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Mediation's role solving conflicts in corrupted judiciary systems

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Abstract

Mediation in conflict resolution constitutes a new trend in restorative justice. Mediator's procedures are "sanctioned" since Antiquity and later in the years 1999, 2003 and 2011. However, only after the first licensing of mediators and the Creation of National Chamber of Mediators in Albania we can seriously talk about the beginnings of the institutionalization of mediation. Why Albanian State and USAID and JUST program are investing in mediation conflict-resolutions? The main reason is because Albanian Judiciary System is estimated, perceived as extremely corrupted. Mediation is extremely important in corrupted judiciary systems as arrives to resolve conflicts satisfactorily for conflicting parties, it takes less time and less financial costs. It looks like mediation solving conflicts gives to the conflicting parties what the corruption denies. This paper will analyze the role of mediators in the resolution of conflicts, the need to bring qualitative changes in the practices of conflict resolution, the big challenge of establishing trust and everything connected with a biased process. The paper will be described by some questions and above all the question mark is if it possible to extend the mediation procedures in all conflict resolution? What is public impact of mediation? Is it possible to have corrupted mediation as corrupted as judiciary system? What is the solution if it happens? Some findings and conclusion will be the last session of the paper bringing us a clear picture of what the mediation should be.

Keywords: Corruption; role, mediator; solving conflicts, judiciary system

Introduction

Judiciary system is part of tripartite system as described firstly by [Baron de Montesquieu](#). Montesquieu goes further when he said that "the independence of the judiciary has to be real, and not apparent merely". "The judiciary was generally seen as the most important of powers, independent and unchecked", and also was considered dangerous. (Montesquieu, Charles-Louie. The Spirit of Laws). More and more governments in the world are reforming judiciary system trying to establish an effective, professional and impartial judiciary system. Apart institutional commitment, success or not of judiciary reform agenda, it remains one of the most controversial powers, more so in judicial systems that are perceived by the public as corrupted. Firstly it is important to deal with the concept used in this paper. What is corruption and what is mediation or mediator? As we all know there is not a universally recognized definition of corruption, many practitioners in the field use Transparency International's definition, or "the abuse of entrusted power for private gain." In international law, a person commits the criminal act of corruption when he or she "promises, offers, or gives" undue benefits to a public official "in order that the public official act or refrain from acting in the exercise of his or her official duties." If a public official solicits or accepts such an undue advantage, that also counts as corruption. (United States Institute of Peace, Study Guide Series on Peace and conflict) . The second key concept of this research paper is mediation. Sometimes it is used mediation or ADR. Is it ADR the same concept as mediation? The doctrine says no because using the concept ADR we mean processes that may be used within or outside courts and tribunals to resolve disputes, where the processes do not involve traditional litigation processes. The term describes processes that are non-adjudicatory, as well as adjudicatory, that may produce binding or non-binding decisions and includes processes described as mediation, evaluation, case appraisal and arbitration. It is understood that ADR is a wider concept as mediation and it refers all alternative dispute resolutions.

According to legal dictionary mediation is "the attempt to settle a legal dispute through active participation of a third party (mediator) who works to find points of agreement and make those in conflict agree on a fair result. Mediation differs from arbitration which the third party (arbitrator) acts much like a judge but in an out of court less formal setting but does actively

participate in the discussion. Mediation has become very common in trying to resolve domestic relations disputes (divorce, child custody, visitation), and is often ordered by the judge in such cases. Mediation also has become more frequent in contracts and civil damages cases. There are professional mediators, or lawyers who do some mediation for substantial fees, but the financial cost is less than fighting the matter out in the court and may achieve early settlement and an end to anxiety. (<http://legal-dictionary.thefreedictionary.com/Mediation>)

However, mediation does not always result in a settlement. We used this definition to introduce in the paper and in the linkage between mediation—corruption and judiciary system.

Background of the research

The Albanian term mediation first surfaced in the antiquity. This does not mean that mediation as a mode of dispute resolution was hitherto unknown in the Albania. Mediation, as a process of third party assisted bargaining, had existed for several centuries, performed as assemblies, presbyteries, blood feuds reconciliation commissions and social courts. These methods of dispute resolution were commonly practiced as a side-activity by judges, mayors, or yet other functionaries, using their intuition, experience of life, or mere authority. The "mediation" was regulated by Albanian Canon (Canon of Lekë Dukagjini, article 668, 682), different laws (Law no. 83, dated 23. 05. 1928 "On the civil administration of the Albanian Kingdom", or Law No. 4406, dated 24. 06. 1968 "On the organization of the judiciary system"). In the customary law mediation was part of judiciary system, in so called social court, at that time part of judiciary system. The social court (including village court or neighborhood court) should take all appropriate steps to resolve disputes by reconciliation (Mandro, 2008). Here lies an essential difference with the modern mediation in Albania. There are three laws, the first one of the years 1999, the second one the law of 2003 and the last one of the year 2011. The last legal framework is in full accordance with the international legal framework regarding mediation, the directives of European Union and the European Code Ethics of Mediators. It is possible to discuss about modern concept of mediation referring the last legal framework. According to the law of 2011 mediation and all legal acts regulating mediation process, mediation is as an extra judicial independent activity, undertaken voluntarily by parties in civil, commercial, labor and family disputes, and in certain penal cases. The current Mediation Law, which entered in force on April 9, 2011, assigns the Ministry of Justice the responsibility of creating and maintaining the Register of Mediators, and establishes the National Chamber of Mediators. The law obligates judges to invite parties in relevant court cases to participate in mediation, thus providing an important tool for faster decisions and increase transparency in the courts. The law sanctioned criteria for mediators and only after being licensed from the License Commission in the Ministry of Justice and after registered in Mediator Register a person or a mediation office could mediate cases. Actually in Albania it is established National Chamber of Mediators (Since July 7th 2013) and actually there are 54 (Fifty four) mediators and two mediators office or foundations. (Ministry of Justice, June 2014). However before the Law of 2011 entered in force there are some important projects of JuST and USAID in Albania with four district courts since February 2009. USAID JuST a very important partner and counterpart is a five-year project to increase court transparency, fairness and efficiency; bolster watchdog and anticorruption roles of civil society organizations and media; and strengthen the legal profession and legal education in Albania. Thanks to this project, regarding its benefits in the mediation the process is a successful story and the statistical data show that the Albanian people are supporting the mediation bringing the cases before the mediators, avoiding courts. Describing the background of the research only dealing with the mediation as a new alternative of resolving disputes it is not enough and it doesn't explain the linkage between the mediation, corruption and the judiciary system. Albanian judiciary system is perceived as most corrupted. It is widely accepted and confirmed from all researchers, Albanian or not that judiciary system in Albania is corrupted. The last report (2013) of U. S Department of State concluded that corruption is one of the main violators of human rights in Albania and it continues to be a serious concern. More regarding the corruption, it is the interview of chef of Euralius Mr. Joaquin Urias. He said there are not statistical data and concrete numbers of corruption in Albania because the corruption is not punished (an other grave problem) but the whole system of justice is corrupted. According to him corruption has become systemic, being thus the rule and not the exception (See more <http://www.infocip.org/en/?p=1199>). It is possible giving justice in a corrupted judiciary system? Head of High Court of Republic of Albania, Judge Xhezair Zaganjori in the conference "Rule of Law and Reforms in Albania" co-organized in Brussels by foundation "Hanns Seidel, declares "There is no court when the judge declares the verdict based on political influence or corruption because there is no impartial and efficiency, two fundamental values of judiciary system." Corruption is structurally rooted, and officials often ignore or bend laws and policies, report false information and neglect the welfare of the population under their constituency (Lieberthal, 2004). Even though bureaucratic and commercial corruption is highly undesirable, judicial corruption is far more problematic. Courts are legitimately supposed to realize the law's corrective justice with reasonable competence. A clean judiciary could not fundamentally curb governance problems; but a corrupt judiciary will not only be irresponsible

but also intensify rising complications. Corrupt judges placed on the frontiers of exercising legal power are largely unfit to give fair adjudication, because their own objectives often go beyond the proper application of the law. Their actions may be motivated by self-interest and subjected to interventions by sources of corruption. (Eric Chi, 2008). A justice system, and the processes located within it, ought to deliver justice. (Welsh, Vol. 5:117). While you are reading this the first question you have is justice delivered equally for all? Even the principle of equality is old as humankind it is not applied perfectly. The corruption affects the public services, and so on the corruption in judiciary system affects equal delivering of the justice, and impacts mostly the poor. Courts possess the decision, which is binding on the parties to the judicial process to be implemented and executed but let's think for a moment . . . a judicial decision which one of the parties does not believe that it is in accordance with the law not only does not solve the conflict but also generates a new conflict that will accompany the execution phase of decision. We can not completely avoid conflicts but can find the best solution for them. Michael Barker said in his article in web page State of Nature "Conflict is not the enemy, but instead is the means of promoting justice. Unresolved conflicts that are "resolved" without adequate justice (via ADR and the like) are ultimately the enemy of all humankind, as they help institutionalize inequality. "According to Barker and the others, mediation is estimated as A. D. R (abbreviation of alternate dispute resolution) and now on it is estimated as Adequate Dispute Resolution regarding greater flexibility, costs below those of traditional litigation, and speedy resolution of disputes, among other perceived advantages. In this paper observing role of mediation in corrupted judiciary system it is important to emphasize advantages of mediation in dispute solving. According to Laura Nader in her review of Jerold Auerbach's book *Justice Without Law?* (Oxford University Press, 1983), Laura Nader recounts how Auerbach wrote that prior to the Civil War, "alternative dispute settlement had expressed an ideology of community justice. Thereafter, " Nader continues "according to Auerbach, it became an external instrument of social control and a way of increasing judicial efficiency. "

After introducing shortly the background of the paper, the chronological presentation of mediation in Albania, on arrival in the contemporary concept of mediation, as it is taking place recently in one of the most judiciary corrupted system in Europe and not only in the second session it will be discussed about methods used in this research paper, an analytical discussion will be about the linkage between them trying to point out some conclusions and recommendations about the future of mediation in Albania.

Method

Mixed methods of research

The author decided to use mixed methods research because of the advantage of mixed methods. It is argued that mixed research methods have several advantages. Mixed methods provide guidance for others in connection with what researchers are intended to do or have done (Creswell 2003). Mediation (contemporary concept of it in Albania) is a new process so there are not a lot of statistical data and it is much more important providing some conclusion on it, trying to go beyond of the barriers.

Materials

Quantitative data of cases of conflicts resolute by mediation. Data are provided by Ministry of Justice in Albania, National Chamber of Mediators, Foundation of Solving Conflicts and Reconciliation of Disputes and data of 4 (four) Court Districts in Albania where it is implemented a pilot project of mediation (Korca District Court, Durres District Court, Saranda District Court and Gjirokastra District Court as well) Statistical data are provided as well by JuST and USAID, two very important counter-parts of this project.

There are some qualitative researchers on mediation in Albania, especially in penal process. We will use some of their finding just to elaborate a common sense of mediation and how it is perceived by the scholars.

Results

The main aim of this study was to evaluate role of mediators in solving conflicts in corrupted judiciary system. For this purpose, firstly it is important to clarify if presence of mediation affects or change something in corrupted judiciary system. Secondly it is as much important to distinguish the voluntary choice of parties in a mediation process. The choice is due to the negative effects of corruption or because of bureaucracy, formal procedures and inherent complexity of having a trial process.

Findings

Using secondary data of researchers about mediation and the reason why the parties choose mediation, the reasons are as below:

- Through mediation, the parties reduce the expenses
- Reduce stress of court proceedings
- Reduce the emotional toll of conflict.
- In divorce mediation and other family mediations (such as elder mediation, estate planning mediation, and family business mediation), the participants benefit greatly by preserving the possibility of ongoing relationships in the future, if they so choose.
- It gives substantial control to the parties, rather than a judge or a court
- Mediation provides privacy and confidentiality, while the trial is public. This is extremely important in the disputes relating so called "private life".
- Disputes are solved in a creative way.
- The mediation solve the conflict while the Court Decision is about the case.

