State Duma of the Russian Federation, by Federation Council members A. A. Borisovym, Yu. L. Vorobevym, V. V. Ryazanskim, deputies of the State Duma V. V. Ivanov, M. A. Kozhevnikovoy, V. M. Kononov became widely discussed in the public sphere as a mechanism of formation the legal basis of volunteerism operation in Russia.

The subject of regulation of the bill is urgent nowadays issue requiring legal regulation. Despite the fact that the use of volunteer labor in Russia already has a long history [14, p. 330] and currently reviving culture of volunteerism is not alien to the large percentage of our citizens (for the last 2-3 years more or less than one-fourth of the Russians were engaged in voluntary and gratuitous public benefit activities [7, p. 13]), the regulatory framework on this issue is not sufficient. The definition of the legal nature of emerging relations within the application of the voluntary labor, the introduction of rules governing these relations, the formation of the conceptual apparatus is necessary. However, , it is important to find a "middle ground" in the process of developing a legal framework for the volunteer labor regulation, without creating bill, which may negatively affect the implementation of volunteer initiatives. Level of involvement in volunteering is a direct measure of self-expression and self-realization of citizens [8, p. 34]. It is also important not to go to opposite extremum - make the framework law contains no specific demanded practice of volunteer labor provisions.

Developers of the bill, in the explanatory note, rightly point out the lack of legal regulation of volunteering (voluntary) activity; indicate the need to improve the legislation in this area. At the same time bill is aimed at a very narrow aspect of the regulation of the volunteer work. Developers excluded from the subject of regulation (part 3, article. 1) activities designed to support NGOs and associations, corporate volunteering, actually bringing the subject of regulation of the bill only to volunteer labor, initiated and organized by the state authorities and local government. Thereby, regulation is aimed at "state volunteers. " In fact, the bill aims at statization of volunteering. Its adoption is aimed at not just volunteer labor regulation, but is dedicated at "facilitating the implementation of the functions of the organs of state power and local self-government" (Part 2 of Article 3 of the Bill). Based on the text of the bill this direction is displayed as a primary. For "non-system" volunteers this bill does not bring nothing new in the sphere of legal regulation.

In addition, Part 2 of Art. 10 of the law draft contains an indication that in order to attract volunteers for elimination of emergency situations on municipal, inter-municipal, regional, inter-regional and federal level, only organizer of the volunteer activity is entitled to do this. Normally, it is state authority or local governments and organizations dealing with emergencies in accordance with the legislation of the Russian Federation. Accordingly, citizens who wish to take part in extinguishing fires or flood relief does not have the right to help to the victims without admission of the authority that seriously reduces the value of the bill in terms of development of volunteerism, and strengthening mutual traditions in Russia [11].

The bill, in contrast to its previous version, proposed by developers in January 2013 and caused a storm of public indignation, is not focused on creation of a unified closed registry of volunteers. The previous version of the bill in Article 14 includes provisions that all information contained on a national registry of volunteers are personal data and can not be transferred to third parties, except as stipulated by the legislation the Russian Federation. Based on the wording, only
authorized body have access to the registry of volunteers. Thus, only state will be able to use the base, which a priori seriously impair the value of the registry. Every region of Russia is given the right to make decision on the establishment and maintenance of information resources, involving the registration of volunteers, and issuance of identification number.

Particularly every subject of the Russian Federation independently defines the need of conducting an information resource. The bill does not specify whether or not information resource will be public or private, will be used only by the authorities or by any persons in the region, this enables region to determine on their own the order of disclosure information about volunteers.

If any region of Russia for some financial or organizational reasons come to the conclusion that there is no possibility of forming its own portal, than it deprived volunteers of the right to "enter information on its implementation of the volunteer activity, location and number of hours and promotion, he had received additional training; the right to receive support and incentives" (claims 7 Part 3 of Art. 6 of the Draft Law). Realization of other rights, as stated in Part 3 of Art. Bill 6, without registration on the information portal can be questioned. In particular, obtaining letters of recommendation, work wear reimbursement for travel, possibility to obtain government awards. It can be assumed, that the registers will still be conducted in regions, but without the requirements of the federal law on data transparency of volunteers and the possibility of CO NGOs in the region to use information resource. Registers will turn out, as in the previous version of the bill "On volunteering," as just lists for official use, the list of "state volunteers" [4].