Using secondary data we listed the reason and now it's time to discuss what is not offered in trial process because of the corruption.

The first reason is reducing expenses. Expenses, financial costs are the most notable effect of corruption. Bringing the case before the court where the judges are corrupted costs more. Mediation costs less than a court trial process. Costs refer to official fee to present the case before the court, acquisition of the documents, fee of services of attorney and the costs of corruption). Choosing the mediation you choose to pay only fee of services of mediators. The fees are approved by National Chamber of Mediators.

The second reason of the parties is reducing stress of court proceedings. The court proceedings are stressful even for the lawyers and other professionals so it is easy to understand how stressful they are for parties in the conflict for who the court proceedings are not familiar. We will not stop at this reason and other reasons that are not because of the corruption but because of the organization of judiciary system.

An other reason, strongly related to the corruption is because the parties are not confident to judicial system. According to them the verdict courts are given affected of corruption or political influence. The verdict's court often is partial. The international statistical show that more and more people are losing faith in judicial system. The U. S State Department, year 2013, referring Albania regarding the corruption address: "State institutions that treat the fight against corruption remain vulnerable to political pressure and influence, while the fight against corruption in the judiciary has made limited progress". The corruption in judiciary system is a double problem cause it means not only not delivering justice but as well not punishing it. In a democracy based on the rule of law, the role of the judiciary, as an independent and equal branch of government, is to protect human rights and civil liberties by ensuring the right to a fair trial by a competent and impartial tribunal. All citizens expect equal access to the courts and equal treatment by the investigative bodies, prosecutorial authorities, and the courts, regardless of their position in society. Yet, under most corrupt judicial systems, the powerful and wealthy can escape prosecution and conviction, while large segments of society are excluded from their rightful access to fair and effective judicial services. (Pepys, 2003). Concluding the findings corrupted judiciary system affect:

- Faith of public in judiciary system
- More and more expenses
- Stressful court proceedings
- Violates equality before the law and access in the justice

For all above reasons more and more people are choosing mediation. According to American statistical there was a similar view expressed among the sixty disputants involved in in-depth interviews. Many expressed the view that they would wish to avoid the courts in the future, and ADR as well as lawyer-to-lawyer discussion were pathways to do so.

The mediation exist, the legal framework as well but are the parties informed about it ?

The mediation is more popular and known among professionals of the field than in the public. People missed the important information that agreement of a mediation process has the legal effect of a court verdict. The National Chamber of Mediators, judges, police officers, officials of probation services and mediators itself should inform parties for this advantageous alternative of dispute solving.

According to Ministry of Justice of the Republic of Albania for the years 2013-2014 the number of conflicts (disagreement) solved through mediation are shown as below: The total numbers of cases presented to solve through mediation is 167 .

From that : 90 cases belong to Korca Court District , 35 cases belong to Durres Court District , 43 cases belong to Saranda Court District and only five of them belong to Gjirokastra Court District. 75% of the cases are solved through mediation . (Speech of Minister of Justice of the Republic of Albania, Mr, Nasip Naco in the meeting "Mediation , a new alternative of solving conflicts in Albania", organized by National Chamber of Mediation, in the attention of Ministry of Justice ")

Discussion

In the discussion session of this research paper I would like to pay attention to some debated question.

After proved the linkage between corruption in judiciary system and positive effects of mediation in fighting corruption, which is the guarantee that the theory that mediation fight corruption in judiciary system is true and can be implemented successfully?

There are enormous theories of combating corruption in judiciary system. They vary from new selection systems, higher salaries, guaranteed tenure, ethical training, courtroom automation and improved monitoring and discipline . They have different rates of success, but none of them could vanish corruption . Going further UN Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC) said it became evident, however, that judicial corruption could only be addressed effectively as part of a broader, systematic and sustainable approach aimed at enhancing both the integrity and the capacity of the judiciary and the courts. (Hammergren, 2003). Why we should believe that mediation could seriously fight corruption?

The mediation's role fighting corruption in the judicial system it is mainly because of removing the monopoly-power of judicial system to resolve conflicts. An other reason is because judges and other law enforcement bodies of the judiciary in Albania are threatened due to the refusal of public regarding judicial system. This refusal is expressed through strongly support of mediation. The other theories of combating corruption have been focused inside the system. It will be interesting to see how an other structure "outside" of courts will affect the court, and the last but not least is that mediation will face the judiciary system with new standards, widely approved.

An other debated question is what kind of justice is delivered by the mediation process? We will introduce to the question shortly presenting the colonist view towards juries. They considered juries as as the "guardians of local community values against outsider judges appointed by the royal governor" and "as bulwarks of integrity against corrupt public officials. (Welsh, 2004) Are the mediators replacing juries, can we consider them guardians of local community values? Is mediation agreement delivering social justice, deeply wanted by community ?? Mediation is part of a real and genuine reform in judiciary system . In every time, but mostly now we need to highlight the need of a professional, efficient and impartial judiciary system. Other way there is no sense discussing about the rule of law or human rights protection. Starting from the point of view of judge Wayne Brazil who has urged that the process "democratized our institution [the courts] in potentially profound ways because mediation permitted, in fact actively encouraged, the parties to decide for themselves which values were most important to them, then to use ADR to pursue those values.", in my opinion mediation it is not only alternative dispute resolution, even adequate dispute resolution but is a way tackling corruption. It represent a new standard of justice, community justice, not an abstract concept of justice as it sanctioned in legal instruments, but a kind of justice coming from the parties including in conflict. Justice coming the parties is accepted, is not controversial and the parties have faith in it and believe in real equality. In that sense, mediation is what justice is missed and what people strongly wish to find in judiciary system. Let's go back in the very beginnings of the contemporary mediation movements , in the late years 1970s and the early 1980s when the movement was inspired by the principles of democracy. (Welsh, 2004)

Albania missed time to reform judiciary system and make this system more efficient, transparent and impartial. Mediation is part of reform agenda and it is time to play much more significant role in delivering the missed justice.

This research paper outlined the linkage between corruption in judicial system and mediation. It is accepted the positive effects of mediation in fighting corruption in judicial system but policy makers should keep in my mind that it is one of the ways and it should be combined to the others to be real and successful.

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Tables

Table 1. Mediation versus Court

COMPONENTS	MEDIATION	COURTS
Time (Faster)	Mediation cases take an average of two weeks to a few months for conclusive resolution	Can take at least a year and half on the average to resolve, not to talk about possible appellate processes in the higher Courts. Further, time for execution of the judgment could take a further couple of years sometimes.
Party control	Substantial party control.	There is no substantial party control.
Human Rights	Respected and equal for everyone	Fair trial process and other human rights sanctioned are violated in corrupted judiciary system
Simpler	It takes less time, it is less stressful, it is not as formal as court proceedings. Disputes are solved in a creative way	Court proceedings are formal, timetable decided from the administrative staff or the judge

		.Takes more time and it is more stressful.
Confidentially	The parties have full faith in the mediator.They choose him or her voluntarily.They believe he/she is able to solve their disputes.The mediation agreement is signed by the both parties and they are winer-winer	The judge or the panel of judge are determined by lottery.The parties have their opinion about his/their impartiality.Sometimes they do not believe he/she/they are able .They are doubtful about selection criteria of the judges.Undoubtfully one of the parties, mainly loser, or sometimes both of them loser and winer believe that the verdict court is not in accordance with the law.
Voluntary	Parties decide about the mediator. Parties decide if they want to solve the dispute through mediation	The parties do not decide about the judges or the panel of judges. If one the parties bring the case before the court, it is not important the will of the other party.An absence court decision is always possible .
Access	The poor and the other discriminated target group of the society could access the mediation process.	In a corrupted judiciary system to the poor and discriminated is denied the access in the judicial system
Effective	It resolve the disputes, conflicts. After the mediator process both parties have a common future	It gives a decision court about the case.The decision court could generate a new conflict between parties.
Justice	Social justice close to the citizens – an essential factor of social cohesion	Conventional, abstract justice In the best way it is in accordance with the legal provisions, abstract articles.

Table 2.Cases that should try to be resolved by mediation before going in the Court (According to Albanian law)
Law No 10385 dated 24.2.2011 "For the mediation solving disputes in the Republic of Albania".

Penal Cases	Sanctioned in the article 59 and 284 of Criminal Procedure Code for criminal cases category, such as beating, serious injury by negligence, injury due to negligence, violation of domicile, defamation and other cases, it results that the injured , (the victim) has the right to directly petition the court the criminal case and to take part in the hearing as a party, to prove the charge and to obtain compensation.
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	Also, under Article 284a of the Criminal Procedure Code are defined cases of criminal prosecution conflicts starts from prosecution or judicial police only based on the complaint of the victim, the injured party against the defendant, who may withdraw the appeal by addressing mediation stage of the proceedings. These cases are injury due to negligence, manslaughter, insult and slander because of duty, etc..
Family Cases	Divorce, child custody, parental obligations , and all the cases of the high interest of child
Civil Cases	Civil, labour and commercial cases

Table 3.How mediation reduce corruption in judicial system?

Removing monopolistic power of judicial system in resolving conflicts

Establishing an "outside" court structure

It is a clear example of refusal of corruption in judicial system

It represent new standarts of justice , which should be part of conventional justice given in trial process

New standarts of professional conduct

What does nationality mean today? Construction of national identity of the students who are attending Lithuanian schools

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Abstract.

This paper strives to reveal what does nationality as the basic element constructing the national identity means to Lithuanian students attending Lithuanian schools in Lithuania, Poland and Belarus. Empirical qualitative research was conducted from the end of 2013 to the beginning of 2014 with ninth and tenth graders attending Lithuanian schools in Lithuania, Poland and Belarus. The research sample: Lithuania (12 ninth graders; 13 tenth graders); Poland (15 ninth graders; 14 tenth graders); Belarus (4 ninth graders; 5 tenth graders). Study instrument: an essay. Analyzing the study data, categories were distinguished in terms of the structural components of the identity (Herskovits, 1948; Huntington, 1996): 1) national heritage; 2) ethnocentrism; 3) cultural homogeneity; 4) belief structure. The research data reveals that Lithuanian students attending Lithuanian schools in Poland perceive their nationality as encompassing all four components of the national identity. The most explicit reference, as in the case of Lithuanian students attending schools in Lithuania, is to the category of the cultural homogeneity, which involves the most explicit expression of the involvement to the process of fostering the culture. However, in the Lithuanian group, nationality even triggers negative feelings and indifference. The results of qualitative research results in Lithuanian schools in Belarus show that students of these schools identify the state of being a Lithuanian with cultural homogeneity, when they can foster their mother tongue, traditions, customs. etc.; also the students see actual possibilities to associate their future with their homeland, which in this case is Lithuania.

Keywords Nationality, National identity, school students in Lithuania, Poland and Belarus.

Introduction

Identification with nation is one of the most important phenomena in the society; it is realized as the fact when a person considers himself as a part of his nation, accepts and believes in its standard rules, the way of life and knows cultural, material and spiritual heritage. However, personal identification with the national society in the global world becomes increasingly weaker and less significant because people who decide to disassociate from their nation seek to identify themselves with Europe or even with the entire world. Increasing migration, technologies and the progress of communities are reducing the world by bringing people to closer interaction with each other which would not have been possible a few decades ago (J. J. Platt, T. A. Laszloffy, 2013).

Due to being among hybrid, European, cosmopolitan and other identities, a person feels lost. However, negating the national identity, at the same time, we also negate the human origin, i.e. generation from nation. The scientists argue that the national identity itself is the foundation for formation of hybrid, global identity and identification with a nation is considered as a part of full-fledged life of a person. Nationality is a substantial construct of national identity. Language, culture, history and etc. play the same role. Could the state be retained in case of negation of nationality? Can a person live without a nation? We can often hear that globalization destroys nations and etc. By the way, globalization binds the world; however, maybe globalization itself is that specific opportunity of construction of our nations, of development of our culture, of disclosure of its uniqueness and etc. It is worth thinking that maybe the problem is hidden outside the human consciousness and conception of global perception when the nation, culture and etc. are denied. It is worth realizing that the world needs genuine nation that have genuine cultures instead of plagiarism and uniform phenomena. Therefore, the following problem is raised: what does the nationality as the basic element constructing the national identity means to Lithuanian students attending Lithuanian schools in Lithuania, Poland and Belarus. The purpose is to reveal what does the nationality as the basic element constructing the national identity mean to students of Lithuanian schools. The article provides:

theoretical research – analysis of the chosen aspects of philosophical, psychological, educational and other literature;
empirical research – qualitative analysis – essay. This paper introduces content analysis of the essay.

Discourse of nationality

Even in the 21st century, the notion of nationality does not have a unified and universally acknowledged definition. For example, the terms nationality and citizenship are usually considered to be synonymous. "We are aware that citizenship and nationality are often used synonymously and that some domestic laws use only the former concept" (R. Bauböck, E. Ersbøll, K. Groenendijk, H. Waldrauch, 2006, p. 2). Thus, the notion of nationality acquires political content, even though the difference in English between those two terms is emphasized. For example, in the United Kingdom, the term nationality is used to mark the official relation between the state and the individual (Gerard-René de Groot, 2004). On the other hand, the authors admit that the term nationality might be ambiguous, as it is connected to the national identity and the membership of national minorities.

However, there are certain authors who attempt to change the dominating traditional system, in which nationality is related to personal faithfulness and dedication to one's nation; these authors tend to focus on political manifestations of the state. Kay Hailbronner perceives nationality as an expression of the membership in a political community, as a legal status and obligation to the political subject which is necessary for existent of a sovereign state.

Analogous approach is introduced by R. Bauböck, E. Ersbøll, K. Groenendijk and H. Waldrauch (2006) who accept the same notion of nationality promoted by the international law, when the nationality is perceived as legal relations between the persons and the nation.

There is a different position as well, as in the case of Tom George (2010) who distinguishes the differences between the citizenship and nationality and marks that nationality is a wider notion than citizenship. It means that nationality is characteristic to all political members of a certain state or for those who are dedicated to the state; however, not all citizens might have citizenship. Also one can have and develop its nationality even if one loses his/her citizenship. However, having lost the citizenship in one's country, the person can lose the right to live in it as well. Nationality is independent or related to the place of residence. The aforementioned aspects introduced by the author show that nationality is internal personal connection with the nation and community. Citizenship is related to the place of residence. This is based on the author's claim that being in the possession of nationality will not enable a person to acquire political rights; citizenship, on the other hand, will grant a person all political rights.

In this paper, nationality and citizenship are treated as different terms. Understandably, nationality cannot be categorically separated from citizenship as well as the nation cannot be separated from the state. However, the essence of the nationality is its personal connection to the nation and belonging to the national community, which occurs not from political laws of the state, but the national culture, customs, etc. The nation is considered to be the basis of nationality. Authors frequently mention culture, history, language, traditions, race as well as territory, politics and economy. All these aspects form the nation (H. R. Isaacs, 2001).

The nation is characterized by concentration of persons, mutual understanding and united actions which can unite people who can improve the quality of the nation, various parts of the state (religion, science, art, etc.) Nationality or individuality of the nation depends on these conditions. However, Stasys Šalkauskis (1991) marks that nationality is not related to various signs of nations, which are necessary for their expression. For example, the language which reflects nationality the best "is not necessarily a quality necessary for the nation. It is true, however, that the lack of national language makes the contents of the nationality poorer and less defined; nevertheless, it would be unjustifiable to insist on the lack of nationality altogether" (Šalkauskis, 1991, p. 66). The philosopher claims that neither manifestation of life of a concentrated (group of people) society is a necessary quality for the nationality. It means that even considering specific manifestations of the nation, it is impossible to draw full definition, which would apply to Jews, Swiss and other nations (Šalkauskis, 1991). Šalkauskis, who analyzed the essence of nationality, claims that the nation are maintained by the nationality as the personalities are maintained by a person; however, both arise from the individuality of the entity. However, the nation is a collective or concentrated individual. The philosopher found highly close connection between the personality and the nationality. He marked that nationality is like a circle surrounding the individual, "supplementing one's personal existence and providing him/her with necessary conditions to full-fledged life" (Šalkauskis, 1991, p. 65). These are uninterrupted connections which relate the nation with the individual.

According to Salkauskis (1991), the nation and its constituting factors serve for the development of personality. The final aim of each concentrated group or organization is the full thriving of a person. It helps to create a full-fledged individual. However, some organizations are based on a natural action and the other ones are created artificially. However, the nations organize themselves on the natural basis and "constitutes direct conditions for the development of the full human being.

Antanas Maceina states that the national individuality is determined by the man and his/her nature. However, the nature must be assisted by the culture. "An individual has in itself the essence of national individuality; s/he is its carrier and support" (1991, p. 46). Development of culture is followed by the development of the prominence of the nation as an entity and as an individual. According to Maceina (1991), the process of the nation becoming more prominent is the improvement of national individuality. Historical destiny is the factor that makes the nation prominent.

Therefore, the nationality, i.e. identification of oneself with a certain community or a nation is a significant element in the construction of the national identity. This work is based on the main components of national identity introduced by Herskovits (1948) and Huntington (1996). According to this structure, the national identity consists of the belief structure, which describes religious beliefs, religious activity related to national participation and unity; national heritage, which reflects feelings and unique history of culture, historical figures, historic events, etc.; ethnocentrism as greater appreciation and worshipping of one's own culture; dedication to the nation; cultural homogeneity is the culture unifying the members of the nation.

In this case, subcultures within the national boundaries have the opposite connection to the power of the national identity (Bruce D. Keillor, G. Tomas M. Hult, 1998). Involvement to activities which identify people as members of the nation.

Research methodology

Sample and organization of research. Empirical qualitative research conducted from the end of 2013 to the beginning of 2014 with ninth and tenth graders in Lithuanian schools in Lithuania, Poland and Belarus. For the content analysis in this work, ninth graders and tenth graders of Lithuanian schools in Lithuania, Belarus and Poland were selected. The research sample: Lithuania (12 ninth graders; 13 tenth graders); Poland (15 ninth graders; 14 tenth graders); Belarus (4 ninth graders; 5 tenth graders). The instrument was an essay. The students had the topic provided which was "The formation of my national identity" together with key propositions, considering which, the students had to write their paper. One of the key terms was "What does being a Lithuanian (Pole, Belarusian, etc.) mean to me?" The aim of this research was to reveal the attitude, relation to the nationality, the importance of nationality to the respondent (the person himself/herself must realize the truth "self", which is considered to be the essence of identity).

Analyzing the research data on the basis of the structural components of national identity (Herskovits, 1948; Huntington, 1996), the following categories were determined: 1) national heritage; 2) ethnocentrism; 3) cultural homogeneity; 4) belief structure. Categorization depends on the answers of each group of respondents.

Research results

Relation of Lithuanian ninth and tenth graders in Lithuanian schools to their nationality

Table 1

Category	Sub-category	Confirming statement
National heritage	Pride in the Achievements and culture of the Homeland	"This status makes me proud of the best Lithuanian basketball, a wonderful Olympic champion, delicious traditional food and our history of recovering independence" (n=5).
Ethnocentrism	Patriotic dedication to the nation	"In my opinion, being a Lithuanian means to be dedicated to your homeland Lithuania. It means doing everything for it" (2).
	Pride in one's nationality	"Being a Lithuanian for me means having Lithuanian identity, living here and being proud of it" (n=6).

Cultural homogeneity	Honor	"In my opinion, being Lithuanian is a great honor..." (n=4).
	Sense of community	"We are living in the country, where Lithuanians constitute the largest part of inhabitants; the country itself is Lithuanian after all."
	Origins in the Homeland	"Being a Lithuanian means that I was born in Lithuania" (n=2). "I was born in Lithuania and it means a lot to me; I grew up in here, here I learned a lot and started understanding things. I could not imagine myself speaking in a different language or living in a different country. The word Lithuania brings a lot of memories to mind."
	Fostering culture (mother tongue, traditions, etc.)	"...speaking Lithuanian, creating and following Lithuanian traditions" (n=6).
	Life in Homeland	"Being a Lithuanian to me means living in Lithuania..." (n=2).
	Attending Lithuanian school	„attending Lithuanian school"
	Negative assessment of nationality	"Being a Lithuanian is not such a grand thing because the country is collapsing due to economic problems and the response from other countries is not good as well. I simply know who I am. But of course I would like not to be a Lithuanian" (n=3).
	Indifference to the nation	"Being a Lithuanian is not as different as being a member of a different country. Each country has its advantages and disadvantages; therefore, it cannot be said that by being a citizen of a certain country I am making you ashamed of it" (n=4).

Analysis of data retrieved from the research with Lithuanian students attending Lithuanian schools in Lithuania shows that cultural homogeneity is the category that was distinguished the most. This component is further divided into subcategories. It is evident that these six respondents perceive nationality as the process of fostering culture (traditions, customs and mother tongue), five respondents mark the pride in their nationality and four students consider nationality as an honor they received. However, four students state that being Lithuanians does not mean anything to them; this reveals their indifference to the nation.

The other category, national heritage, reveals the state of being proud of the achievements and culture of one's Homeland. This is mentioned by six respondents.

Ethnocentricity is described as patriotic dedication to the nation, which was selected by two students. Summarizing, it can be said that for this group of respondents, nationality is a part of cultural homogeneity and cultural uniqueness; however, nationality evokes negative feelings or indifference for five respondents.

Relation of Lithuanian ninth and tenth graders attending Lithuanian schools in Poland to their nationality

Table 2

Category	Sub-category	Confirming statement
National heritage	Pride in the Achievements and culture of the Homeland	"To me, Lithuanian origins and history are very important. I really love to come here"; "one must be proud of Lithuanian language, since it is one of the oldest surviving languages".
	Respect to the homeland and its heritage	"It means that I respect my nationality, hymn and traditions. In my opinion, being Lithuanian now means respecting the country and heritage"

		loving and not forgetting it. Being a Lithuanian means respecting its mother tongue". (3)
Belief system	Religious activity	"I go to church every Sunday. Here, Lithuanian mass is held"
Ethnocentrism	Patriotic dedication to the country	"Being a Lithuanian means supporting Lithuanian sportsmen" (2); "Being a Lithuanian to me means being a patriot" (6).
Cultural homogeneity	Pride in one's nationality	"Being a Lithuanian in Poland means a lot to me. I am proud of who I am and I do not want to be a different person" (4).
	Honor	Being a Lithuanian is a great honor and pride. Being a Lithuanian is an honor.
	Sense of community	"Being a Lithuanian or a Pole means a lot because I can communicate with others"
	Origin in the Homeland	"Being a Lithuanian means a lot because it is my home nation."
	Fostering culture (mother tongue, traditions, etc.)	"Being a Lithuanian means celebrating its occasions and following its traditions. Being Lithuanian is very important, especially cherishing its language so it would not disappear. It is as if honoring the works of our ancestors, who fought for Lithuanian language" (19).
	Positive feelings towards the nationality	"Being a Lithuanian means a lot to me. I am happy because this is my nationality. In my heart, I always feel love for Lithuania, which I received from my parents" (7).
	The historic importance of continuity of nationality	"To me, being a Lithuanian means everything. I received my character traits determining my national identity from my grandparents".
	Negative influence of other countries	"To me, being a Lithuanian is very difficult at the moment because I live in Poland and it changes everything. Every day now I have to speak not only in Lithuanian, but also Polish and English ..."
	Indifference to the nation	"At the moment being a Lithuanian to me means living next to it, behind its border. I would not want to move to Lithuania because here I would have to leave my friends and family."