The closure of the voluntary initiatives within the closed system gives reason to believe that the bill is still aimed at the creation of the state volunteering system, including tools of budget savings (in support of the position we refer to the explanatory note, which states that "the state is interested in development of volunteering activities . . . . and in terms of improving the economic effect of the volunteer work"

The bill includes a provision on the duty to maintain the confidentiality of information to which the volunteer has access in the course of volunteer activities (claims 4. H. 4 Art. 6). Well as the obligation not to interfere with realization of state and local officers duties. In fact, volunteer is becoming a person, that should work free of charge, strictly obey the instructions of the authorities; do not have the right to act without a special permit, and disclose what they saw / heard, and without opportunity to influence the decision-making process. In addition, a volunteer becomes a tool of implementation of the authorities' functions, which will, after signing the contract, is not taken into account, due to some limitations of their rights to terminate the contract unilaterally (claim 2 p. 3 art. 6 of the Draft Law). This violates Art. 37 of the Russian Constitution.

The experience of countries on conducting a clear definition of the status of volunteer demonstrates that despite the destination from labor legislation, volunteer is under the state protection to give certain guarantees and benefits. Important issue is about insurance for volunteers. For example, in Turkey insurance of volunteers is obligatory, in Albania volunteers supposed to be registered in the Employment Bureau. On the one hand, it seriously complicates the process of attracting volunteers for organizations, but if the event is financed by the State, the risks can be reduced. For example, in New Zealand and South Korea, the government provides insurance for volunteers if their work is associated with health risks. In Poland, volunteers have many benefits, such as accommodation expenses and subsistence expenses in the same amount as in the case of wage earners, compensation for other necessary expenses eligible for maintenance during illness and others. Moreover, this law introduces additional benefits for volunteers, delegated to work in other countries, such as medical insurance for foreign workers, insurance against injury, additional costs of travel and other.

An important aspect of the volunteer legal status is having the status of unemployed and receiving unemployment benefits. If an unemployed volunteer working as a volunteer, unemployment benefits should not be lost. For example, this issue has been resolved in the Czech Republic. In Macedonia, the Law on Volunteerism (2007) liberated themselves from taxation of the costs associated with volunteering, and made clear, that unemployed person does not lose the right to receive benefits if they are volunteers. This removed barriers for unemployed participation in volunteering, creating incentives for public volunteering for all individuals within a single legislative act. In Moldova the experience of volunteering counts as work experience and taken into account when calculating pensions.

Important legal issue in the regulation of volunteer work is related to its taxation. International practice shows good examples of this aspect of the regulation. For example, Polish law provides for tax exemption amount of compensation made by the volunteer organization of any organizational and legal form. In Lithuania compensation for volunteer work, is not considered as income, so is not taxed.

Based on foreign experience, basic content regulation on volunteering can perform the following:
- The definition of "volunteer" and "volunteering";
- The definition of "host organization";
- The content of the volunteer agreement and its conditions;
- The rights and obligations of the volunteer and the host organization in relation to each other;
- The provisions on liability, which apply to persons who violate the rules of volunteer activities;
- Taxes on the costs associated with the implementation of volunteer activities, such as travel costs, accommodation;
- Incentives for people to take part in volunteer activities, such as social benefits, contributions to the unemployment benefit;
- Terms of international volunteering, namely, voluntary activities of their citizens abroad and foreign citizens in the country.

Foreign experience demonstrates different models for the formation of legislation on volunteering: it may be provisions scattered in various regulations, and may be a separate comprehensive law on volunteering. This is the most commonly used model of regulation in Europe when all the provisions governing the volunteer activities, are combined into one single document. For example, the law of Macedonia provides a detailed description of the rights and responsibilities of volunteers and host organizations, terms of taxation applicable to reimbursement, volunteers’ insurance conditions and determines responsibility for the offense.

A well-designed separate law can be an effective tool to promote volunteer activity, and in conjunction with national policies and strategies can contribute to the development of volunteer traditions in the country.

3. Development of Volunteering (Sociological Dimension)

Sociological studies of volunteering show a high degree of willingness of the population for volunteer activities. Thus, according to the WCIOM interrogation, 75% of young Russians are ready to engage in socially useful activities free of charge or for a nominal fee. 48% of young already have experience of such participation [13]. 53% of Russians worked voluntarily at least once for the benefit of society in the last five years.

Researchers from Center for Civil Society Studies and the nonprofit sector (HSE) at the Conference "Development Strategy of volunteering in Russia - 2020 Roadmap" noted that Russian organized volunteering covers only 3% of adult respondents (909 of those surveyed). However, it has a high potential: 37% of respondents (10 680 people) were included in finding solution for social problems in the community. Thus, the lag between the data from these two studies can be defined as the potential for the development of volunteering in Russia.