The attitude of Lithuanian students attending Lithuanian school in Poland to the nationality encompasses all four components of national identity. As in the cases of Lithuanian schools in Lithuania, a prominent category is that of cultural homogeneity, in which involvement to the activity fostering cultural activities becomes evident (n=19). Therefore, nationality as a part of cultural uniqueness triggers positive feelings (n=7) and makes people proud of it (n=4).

The other category is cultural heritage which for Lithuanian students living in Poland means the respect for the Homeland, its heritage (n=3); pride in the achievements and culture of Homeland (n=1).

The analysis of data distinguished the category of ethnocentrism, which reveals the subcategory of patriotic dedication to the nation (n=8).

It is noteworthy that in this group of respondents, the component of belief structure has been distinguished, where one student related being Lithuanian to religious activity (n=1).

Relation of Lithuanian ninth and tenth graders attending Lithuanian schools in Belarus to their nationality

Table 3

Category	Sub-category	Confirming statement
Cultural homogeneity	Fostering culture (mother tongue, traditions, etc.)	"To speak Lithuanian and follow traditions" (9).
	Possibility to link one's future with the homeland	"I can study in Lithuania"(3).
	Participation in the life of the nation	"To have interest in Lithuanian life".

Since the sample of the group from Belarus was the smallest, it is believable that this factor had influence on narrower interpretation of the data. It has been noticed that Lithuanian students of Lithuanian schools in Belarus relate being Lithuanian to cultural homogeneity, when they can foster their mother tongue, traditions, customs, etc. (n=9). As opposed to the answers in other groups, three students from Belarus see actual possibilities to see their future in Lithuania. The involvement to the life of Lithuania is foreseen only by one respondent.

Conclusions

1. The analysis of theoretical material presupposes that the notion of nationality does not have a unified notion to this day. In the works of certain scholars, nationality and citizenship are treated as synonyms, thus, attributing political and legal meaning to the nationality. Other scholars emphasize that the essence of nationality is one's personal connection with the nation, belonging to the national community, occurring not from political laws of the state but the culture and customs of the nation, etc. Nationality is one of the main constituents of the national identity.
2. Research data revealed that the attitude of Lithuanian students attending Lithuanian schools in Poland to their nationality encompasses all four components of national identity, namely cultural homogeneity, ethnocentrism, national heritage and belief structure. The most prominent is the category of cultural homogeneity, which reveals involvement to the process of fostering culture the most. It is noteworthy that in the group of these respondents belief structure was revealed, when one student related being Lithuanian to religious activity.
3. The data analysis of research conducted in Lithuanian schools in Lithuania shows that the most prominent component is cultural homogeneity, when the fostering of cultural components (traditions, customs and mother tongue) is emphasized and pride in one's nationality is taken. However, nationality in the group of Lithuanian residents causes negative feelings or indifference as well.
4. The sample of students attending Lithuanian schools in Belarus was the smallest. The results of quantitative research show that students related the state of being Lithuanians to cultural homogeneity, when they can cherish their mother tongue, traditions, etc. also students see actual possibilities to see their future in their homeland, which in this case is Lithuania.

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Foreign-language influence on the morphological structure of dialects that were formed in the bilingual habitat

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Abstract

The purpose of this article is to find out whether there have been changes in the morphological structure of some dialects of the Azerbaijani language in the bilingual environment. Investigated the internal structure of any language. The structurally agglutinative Turkic languages, the segment force of which is vowel harmony, are more resistant to change than internally changing inflected languages. But some dialects were formed and developed in the bilingual and even polylingual environment. But does fairly close proximity to the morphological system of any dialect. The study shows the conservatism of the Turkic languages to some extent associated with agglutinative systems. In every language morphological structure and phonetic laws are interrelated and determine each other. Research shows foreign-language influence on morphological structure of dialects, it is first necessary to clarify whether there is influence in the phonetic level. Agglutination and vowel harmony always predetermined internal resistance of the Turkic languages.

Key words: dialects, investigate, morphological

Introduction

It is known that dialects are the most unique event in the language, the reasons of emerging of which still produces different thinking on the part of scientists. All reflections, despite their dissimilarity, give logical conclusion. Dialects were formed by localization of tribal languages in some areas, while preserving the ancient conservative elements. It should be noted that some tribes were often localized in the neighborhood of unrelated tribes. This, of course, led to the development of this dialect in the bilingual environment. Mutual borrowing of lexical units itself is evident in languages, especially neighboring. As culture of the peoples is both historical and social phenomenon. Finding its origins in the most remote places of early maturation of each ethnic group, the culture in its development absorbed all non-alien, doing it own very harmoniously.

For example, all people, once neighboring Turkic tribes, took from the ancient Turks the method of cooking dolma or yogurt. Quite frankly, these people consider these cultural phenomena own, without even knowing about it borrowed nature and not guessing about the origin of these lexical units. Whereas the ancient Turks well mastered processing of dairy products, divided the sour milk in fat (йогурт от слова йор//йар-жир, масло) and not fatty- ayran (seceded). Or take, for example, culinary arts of cooking dolma (filled). The name of dish itself speaks on the process of cooking. Ethno-linguistic analysis of the names of dishes shows that the name of the dishes in the lexicon of ancient Turks is formed according to the process of cooking. Moreover, these names include both the process and the state. There are many examples: buglama (steam and fresh), khashlama (stewing and brewing), demleme (brew and brewing), basdirma. The material collected from the dialects give hundreds of examples.

The same thing can be said about the opposite influence. Some names of the dishes in the Azerbaijani dialects were obtained from neighboring languages. For example, names such dishes as cikhirtma, alsoqulakh and others from Georgian, surfilli from languages of the Caucasian peoples.

In such Azerbaijani dialects as Gakh, Sheki, Guba, Kusal the ancient Turkic elements preserved much stronger than in other dialects and sub-dialects of Azerbaijan. Why is that? After all these dialects developed not only in the bilingual but even in semi linguistic environment. We know from history that such ancient Turkic tribes as the Khazars, Pechenegs, Sabirs and others appeared in the North Caucasus in the early centuries of our era. For many centuries, these Turkic tribes were located in these regions. Cultural and linguistic ties occurring in these regions, reflected primarily on vocabulary.

Generally, we can say that the vocabulary of above-mentioned dialects can be divided into two parts: the ancient Turkic and vocabulary borrowed from the language of the Caucasian peoples.

Method

To thoroughly investigate this research question, was used a comparative-historical, comparative and statistical methods.

Materials

The study was conducted in the various dialects of the Azerbaijani language. The main accomplice served "Dialectological dictionary Azerbaijani language." (Institutu, 2003)

Survey was carried out among different dialects by Azerbaijan. Many words used by the older generation, representatives are not clear under 50 years. Vocabulary covered all povdenevnyu life.

Procedure

Firstly, the survey and the study was approved by the Division of dialectology and language history of the National Academy of Sciences of Azerbaijan. Then as it was approved in the main workshop of the Institute.

Results

The matter is fact, that the scientific importance of this issue is that the findings made in the course of the study can be applied the study of intercultural and linguistic facts, as well as dialects. The study revealed the following findings: a large number of mutual lexical borrowing, especially in the field of culture, some influence on foreign language phonetics of Azerbaijani language dialects, but any change in the grammatical structure of dialects has not been found.

Foreign-language influence on the formation of dialects

Same definitely can be said about phonetics dialects. Culture and language are interconnected and it can be said even that in some dialogue. Saussure also notes that ethnicity, language and culture are interrelated and linguistics is in contact with ethnology, that is, all these links that exist between the history of race and ethnicity and history of language are reflected in its language and this in turn generates a nation. (Сочюп, 1999, 28)

We think that it is difficult not to agree with Saussure. Culture of a nation is reflected in its language, which like a mirror reflects the history of the ethnic group. Words of M.Shiraliyev about differentiation of dialects confirm our idea:

But when determining dialect system of Azerbaijani language it is not enough to come from one territorial or structural commonality or level of understanding of speakers of dialects or dialects. We must also consider the cultural and historical circumstances. (Ширалиев, 1983, 6)

As we said, the vocabulary is the first tier of language, which primarily responds to any extralinguistic events. Phonetic tier albeit slowly, but also reflects the changes. Do the changes in the phonetic tier impact on tier morphological? Famous linguist Sapir affecting theme interconnectedness of phonetic and morphological processes noted:

Inflected language like Latin or Greek, uses the fusion method and this fusion is inherent both as internal psychological and as well as external phonetic significance (Сепир, 1934, 106)

We think that it depends on how these changes deeply affect phonetic layer. If the matter is a phonetic transition that progress in any language, it is unlikely that they somehow affect the morphology. But phonetic laws, such as vowel harmony directly related to the morphological structure of the language, i.e. agglutination. Many linguists touched this topic. For example, Boudouin de Courtenay noted that vowel harmony is used as a means of derivational morphology. He is also looking for a vowel harmony in the morphological structure of the Ural-Altai languages. (Kurtene, 2014, 102)

This hypothesis is supported by other scientists later. Russian linguist Vinogradov writes that the only vowel harmony in Turkic languages acts as forming of phonological structure of language. He notes:

All languages of the world consist of words and in all languages the words are not intertwined. In every language the word integrity is observed in different ways. All of these methods we name accent of words. The accent is not equivalent to

emphasis. We name the accent all prosodic means which form the word A and distinguish it from the word B. The main prosodic means we can call emphasis and vowel harmony ... (Винаградов, 1970, 116)

Vinogradov also notes that vowel harmony not accidentally acts as a segment force in the Turkic languages. ... As a result, vowel harmony causes conservation of axial paradigm. Thus, structural bonds appear in two levels (Винаградов, 1970)

On this occasion Reformatsky writes: Vowel harmony is a super segmental force, and it acts on integrity. As a fundamental structural event it affects not only the phonetic tier, but morphological tier, too. (Реформатский, 1970, 106)

Sapir also thought the morphological differentiation of the main languages of their hallmark:

... We can say that all languages are different from each other, but some differ significantly more than others, and this is tantamount to saying that it is possible to ungroup them morphologically. (Сепир, 1934, 94)

Shiraliyev however notes that in some Azerbaijani dialects and patios sometimes one feels the influence of other languages and this also applies to lexical and morphological formation.

But he does not bring the credible evidence to support the presence of foreign-language influence on the grammatical structure of the Azerbaijani language and its dialects.(говоры)_ The author gives examples of violation of the principle of integrity and uniformity of the root in the northern and eastern dialect groups. For example: ata-atan-atouz; mən-mə; sən-sə :: other. (Ширалиев, 1983, 66)

But as we can see from the examples, it is not a violation of the integrity of the root but the principle of labialization that is inherent in all Turkic languages of Kipchak group. These changes can not affect the structure of the language. Labialization and de-labialization are phonetic phenomena that occur in all Turkic languages. However, here we can talk about some fusion. On rare fusion, occurring in dialect of Azerbaijani language, we will talk later below.

We appealed to the facts of Derbent dialect of Azerbaijani language. As it is known Derbent is the main city of Dagestan Federal Republic. That is, this dialect of Azerbaijani language is completely surrounded by Avar and other languages of the North Caucasus. Anyway, this dialect is also somewhat isolated from the literary Azerbaijani language. We think that the studied dialect can clearly display how real is the foreign-language impact on morphological structure of dialects being in the bilingual environment. According to our survey, we found that the word-formative process involves not only affixes similar to literary Azerbaijani language, but also the ancient Turkic morphemes that have long fallen into disuse in the literary language. For example, affixes such as -iğiglūg; -ağəgleg; -çağ;-lūlū; are consistent with affixes of literary language. (Institutu, 2009, 44) Here, for example, the affix mlum corresponds to affix nūn of literary language. Alternation of phonemes m/n characteristic for phonology of all Turkic languages. As for the affix-an (biç-an, ađart-an), which is not found in the Azerbaijani literary language now, then this affix Sevortyan noted its antiquity, particular spreading in the Kipchak group of Turkic languages. (Севортян, 1966 , 322)

Another ancient affix actively serving in the word-formative process of Derbent dialect is mac \ maş \ bac. (Institutu, 2009, 44). This affix also bears traces of ancient Turkic language. Demirchizade, having explored the ancient epic "Kitabi Dede Korkut, " especially notes the given affix. (Dəmirçizadə, 1959 66)

We have to note also that these ancient affixes have their parallels in other Turkic languages. According to our estimates, more than a dozen affixes involved in word-formative dialect, refers specifically to ancient stratum of Turkic language.

As we can see, foreign language influence on derivation process in the Derbent dialect of Azerbaijani language is not observed. Conversely, some isolation from the literary language helped to preserve the most ancient elements in dialect. Researcher of Azerbaijani language dialects being in semi-linguistic environment, such as Guba-Derbent dialects Kubra Guliyeva in the conclusion of her research leads to the following conclusions:

Descriptive, comparative historical and etymological analysis of facts once again demonstrated that the possibility of preserving by dialects and sub-dialects ancient the phonetic, grammatical and lexical elements in strange environment of other language, its purity of specifics are limitless. These dialects and sub-dialects, being in a foreign environment, to a certain extent are isolated from the development of the literary language, such as dialects and sub-dialects of Azerbaijani language in the territory of Dagestan FR, Georgia. (Кубра, 2007, 135)

The same opinion is shared by the authors of the monograph. (Institutu, 2009)

We continued to study and refereed to grammatical suffixes. As is known, there are six cases in the literary Azerbaijani language. Derbent dialect also has six cases. In practice, except for some phonetic transitions the suffixes of cases coincide with the literary one. But expressing fractional numbers, the locative case acts instead of the original case. N.Dmitriyev

thought that it was the result of the historical process in the language. He considered the original case as secondary and the locative case primary. (Дмитриев, 1940, 74-75)

Sometimes, in this dialect dative case acts instead of local and original cases. This property has been registered in some other dialects and in the ancient epic "Dede Korkut» (Dəmirçizadə, 1959, 295).

Tables

Remarkably, in this region, with the predicate expression the analytical way is used. For example:

literary language	Derbent dialect
Evdiniz(öydəsiniz)-	öydə varsuz
Ağzındadır	agzında var
gəl	gələ var

The same trend can be seen in the Borchali dialect of Azerbaijani language. This dialect is also on the territory of Georgia and of course, to some extent isolated from the literary Azerbaijani language. As Derbent dialect Borchali dialect is also surrounded by foreign language, in this case the Georgian language. But both dialects in this case, i.e., in the case of predicative expressions analytically, represent one of the most ancient syntax ways of the ancient Turkic language. As correctly noted by Sapir:

"Language changes not only gradually, but steadily, it unknowingly moves from one type to another. (Сепир, 1934, 95)

Of course, the above quotes by Kubra Guliyeva that isolated dialects from the literary language are less exposed to the influence of literary and logically, they longer retain ancient elements, are quite justified. We think that the words of the famous linguist Sapir most accurately express the situation:

"It's as if the situation is that in which something pluperfect era of irresponsible mind of tribe made hastily inventory of their experience, confided this precocious classification that does not permit review and gave the heirs of their language the knowledge. In that, they have ceased to believe, but which they cannot overturn. Dogma, attributed by tradition to a steady performance, become ossified formalism." (Сепир, 1934)

So, based on the findings arising from the research of the dialects of Azerbaijani language, especially those dialects, which in one way or another are in the bilingual habitat, it can be argued that the impact of foreign language on grammatical structure of dialects was not found. However, in the literature we can find such statements that in Derbent dialect most visual elements of Kipchak dialect are associated with the effect of Kumyk language, the closest dialect, on this dialect. (İnstitutu, 2009)

Kumyk language, however, included in the Kipchak group of Turkic languages. But carefully researching the history of the area, it appears that such ancient Turkic tribes like the Khazars, Pechenegs, Sabirs and others appeared in the North Caucasus in the early centuries of our era. (Артамонов, 1962)

That is, formation of Derbent dialect of Azerbaijani language and Kumyk language proceeded to independently from each other.

As for some fusion, rarely seen in the dialects can be explained otherwise.

Sapir wrote on this subject:

"however, the presence of fusion does not seem sufficiently clear indication of inflectional process ... our mind requires a fulcrum. If it cannot bear on individual formative elements, it more resolutely endeavor to reach the whole word as a whole. Such a word, goodness illustrates agglutination, books - regular fusion, depth - irregular fusion, gees - symbolic fusion (Сепир, 1934, 104)

The fact that many dialects are the main repository, even one can say treasury of the prehistoric elements of any language. Whatever cannot be found in the written records, can be found in the dialects and sub-dialects carefully investigated. For example, many of the facts of the dialects and sub-dialects of the Azerbaijani language in the comparative analysis find its

analogy in other Turkic languages, at first glance, which seem so far away in the distance. It is known that the differentiation between the dialects and sub-dialects of different languages manifests itself in varying degrees depending on the language. In fact, sometimes, even the distance plays a smallest role in differentiation. As distant from each other in a larger distance than the same German dialects and sub-dialects, the independent Turkic languages differ from each other least. We think that the factors contributing to this situation primarily are divided into two basic camps, which are interconnected and define each other. The first principle is linguistic, that is the matter is the internal structure of any language. Turkic languages being agglutinative in its structure, the segment force of which is vowel harmony, are more resistant to change than internally changing inflected languages. This determines the interconnectedness of Turkic languages among themselves and particularly between their dialects in separate.

But some dialects were formed and developed in the bilingual and even polylingual environment. That, of course, contributed adstrate and substrate in these dialects. We have already mentioned that the conservatism of the Turkic languages, in some extent is associated with agglutinative systems. According to our firm belief, in every language morphological structure and phonetic laws are interrelated and determine each other. In other words, vowel harmony of Turkic languages is directly linked to the agglutination. Many well-known linguists and specialists in Turkic philology in particular had reports on this issue.

We think that inter-level communication in language is tightly linked. Agglutination and vowel harmony always predetermined internal firmness of the Turkic languages.

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USING TECHNOLOGY AGAINST THEFT AND FORGERY OF CULTURAL HERITAGE GOODS

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Abstract

The aim of this study is to evaluate problems of museums and collectors that buy cultural heritage objects from individuals without asking a certificate of authenticity. Keeping collection of museums authentic is going to be more difficult because of developed replication technologies used by forgers who want to sell fake objects to museums and collectors. Moreover because of ill intended museum personnel who want to replace authentic objects with fake. In order to overcome such problems, it is necessary to get chemical composition of cultural heritage objects. Cultural heritage objects are sensitive and unique so the technique that is going to be used in analysis of such objects must be non-invasive. Portable Energy Dispersive X-Ray Florescence (P-EDXRF) lets scientists analyze cultural heritage in a non-destructive way. Determination of chemical composition of objects in quite short times such as 30 seconds per analysis) and seeing qualitative and quantitative results simultaneously is possible. Results of P-EDXRF can be used in determination of authenticity, provenance studies, getting information about production technology of analyzed objects and for restoration purposes. Moreover, P-EDXRF lets scientist make multiple analyzes, especially from big objects as it is non-invasive, fast and cheap. Besides, due to spectrometers being as light as 2 kg, it is portable and enables in situ analyses in museums or wherever objects are being kept. Characterization of cultural objects let museums keep chemical composition of objects in the inventory books. Chemical composition of object would act as the fingerprint of the objects. Therefore P-EDXRF results can be used to determine if an authentic object in the collection was changed with a fake one or not. These can be done by comparing new chemical composition of suspected existing cultural heritage objects and chemical composition that record in inventory book. Moreover in case of a museum robbery, recorded analysis results of stolen objects can be used to prove authenticity of recovered items. Majority of the time, after museum robberies fakes of stolen objects are made by forgers and are tried to be sold to collectors or museums. P-EDXRF also used for restoration with the aim of detecting the chemical composition of the artifact. In authenticity studies SEM-EDX also is widely used to determine chemical composition and matrix morphology of the objects.

Key words: Cultural heritage, Museums collections, Portable X Ray Florescence, Authenticity, Counterfeit

Introduction

Production of fake objects started in Renaissance Era (16th century AD) in Padua, Italy. The Italian Renaissance saw a widespread revival of interest in the classical world, Greek and Roman. Desire for Greek and Roman artifacts fed market not only for items of antiquity, but for contemporary creations based on ancient themes. Almost as quickly as this desire emerged, forgeries of antiquities and coins were produced to feed the market. As early as 1555 AD the Italian Numismatist Enea Vico included a section on the issue of forgeries in his book named "Discorsi sopra le Medaglie degli Antichi". The warnings of Vico read much like the warnings one might hear today about re-engraving or tooling cast, modern die struck specimens etc. (Sayles 2000).

As the world became increasingly scientific in the 17th and 18th centuries, the nature of forgeries changed. The rise of specialization during this period presented to forgers of the day an irresistible challenge. For the first time in the long history of making fakes, a conscious effort was made to produce items specifically for collectors' consumptions (Sayles 2000).

In the post renaissance, the challenge between forger and collector was really begun. For this period an important article was published by Spier and Kagan (2000), related with famous forgery of ancient coins in eighteenth century Rome. Forgers of the 19th century may not have had access to all of the technological aids that exist today. But anyhow they produced remarkable works. Even today, fakes that were made a century ago are being discovered (Sayles 2000).

The most notable change in the nature of forgeries during the 20th century was the use of advanced technology to make precision copies of cultural heritage objects.

Due to the advances in replication technology, the situation became more complex in the 21th century. Because fake objects started to be sold directly to the museums and collectors. Beside this, authentic objects of museum collections started to be replaced with fakes.

In Turkey and other alike countries, authenticity certificate is not requested when buying cultural heritage goods. Authenticity checks made only by visual inspection is not enough for 21th century replication technology. In USA and many EU countries there are companies that issues certificate of authenticity for cultural heritage materials.

Fakes of metal objects and paintings are more commonly made mostly because they cannot be directly dated. Baked clay and organic material can be dated with radiocarbon and thermoluminescence dating techniques (Aitken 1985; Taylor 1987). Therefore fakes of these objects are found less than metals and paintings.

In the all developed countries non-invasive archaeometric techniques are commonly used to determine authenticity of cultural heritage objects (Hida et al. 2007; Pauna 2010).

Chemical composition of artifacts can be accepted as the fingerprint of these objects. This can be obtained by non-invasive archaeometric techniques and result of analyses can be recorded in the inventory notebooks. In case of any suspicious situations where authentic object could be replaced with a fake one, analyses can be done on the said objects and results can be compared with the recorded fingerprint and the problem can be solved.

In 1996 a very precious object, **golden winged seahorse brooch dating to the Lydian Age** hosted by the museum Uşak, Turkey was replaced with a fake one by the manager of the museum, and was later tried to be sold for €2 500 000. Authenticity of the replaced fake winged seahorse was questioned for a long time and at the end it was understood that the original artefact was replaced with a fake one while the authentic was stolen. Beside this case, many paintings from the Ankara State Museum of Paintings and Sculptures (Turkey) are suspected to have been replaced with fakes. But their authenticity or lack thereof could not be proven yet. All of these problems could be solved in a timely manner if the objects were analyzed and their chemical compositions were recorded.

Because trade of cultural heritage is forbidden within and outside of the Turkey and similar countries, individuals sell any cultural heritage objects found to museums and collectors. But this situation is also an opportunity for forgers who wish to sell fake objects. By using non-invasive archaeometrical methods against forgery, museums and collectors can get ahead of new reproduction technologies and protect the authenticity of their collections.