Leading motive of participation in volunteer activities is the desire to be helpful for those in need (58%). Much less, people are doing it in order to solve a problem (14%), because of the desire to share with others how to resolve it, to pay back good for good (12%). Some also noted that volunteers are becoming people for their own pleasure (17%), recreational and entertainment (12%), obtaining useful skills (5%), meeting new people (4%).

In 2013, three studies were carried out in order to find out regional characteristics of volunteering in the Yaroslavl region:
- Telephone survey by sample in 639 adult residents of the Yaroslavl region (statistically representative sample by gender and age, the standard error of the sample 3.9);
- Survey of executives of 54 non-profit organizations of the Yaroslavl region.
- A survey of 52 federal and local authorities’ representative

For each of this group unique questionnaire had been developed that allows taking into account the role of each entity in the implementation of a particular type of civic engagement.

- Research has shown that volunteering in the Yaroslavl region developed at an average level - 4.2 points (on a scale of 1 - 10 points). Authority, population and representatives of NGOs are almost equally in this issue (Table 1).

Table 1. What do you think about the degree to which volunteering is developed in the Yaroslavl region? (from 1 to 10)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Average</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Population</td>
<td>4.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NGO representatives</td>
<td>4.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Officials</td>
<td>4.24</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A serious obstacle for the development of volunteering is the low level of activity of the population. According to a study conducted in the Yaroslavl region, more than half of the inhabitants exclude (38%) or rather exclude the possibility (17%) of gratuitous personal participation in any public associations, organizations, initiative groups. This figure is slightly higher than the nationwide identified in the study of "Public Opinion" Foundation in 2013 (49%) [10]. The main reasons for non-
participation are lack of understanding of personal benefits from participation in public life, lack of time, lack of initiative to groups to be joined.

20% of the surveyed allow, and 22% - rather admit for themselves gratuitously work in any public associations, organizations and initiative groups. Most of those who are willing to engage in active civil procedure (42% of the Yaroslavl region) are 18-29 years old, as well as those of middle age - 30-49 years, mostly with higher education; every two respondents from these socio-demographic categories indicated that prevent or rather permit gratuitous private participation in any public associations, organizations, initiative groups. Civic duty or opportunity to contribute to the solution of socially significant problems are the main mentioned factors of participation. Apparently, this is the main component we need to emphasis in the promotion of volunteering. Especially when such work is necessary in order to bring the importance and benefits of volunteering for all.

For 81% of the surveyed executives the work of NGOs is inconceivable without the labor of volunteers. Most often, such need arises while organizing NGO activities (78%). A number of non-governmental organizations ensure the information support of NGO activities (33%) on a voluntary basis. Number of volunteers in the organization strongly depends on the scale of activities. Thus, the number of volunteers in the surveyed organizations ranged from 0 to 350, and the number of hours per month when volunteer is involved in the organization - from 0 to 200.

Leaders of non-profit organizations indicate that most prone categories for volunteering are students (74%), pensioners (50%), and pupils (37%). Main challenges of working with volunteers are motivation, lack of time and lack of staff member responsible for them (28%), lack of practice to attract volunteers (26%), and unsystematic nature of working with volunteers (26%). According to surveyed executives of NGOs, greater coverage of the non-profit and public organizations in the media (48%), more active government support of the volunteer movement (44%), the positive image of non-profit organizations and volunteering in the public consciousness (40%) are the main catalysts for the development of volunteering.

**Table 2. What could encourage greater involvement of volunteers in non-profit and community organizations? (NGO representatives)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Answer</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Increased coverage of non-profit and public organizations activities in the media</td>
<td>48,1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More active government support of the volunteer movement</td>
<td>44,4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creating a positive image of non-governmental organizations, as well as volunteering in the public consciousness</td>
<td>38,9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More active encouragement of volunteers</td>
<td>35,2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More active work of non-profit and community organizations with a society</td>
<td>22,2%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In this regard, a large-scale information campaign on a wider coverage of the work of NGOs, as well as a positive image of public organizations and volunteering, aimed at addressing the lack of awareness among the population, could contribute to the rapid development of NGOs and volunteering. Non-governmental organizations must be ready to talk openly about their work. Therefore, the objectives of the organization are not just to create informational occasion, but make it interesting for the audience and the media. Creative and modern approach to outreach is needed today, in order to attract someone as volunteers in the future.