Method

Material and Method

Cultural heritage objects are rare and sensitive so their analysis should be non-invasive. The most common non-invasive technique used in analyses of cultural heritage objects is Energy dispersive X-Ray Florescence Spectrometer (P-EDXRF). This technique allow scientists to analyze objects without removing pieces from object (non-invasive), and in situ analysis is possible because the spectrometer (Figure 1) is portable (with a weight of 2 kg), multiple analysis from same object is possible because of it is non-invasive and analysis results can be obtained within 30 to 60 seconds (Ardid et. al. 2004; Hida et. al.2007). Results of P-EDXRF are given as qualitative and quantitative with a detection limit of 10-50 per particle million (ppm). It is also possible to get spectrums of analysis from the spectrometer.



Figure 1: Omega, Portable Energy Dispersive X-Ray Florescence (P-EDXRF) Spectrometer

By using P-EDXRF, chemical fingerprint of cultural heritage objects made of precious metal alloys, clay, paint layers and marble/stone can be determined. Therefore using P-EDXRF became a popular technique in the analysis of cultural heritage objects.

P-EDXRF spectrometer can be used for deciding on the pre-restoration strategy of intervention on the artifact to be restored with the aim of detecting the chemical composition of the artifact. It is also used often for recording the changes on the chemical composition of the artifact during restoration so that analysis mostly done before and after restoration.

Keeping Collections Authentic

There are two major risks that threat collections; first of these threats is obtaining fake objects and the second is replacement of an authentic object belonging to the collection with a fake one.

Protection of Collections from Fake Objects

Museums collections contain very precious and rare objects. Therefore their authenticity should be protected from fake objects which have low artistic value. Furthermore, usually not even their material is as precious as their originals.

Baked clay objects can be dated by using luminance dating techniques (Aitken 1985). Organic objects can be dated by using radiocarbon dating (Taylor 1987). However metal objects and paintings cannot be directly dated therefore the difference in their manufacture technology compared to the authentic objects can be used to determine their authenticity.

Ore processing techniques leave many traces behind. Through chemical composition determination of metal objects, these traces can be followed. In order to evaluate analysis results, scientists should have enough data from both fake and authentic objects, so a comparison of the analysis results is possible.

Silver objects

By using P-EDXRF silver coins of known authenticity obtained from excavation were analyzed in order to use their results as reference. Beside these, data, from many articles and books can be used as reference material for silver coins in order to evaluate major and minor elements from the data belonging to coins of suspected authenticity (Walker 1976; 1979; Aydin 2013; Fleming 1975).

Coins from Roman Imperial Age that have been tried to be sold to the Erzurum/Turkey Museum have aroused suspicions. After analysis of the suspicious coins of Vespasian (69-79 A.D.), Hadrian (117-138 A.D.), Severus Alexander (222-235 A.D.), Gordian II (238 A.D.) and Marcia Otacilla Severa (244-249 A.D.) were carried out, results were compared with that of authentic silver coins coming from excavation (Table 1). Interpretation of analysis results of Vespasian, Severus Alexander, Gordian II and Otacilla Severa were quite simple because the chemical composition of coins turned out to be too far from authentic coins'. Chemical composition of these coins mainly should be silver (Ag) but analysis results clearly show that the coins were made of Copper (Cu), Nickel (Ni) and Zink (Zn) alloy. This alloy is sometimes called German silver and is commonly used in todays metallurgy and production of fake silver coins and other objects as nickel provides a color close to the sense of silver (Gürü & Yalçın 2012).



Figure 2: Fake coin of Marcia Otacilla Severa (left) and Vespasian (right) made of German silver

Suspicious coins of Hadrian made of silver and average main element silver (Ag) is 97% which nearly overlaps with average 95% Ag of authentic Hadrian silver coins. However minor elements Bismuth (Bi) and Lead (Pb) of these Hadrian coins are far from authentic silver coins' results (Table 1). 90% of authentic silver coins including Bi and not none of authentic silver coin including lead (Pb) fewer than 0, 005 % (Aydin 2013; Fleming 1975). Therefore suspicious Hadrian coins are also fake.



Figure 3: Fake coin of Hadrian made of silver (Ag)

Gold Coins

By using same methodology that was used for silver coins, authenticity of gold coins can also be determined. Beside this, in order to determine authenticity of gold coins and objects it is necessary to know modern gold chemical composition/fingerprint. Because qualitative and quantitative results of modern gold help us to interpret results of suspicious gold coins/objects (Aydın & Mutlu 2012).

Suspicious coins dated to Byzantium Age was tried to be sold to a collector in Ankara/Turkey. In order to determine their authenticity modern gold (Table 2) and suspicious coins (Table 2) were analyzed by using P-EDXRF. Authentic coins coming from excavation and belonging to the same emperor with the suspicious coins were also analyzed with same EDXRF (Table 2). Result of modern gold, suspicious coins and authentic coins were compared and evaluated.

Major elements of suspicious coins dated to Maurice Tiberius period have average Au 81, 77% and Ag 8, 02%. Authentic coins of same emperor have 98, 88% Au and 1, 58% Ag. Major elements of suspicious and authentic coins are far from each other (Table 2). Purity of the coins are determined by the authority in antiquity, so chemical composition do not tend to change within the emperor's period so much.



Figure 4: Fake coin (left Inv. No 5) and authentic coin (right Inv. 2-1) of Maurice Tiberius

Minor elements of suspicious coins (Table 2) and modern gold (Table 3) have similarity in terms of Zinc (Zn) and Molybdenum (Mo). Suspicious coins' average values for Mo 0, 029% and Zn 0, 22% are very close to the minor elements of modern coins Zn 0, 14% and Mo 0, 017%.

When the results of chemical fingerprint of suspicious gold coins, authentic gold coins and modern gold are evaluated; suspicious gold coins of Maurice Tiberius are counterfeit with high probability, in terms of major and minor elements (Table 2 and Table 3).

Recording of Chemical Fingerprint of Cultural Heritage Objects Against Replacement of Fake Objects with Authentic Objects

Police applications can be taken as example for this application. For security, fingerprints of people are taken and recorded. In case of a crime, records are compared with fingerprint taken from crime area.

The situation is same for cultural heritage. Chemical fingerprints of cultural heritage objects must be determined and recorded in secure places. If analysis are made from big objects, the analysis location should be identified

on photos (Figure 5), all minor and major elements should be recorded (Table 4) including spectrum of analysis and properties of spectrometer.

In case of any suspected situation where authentic objects could be replaced with a fake, chemical fingerprint of suspicious objects can be determined and compared with recorded analysis result of authentic object. Analysis of suspected artefact must be done with same spectrometer or with a spectrometer that has the same properties. If the recorded and new analysis results are very far from each other and their spectrums support this it is clear that the object have been replaced with fake one.

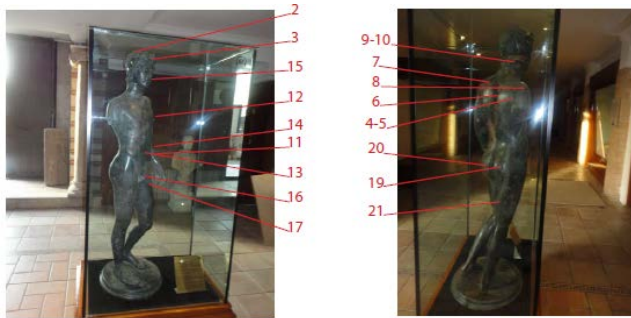


Figure 5: P-EDXRF analysis places from different points of sculpture

Another benefit of recording analysis results of cultural heritage objects is using these results when police recovers stolen objects. In order to prove that the found object is in fact the stolen object, analysis results can be used. This is because after famous objects are stolen from museums, fakes of them are introduced to the market. Therefore it is very difficult to prove if the found object is the stolen authentic one or not. This is one of the big issues that INTERPOL deals with.

Discussion/Conclusion

In 21st century depending to reproduction technology we meet examples of trade of fake artifacts to museums and collectors almost every day. Replacement of original artifacts with fake ones or stealing from museums is rare but possible. This situation can only be prevented thanks to the use of advanced spectrometers. Hence science laboratories should be established in museums and expert archaeometrists should be employed.

In order to determine authenticity of coins Scanning Electron Microscopy adopted with Energy Dispersive X-Ray (SEM-EDX) can also be used. As the liquid solidifies, Cu rich regions may form dendrites. If the alloy is freshly made, dendrites are stable. As time passes, Cu will diffuse into the alloy again. Because of SEM-EDX allows taking image and making analysis of dendrites and matrix of objects, we can determine if the alloy has been freshly made or not. SEM-EDX is a non-invasive technique for small objects around 3cm but bigger objects may not fit in the sample holder of SEM-EDX (Demortier 2003; Aydın 2013).

Non-invasive archaeometric techniques have important role in keeping collections authentic. These techniques protect collections from forgers and internal theft. Using of these techniques also help scientist to prove that the found object is the stolen one. This let museums to get their stolen objects back.

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Tables

Table 1: P-EDXRF analysis results of Suspicious and Authentic Silver coins.

Object	Analysis Side	Ti	Fe	Ni	Cu	Zn	Zr	Mo	Ag	Pt	Pb	Bi	Results
Suspicious Vespasian Coin 1	Obverse	ND	0, 21	19, 77	69, 4	9, 93	ND	0, 023	ND	0, 041	0, 069	ND	Fake Made of German Silver
Suspicious Vespasian Coin 1	Reverse	ND	0, 16	19, 19	68, 7	11, 84	ND	0, 025	ND	0, 054	0, 057	ND	Fake Made of German Silver
Suspicious Vespasian Coin 2	Obverse	ND	0, 3	19, 8	67, 4	12, 33	ND	0, 027	ND	0, 045	0, 047	ND	Fake Made of German Silver
Suspicious Vespasian Coin 2	Reverse	ND	0, 19	19, 36	66, 9	13, 37	ND	0, 028	ND	0, 055	0, 036	ND	Fake Made of German Silver
Suspicious Hadrian Coin 1	Obverse	ND	0, 25	ND	1, 79	ND	ND	ND	97, 95	ND	0, 004	ND	Fake Made of Modern Silver

Suspicious Coin 2	Hadrian	Obverse	0,4	0,29	ND	1,78	ND	ND	ND	97,43	ND	0,0041	ND	Fake Made of Modern Silver
Suspicious Coin 3	Hadrian	Obverse	ND	1,09	ND	2,1	ND	0,01	ND	96,67	ND	0,0042	ND	Fake Made of Modern Silver
Suspicious Coin 4	Hadrian	Obverse	ND	0,83	ND	1,97	ND	0,01	ND	97,09	ND	0,0042	ND	Fake Made of Modern Silver
Suspicious Coin 5	Hadrian	Obverse	0,39	1,37	ND	1,67	ND	0,05	ND	96,26	ND	0,0044	ND	Fake Made of Modern Silver
Suspicious Alexander	Severus	Obverse	ND	0,16	19,28	65,8	14,45	ND	0,026	ND	0,049	ND	ND	Fake Made of German Silver
Suspicious Coin	Gordian II	Obverse	ND	0,16	19,06	67,4	13,11	ND	ND	ND	ND	0,029	ND	Fake Made of German Silver
Suspicious Severa Coin 1	Otacilla	Obverse	ND	0,17	20,7	72,4	6,67	ND	0,024	ND	ND	0,014	ND	Fake Made of German Silver
Suspicious Severa Coin 2	Otacilla	Obverse	ND	0,14	19,77	65,5	14,38	ND	0,03	ND	0,057	0,024	ND	Fake Made of German Silver
Authentic Coin 1	Vespasian	Obverse	ND	ND	ND	3,61	ND	ND	ND	95,78	ND	0,5687	0,041	Authentic From Excavation
Authentic Coin 2	Vespasian	Obverse	ND	0,05	ND	1,84	ND	ND	ND	95,94	ND	2,0807	0,082	Authentic From Excavation
Authentic Coin 3	Vespasian	Obverse	ND	ND	ND	2,32	ND	ND	ND	96,92	ND	0,7095	0,053	Authentic From Excavation
Authentic Coin 4	Vespasian	Obverse	ND	ND	ND	3,36	ND	ND	ND	96,32	ND	0,2752	0,045	Authentic From Excavation
Authentic Coin 5	Vespasian	Obverse	ND	0,05	ND	3,92	ND	ND	ND	95,02	ND	0,8566	0,046	Authentic From Excavation