Most of the surveyed executives of NGOs say that they do not form relationship with volunteers (80%). As a key motivational stimulus NGO’s representatives use gratitude and certificates (52%), obtaining new skills (46%), recommendations / positive characteristics of employment (41%).

85% of authorities are aware about the necessity to develop the volunteer movement. Among the mechanisms that need to be developed, the experts proposed the following:

- Adoption of a law on volunteering;
- Informational support of projects;
- Promotion of volunteer work in educational institutions;
- Network development for volunteer centers, united by a common mission and activities;
- Improving professional competence of specialists working in the field of volunteer resources, non-profit organizations, business organizations, educational institutions, community groups, through the development and implementation of training programs in order to increase efficiency of the volunteer organizations;
- Multiplication of funding for youth involvement in volunteer activities (visual materials, promotion, education);
- The creation of a favorable image of volunteers, introduction of non-financial incentives of volunteers (training seminars, etc.).
4. Conclusions

Based on the above it can be concluded that conceptual approach is needed to ensure wide development of the institution of volunteering in Russia, and filling gaps in legislation with respect of volunteers in the broadest sense of the term.

The value of developing a culture of volunteerism for the state is difficult to overestimate. In addition, it is an integral part of civil society, contributing to its development and prosperity. The value of volunteering can be measured in terms of social and economic capital. In particular, competent normative regulation of this institution can contribute to the support of the priorities, selected by the government, the achievement of certain social goals through the resource of volunteers. Within this block, norms of citizen engagement in volunteer activities at the level of legal regulation may be generated within the priority areas for the state. For example, some areas in which, according to the State, volunteers are especially in need (social services, health care, and others.), can be identified as well as mechanisms for their engaging and stimulating.

The value of volunteer resources, in the implementation of large state mechanism for responding to emergencies, is huge. Mechanism of regulation of voluntary activity should allow the state, in a critical situation, using incentives, direct volunteer streams in the desired direction (firefighting, elimination of consequences of floods, etc.).

In the development of legislation on volunteering, it is necessary to consider encouraging norms. For example, financial and material assistance to the volunteers involved in firefighting and rescue operations, as well as loans and benefits from employers, workers and universities who participated in the liquidation of emergency situations. Compensation for volunteering can serve as exemption from military service.

In a situation of rising unemployment, low mobility and reorientation of persons who lost their jobs or do not have work experience, well formed Institute of Volunteering can play a positive role. For example, the program to involve the unemployed in volunteer programs will lead to the acquisition of new skills as part of a community service; the introduction of evaluation certificates, which can serve as an official confirmation of passing the professional internship, will contribute to the unemployed to find work.

As an incentive, credit system for volunteers can be used. For example, in 2005 the Department of Taxation in New Zealand amended the "Principles of lending students" so that students wishing to take out a loan were able to work in the specified charitable organizations as volunteers or for a nominal fee, and thus be eligible for a two-year exemption from payment of interest.

It is necessary to determine the precise legal status of volunteers, and make a distinction between employee and volunteer in the national legislation in order to develop the institute of volunteerism. Disregard of the legislator to the delimitation of legal status, puts organization, which uses volunteer labor, under the threat of accountability for non-compliance with labor laws. Russian labor legislation does not contain the feasibility of using labor free of charge, which complicates the understanding of the structure by controlling bodies.

Initiatives, related to the development of volunteerism in Russia, should take into account national characteristics and include mechanisms that can positively affect the elimination of the bad image of volunteering in Russia - "compulsory" volunteering in support of government priorities (work not on heart call, but in the direction of the state by using enforcement mechanisms). Mechanism for creation a culture of volunteerism are important. We have to enter volunteering into the system of education, in order to involve students in volunteer projects. For example, schools can enter a "day of volunteering", which would take place for all age groups. Each class can spend the day, doing appropriate for their particular age.

In summary, we can conclude that the potential for citizens' involvement in volunteer activities, at both the regional and federal levels, is higher than the participation itself. The development of the institutional environment for volunteering, including increasing the efficiency of public institutions of social development, are crucial for the actualization and realization of the hidden, untapped potential. Thus, to solve the problems of social development system requires more than just external, but, primarily, internal additional resources, methods of their searching, and technologies of its attraction. Volunteering as a social institution meets the objective challenges of our time and necessity of social and political modernization of regional society and Russian society as a whole.

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