Authentic Hadrian Coin 1	Obverse	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	95,2	ND	0,8265	0,082	Authentic From Excavation
Authentic Hadrian Coin 2	Obverse	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	97,21	ND	0,4531	0,268	Authentic From Excavation
Authentic Hadrian Coin 3	Obverse	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	96,99	ND	0,4485	0,294	Authentic From Excavation
Authentic Hadrian Coin 4	Obverse	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	96,06	0,044	1,2554	0,08	Authentic From Excavation
Authentic Hadrian Coin 5	Obverse	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	93,48	ND	1,1265	0,176	Authentic From Excavation
Authentic Hadrian Coin 6	Obverse	0,3	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	92,71	ND	1,2646	0,18	Authentic From Excavation

Table 2: Suspicious and Authentic gold coins of Maurice Tiberius

Inv. No	Emperor	Owner of coins	Analy. Face	Mn	Fe	Ni	Cu	Zn	Mo	Ag	Au	Pb	Bi	Weight (g)	Diameter (mm)	Result
5	Maurice Tiberius	Collector	Obv.	ND	0,16	ND	9,06	0,23	0,017	7,73	82,66	0,04	0,11	1,58	18	Fake
5	Maurice Tiberius	Collector	Rev.	ND	0,8	0,02	10,96	0,25	0,021	7,94	79,79	0,12	0,11			Fake
6	Maurice Tiberius	Collector	Obv.	ND	0,33	ND	6,64	0,19	0,015	7,91	84,77	0,04	0,11	1,59	18	Fake
6	Maurice Tiberius	Collector	Rev.	ND	0,17	ND	9,12	0,22	0,027	8,03	82,38	0,056	0,02			Fake
7	Maurice Tiberius	Collector	Obv.	ND	0,12	ND	10,21	0,22	0,018	8,09	81,17	0,06	0,11	1,40	17	Fake
7	Maurice Tiberius	Collector	Rev.	ND	0,13	0,03	10,8	0,26	0,02	8	80,56	0,06	0,13			Fake
8	Maurice Tiberius	Collector	Obv.	ND	0,54	0,02	11,08	0,24	0,023	7,92	80,12	0,06	ND	1,62	18	Fake

8	Maurice Tiberius	Collector	Rev.	ND	0,72	0,02	9,63	0,32	0,019	8,12	81,19	0,08	ND				Fake
9	Maurice Tiberius	Collector	Obv.	ND	0,38	0,03	11,59	0,27	0,019	7,86	79,74	ND	0,11	1,62	18		Fake
9	Maurice Tiberius	Collector	Rev.	ND	0,32	ND	10,8	0,22	0,018	8,8	80,58	0,06	ND				Fake
10	Maurice Tiberius	Collector	Obv.	ND	0,086	0,03	6,69	0,19	0,015	8,26	84,7	0,04	ND	1,64	18		Fake
10	Maurice Tiberius	Collector	Rev.	ND	0,078	ND	8,35	0,21	0,012	8,49	82,82	0,04	ND				Fake
11	Maurice Tiberius	Collector	Obv.	ND	0,3	ND	11,26	0,24	0,019	8,05	80,07	0,06	ND	1,67	18		Fake
11	Maurice Tiberius	Collector	Rev.	ND	1	0,02	11,26	0,22	0,021	7,99	79,42	0,07	ND				Fake
12	Maurice Tiberius	Collector	Obv.	ND	0,44	ND	10,53	0,28	0,016	7,89	80,64	0,04	0,11	1,53	17,5		Fake
12	Maurice Tiberius	Collector	Rev.	ND	0,29	ND	8,54	0,22	0,016	8,31	82,58	0,03	ND				Fake
13	Maurice Tiberius	Collector	Obv.	ND	0,02	ND	7,98	0,02	0,017	7,88	83,66	0,04	ND	1,52	18		Fake
13	Maurice Tiberius	Collector	Rev.	0,03	1,19	0,03	8,31	0,23	0,016	8,09	82,02	0,08	ND				Fake
14	Maurice Tiberius	Collector	Obv.	ND	0,11	0,02	11	0,23	0,024	8,08	80,49	0,06	ND	1,46	17		Fake
14	Maurice Tiberius	Collector	Rev.	ND	0,19	ND	9,46	0,22	0,021	8,01	82,05	0,05	ND				Fake
15	Maurice Tiberius	Collector	Obv.	ND	ND	0,02	6,43	0,15	0,012	7,99	85,23	0,05	0,12	1,58	18		Fake
15	Maurice Tiberius	Collector	Rev.	0,33	0,039	0,03	6,45	0,21	0,013	8	85,16	0,03	ND				Fake

16	Maurice Tiberius	Collector	Obv.	N D	0,32	0,02	10,65	0,26	0,012	7,95	80,73	0,06	N D	1,63	18	Fake
16	Maurice Tiberius	Collector	Rev.	N D	0,35	0,03	11,12	0,25	0,024	8,02	80,04	N D	0,12			Fake
		Average			0,18	0,35	0,02	9,49	0,22	0,029	8,02	81,77	0,01	0,01		
2-1	Maurice Tiberius	Museum	Obv.	N D	0,17	N D	0,36	N D	ND	1,58	97,9	N D	N D	2,24	21	Authentic
2-1	Maurice Tiberius	Museum	Rev.	N D	0,09	N D	0,34	N D	ND	1,58	97,99	N D	N D			Authentic
214-8/6-89	Maurice Tiberius	Museum	Obv.	N D	0,087	N D	0,1	N D	ND	N D	99,82	N D	N D	2,19	20	Authentic
214-8/6-89	Maurice Tiberius	Museum	Rev.	N D	0,1	N D	0,11	N D	ND	N D	99,79	N D	N D			Authentic
		Average			0,11		0,22			1,58	98,88					

Table 3: P-EDXRF analysis of modern gold

	% Cu	% Zn	% Mo	% Au
Modern gold	8,8	0,15	0,019	91,07
Modern gold	8,7	0,18	0,027	91,08
Modern gold	7	0,14	0,017	92,84
Modern gold	7,1	0,13	0,013	92,76
Modern gold	6,7	0,11	0,015	93,16
Modern gold	6,8	0,13	0,015	93,1
Modern gold	6,6	0,1	0,014	93,25
Modern gold	6,6	0,11	0,016	93,32
Modern gold	6,6	0,14	0,015	93,25
Modern gold	8,9	0,19	0,017	90,91
Modern gold	8,6	0,2	0,015	91,14
Average	7,5	0,14	0,017	92,35

Table 4: Analysis records of sculpture including minor and major elements

Analysis No	% Cu	% Sn	% Fe	% Pb	% Zn	% Ni	% Bi	% Sb	% Rh
2	50.89	7.25	0.26	38.04	ND	ND	0.27	0.33	0.078
3	63.85	14.39	0.54	20.71	ND	0.026	0.17	0.22	ND
4	63.09	14.05	0.29	21.46	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND
5	60.07	13.62	0.36	24.07	ND	0.034	0.18	0.26	0.056
6	36.68	7.91	0.37	48.50	ND	ND	0.27	0.29	0.072
7	37.39	9.15	0.22	46.01	ND	ND	0.27	0.28	0.065
8	61.84	14.78	0.25	21.42	ND	0.024	0.015	0.23	0.045
9	60.82	11.96	1.84	22.20	0.10	ND	ND	ND	ND
10	49.82	11.43	8.02	22.46	1.27	0.22	0.24	ND	ND
11	42.39	10.69	0.22	41.44	ND	ND	0.20	0.28	0.062
12	53.87	11.29	0.24	30.75	ND	ND	0.021	0.25	0.063
13	49.87	8.64	0.38	36.91	ND	ND	0.22	0.26	0.071
14	51.77	10.97	0.26	34.15	ND	ND	0.16	0.26	0.058
15	49.91	12.40	0.38	33.65	ND	0.038	0.24	0.29	0.057
16	65.78	11.74	0.39	20.95	ND	ND	0.16	0.16	ND
17	50.77	11.04	3.54	28.35	0.16	ND	0.18	ND	ND
19	63.34	18.53	0.44	16.45	ND	0.020	ND	0.18	ND
20	54.02	12.48	0.26	29.14	ND	ND	0.17	0.27	0.068
21	48.15	15.40	0.18	32.13	ND	ND	0.17	0.20	0.047

COMPATIBILITY OF MANAGEMENT SYSTEM AND ETHICS IN PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION (ALBANIAN CASE)

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Abstract

Over the past 20 years, Albania has undertaken important reforms in public administration. The new constitution from the beginning has sought to build up a system of public services, from a totally hierarchical system, in a modernized system, bringing more and more questions and ambiguities in terms of ethics. In Albania, are unclear the inquiries in terms of ethics that has come with changes in the system of public administration. Many countries of the region of East, as Albania also, have integrated the code of ethics within the law, giving well-defined ethical aspects, but it is suspected that this process was very quick and unexpected. The main question is: should or should not be "The code of ethics" a natural process that binds to the development of a society? The paper will make a brief presentation of the various models of ethical approach, used in public administrations from the countries of region and Western Europe. Then will be analyzed in detail the Albanian public administration, identifying in this manner the problems of this administration, in conclusion to arrive at the finding such as, would be better to use an ethical model that can also be associated with the actual administration and its characteristics?!

Keywords: Public administration, ethics, law, civil servant

Introduction

If we discuss for a suitable public service, in terms of realizing the "common good", we can never separate a very important and vital part of its process, which is exactly the ethics in public administration.

If we talk about ethics of public service, we can raise a general question about the role and function of this ethic in reaching the common good, which is articulated "the good of people (legal category of human rights) and the social good (legal category of the general interest)". It is important to emphasize these concepts when it comes to ethics, since precisely these elements stay on the basis of ethics.

What is functional, it would be to find a recipe exactly ready to put in use by a defined model for a particular public administration of a specific government.

The only thing that can be done is to adopt the right perspective with the reality and the condition of a specific government.

In the various ethical perspectives, greater attention has been paid to deontology, teleology / utilitarianism, and axiology, which are quite common in a philosophical discourse of professional ethics. Philosophical-geographical approaches, does not provide many recipes for public administrations: According to Neil Brady:

"Especially in the public sector, where issues are large and complex, it must be clear that not only one ethical perspective is adequate and no prospects should be ignored"

The public management theory and practice, offers two directions, often opposed to encourage the practice of professional ethics in government - "the high road" and "low road".

. "Based on the moral character, this path relies on managers of ethical thinking, decide and act individually. Individual responsibility is a beginning and an end point in the path of integrity in public service".

If the road to reality rejects high integrity resulting from administrative responsibilities, then the "low road", addresses the ethical issues almost exclusively in terms of adherence to rules.

The "low road" of compliance is to encourage obedience to the legal minimum standards and prohibitions. Here there is a formal respect for the rules, rules which are legally obligatory and legalistic.

"The low road of conformity does not matter that most people want to take good decisions, but only that most people meet minimum standards of behavior".

It's quite obvious that in practical life we cannot find pure examples of these approaches and that are usually combine a complementari a vicenda. combined and complement each other. Lewis and Gilman offer a third option, a two-front, which incorporates compliance with formal standards and the promotion of the ethic of individual responsibility.

The ethics of management used in various countries.

The reporter of the Council of Europe Giovanni Crema highlights: "The ethics of public service varies greatly according to the history, culture and European values in each country, also influenced by other factors such as level

of economic development and democratic maturity". Countries with a long history of democracy had to conform with new requirements, but at the same time wanted to maintain the identical idea of public service. While new democracies in Europe, have asked the best possible system, ready to take in their public services. In some countries like Finland, the general ethics required for civil servants is externalized through the explanation of the meaning and operation of shared values, which form the foundation of the public administration. Values are an operational part of the personnel policy of the government. Similar characteristics can be found in Denmark. Portugal is a representative group of countries in which the ethical requirements for public service are expressed in a legal document as the "Code of Administrative Procedure". In Great Britain there is a strong frame of administrative law. There is a tradition of strict rules to conduct the behavior of public administrators.

Germany and France are examples of countries that have not a code of ethics like a value code. In these countries, "In the public sector, rules of conduct comes from the law, regulations and circulars, to some extent, judgments and professional guides to good practice.

Although, there is no code of conduct or ethics as such mention above, for all public administration, in the countries of Central Europe, several models of ethical management have been adopted. An interesting fact emerges that these countries have actually started the first attention to the ethical codes of many countries in Western Europe. Codes of ethics for public services have been adopted in Estonia in 1999, Bulgaria etc...

In Central and Eastern Europe tend to create codes of behavior with disciplinary methods. Until now, there have been several attempts to draw parallels between the types of systems of public administration, and the amount of ethical issues in public service.

In administration, there are two main traditions, the management "of the Old Public Administration" and management "of the New Public Administration". The pure ethical management models or theories of public administration do not exist in practice.

We can only follow the general trends that occur in reality, and each government must define its own path. The historical roots and socio-cultural play an important role in shaping the operational details of the management incentive of an ethical framework.

ANALYSIS OF STUDY FINDINGS

For the first time we can speak of an Albanian state law, the Civil Servant in Law nr. 21/03/1996 8095, "The Civil Service in the Republic of Albania". This law could not be applied, and after three years was replaced by another law, whose object was the same.

The current status of civil servants is governed by the law nr. 8594 year 11.11.1999. The Civil Service Act is a law that provides a set of rules, designed to ensure the stability and professionalism, not politicization, but also the maintenance of the career.

Despite these rules, the modalities of their implementation and interpretation in the space they create, have produced a series of problems in relation to this Act and the lack of law enforcement, since, as has been observed that the currently does not cover all problems of public administration. "For this reason, the Council of Ministers, with the decision nr. 1017 del 09.18.2009, adopted a strategy for public administration, which has a professionalism, vision, strategy, efficiency and transparency for this administration".

The fact that I dwell so much in terms of rules for public administration, has importance in the regulation of labor relations and the sustainability of public administration.

Characteristics of ethical public service in Albania.

The need to define ethical standards against Albanian public administration is caused by:

Ethical and moral decline in Albania, following a transition not to economic success in recent years.

Politics has still a lot of pressure on the activities of the Albanian authorities. Public service in Albania encounters neither the social status prestige nor respect.

Professional public service may be regarded as an innovation in Albania.

All these conditions and characteristics, makes necessary the use of ethics in the Albanian public administration, as a fundamental mechanism for the administration.

Ethical issues are involved in the Albanian legislation, specifically in the lawnr. 9131 of 8 September 2003, "On Standards of Ethics in Public Administration", based on Articles 78 and 83, paragraph 1, of the Constitution. 7 The purpose of this law is to define rules of behavior of civil servants, according to the required standards.

In chapter two of this law, we talk about conflict of interest and all the' Article Five of this chapter on the prevention of a conflict of interest, of the benefits, and many specifications where many officials should take into account.

As a result, the legal framework includes a wide range of ethical issues defined in Albanian law.

There is no doubt that this is a step forward in this transition period, ethical issues, should be protected by a legal force. But is this the only solution? Usually this is not enough, and it was shown very well in the negative evaluation that took place for Albanians in the administration report on the relationship of progress that has made the European Union, and this was one of the strongest points of criticism.

Corruption in Albania as a violation of ethical conduct in the performance of public services.

According to the poll - conducted by IDRA with support from USAID, May 5, 2010, traces the perceptions of citizens, public officials, and judges regarding the corruption in Albania, and their experience with corruption. According to the general public, corruption among public officials is common. 91.8% of respondents believe that corruption among public officials is "widespread" or "fairly common". As it can be analyzed from this study, it is emphasized that corruption is not perceived as a phenomenon only present, but also very evident, and this not only by citizens, but also from various government officials.

While Transparency International lists 87 place among Albania in corrupt countries. The factors that contribute to amplify corruption are:

The difficult economic situation that Albania has passed through the years

The personal interests of civil servants

Lack of professionalism and politicization of officials

Irresponsible officials

Weak internal and external controls, etc...

Corruption cannot be combated only with the enhancement level of awareness of personal of the public administration, not only from a strict legal framework, but with the creation of an ethical infrastructure.

The way to limit the level of corruption includes the improvement of economic situation in the state, the implementation of legislation aimed at combating corruption, the introduction of a code of ethics that serve to the public behavior, the moral climate and recreation psychological assessment of personnel in public administration, transparency and accountability of public authorities.

To reduce such phenomena as corruption, and ethics is necessary building an adequate infrastructure. As with any set of management tools, the effectiveness of the ethical infrastructure depends on the fact that is implemented and applied consistently.

Ethics should be connected to public management. If there is too much control, nothing will happen, but if there is little control, bad things will be done. In a country the infrastructure of ethics must be consistent with its approach to public management.

The training of civil servants as the ethical way to improve their performance and the approximation to the European Union.

A key priority in the implementation of administrative reform is to provide high quality specialist for the effective work in the central and local government agencies in terms of changing society.

According to the decision of the Council of Ministers on the reform of public administration, in Section 2.2 of Chapter II, it is considered to establish a school of public administration. Estimates of establishing a school for public administration are also a positive step, itself remains to be seen how this school will be placed relative to the training of civil servants. The effectiveness of government depends very much on how officials should handle various forms and methods of ethics. In the process of administrative reform, a very obvious problem is the lack of experience of public officials and official structures.

Changing attitudes and values, is a very delicate and complex, long-term process that requires special psychological approaches, and therefore requires highly specialized academic training.

What we can say, is that a very good and fast solution will be winning the membership in the European Union, because only this way we will really be pushed to comply the ethical standards that are requested by UE and our government will offer a better service for citizens.

The candidate countries for accession to the European Union face a complex and urgent task of building administrative institutions to meet the Copenhagen criteria.

Referring to Article 110 of the Stabilization and Association Agreement, the objectives of the Albanian Government regarding the reform of public administration, include creation of a transparent management cycle, open, accountable and consistent public administration. Strengthening institutional capacity, ensuring fair recruitment procedures, human resource management, career development, training, promotion of ethics in public administration, development of information technology in government, these are the real challenges we have to go through.

What is needed for the process of accession to the European Union is the sustainability, capacity building and strengthening the rule of law.

The European Commission believes that the "corporate social responsibility", should be practiced by the government, therefore, it must indicate a socially responsible, so that their practices must include social and environmental factors. It should be emphasized that sustainability and efficiency of public administration is

required by another document prepared by Ombudsman, "Code of good administrative behavior", which has to be integrated into our national law. This includes the fundamentals, such as, transparency, institutions should work in an open transparency, participation, quality and effectiveness of policy depends on ensuring wide participation.

Here are mentioned some obligations that the Albanian state has signed in the agreement of Stabilization-Association.

Indisputable that the monitoring and external control plays a decisive role in strengthening public administration, and if the membership in the European Union happens, would be something very positive for the Albanian public administration.

CONCLUSIONS

Referring to the ethical approaches and the characteristics of the Albanian government, I can say that Albania is not yet ready to customize the ethics of public administration, based solely on personal awareness, and laws are needed for the implementation of ethical principles. But once again, experience has shown that, even if laws exist, this is not sufficient. According to Neil Brady: "Especially in the public sector, where issues are large and complex, it must be clear that not only an ethical perspective is adequate and no prospects should be ignored"

The best solution would undoubtedly use the experiences of different countries to adapt better to a mixed model of ethics. In conclusion I would express the idea that there is no universal approach to ensure regulatory standards for ethical behavior of public administration. Must be a complex system of legal mechanisms, administrative and moral force of a public servant to do the right things and make them well. Today, the Albanian society is at a critical time where it is necessary to strengthen the public administration because it is a fundamental criterion for winning the membership in the European Union.

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ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE'S EFFECTS ON ORGANIZATIONAL CONFLICT: STUDY OF A FIVE STAR HOSPITALITY BUSINESS

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ABSTRACT

In tourism industry, attitudes and behaviors of hospitality businesses' employees who are in direct and continuous communication with guests constitutes a critical importance for the sector. Therefore, attitudes and behaviors developed by employees towards the organizational culture they are in, must be monitored and necessary measures to prevent possible conflicts must be taken. In this study, Çelik's (2007) Organization Culture Scale and Rahim's (1983) Organizational Conflict Scale have been utilized to determine the effects of organizational culture on organizational conflict and applied on 226 employees who work at a five star hospitality business in Antalya. Organizational culture has been found to be influential on all personal, group and group identity conflicts as a result of the study.

Key Words: Organizational culture, organizational conflict, hospitality businesses, Tourism Cultures

INTRODUCTION

Tourism is a global industry which has become a part of people's life styles with its suppliers and consumers spread throughout the world (Kandampully, 2000: 10). Individual arguments and conflicts inevitably arise due to individual differences wherever there is human factor as an input of socialization (Sims, 2002: 245). When the studies have been analyzed, conflict process has been determined as being significantly affected by culture. Therefore, in order to provide quality to tourism organizations, it is very important to minimize possible conflicts taking into account organization culture.

Organization Culture

Organization culture consists of common belief, life and expectation patterns of organization members. These beliefs and expectations determine norms that shape individual and group behaviors in the organization. According to another definition, organization culture is common beliefs, attitudes and values found in the organization (Brown, 1998: 7).

Organization culture consists of: "hypothesis and beliefs which exist in the organization's consciousness, functioning subconsciously, accepted without question, determining the way organization perceives itself and its environment and shared by organization members." In this definition of Schein, culture is emphasized as a totality of beliefs and expectations about organization itself and its environment which is not visible and palpable, in other words not objective, shared by employees but without questioning why. With these qualities, culture represents the covert inner dimension of an organization which cannot be observed from outside (Şimşek, 2007: 108).

Dimensions of Organization Culture

Robbins analyzes organization culture in 7 dimensions based on some implementations about management. Our study's analyses are based on Robbins' dimensions (Naktiyok, 2004: 78).

Organizational Structure: It expresses the division of labor and the level of expertise of employees, the attitude of management with regard to authorization, hierarchic structure within the organization (Efil, 1999: 249).

Individual Autonomy: These are the attitudes of managers against their workers. If managers have the need to use authority in a high level, show a inflexibility in the traditional behavior patterns and centralize the authority, then this organization structure has an autocratic management approach (Daft and Marcic, 1998: 424).

Organizational Support: Workers would have the need to follow innovations and developments. Organizations may provide support for this need by enabling them to participate to in service and out service trainings (Yıldız and Ardiç, 2002: 8).

Organizational Identity: The degree of workers' internalization of organization and identification with their coworkers are indicative of organizational identity. If workers feel close to the organization and internalize its activities, they would be talking very positively about their workplace everywhere (Ertekin, 1978: 67).

Organizational Justice: The most important aspect workers expect from their managers in a workplace is that they should be honest and just. Unjust practices of managers in a workplace could disincline workers from the organization. Therefore, practices of valuing personnel and rewarding accordingly should be constantly applied in an organization (Börü, 2001: 549).

Tolerance in Conflict: Conflicts arise all the time for various reasons in every organization structure which includes human. Most of the time, we think of negativities when we think of conflicts. But conflict benefits organizations provided that it is in a certain degree (Ceylan et al., 2000: 40).

Encouragement to Undertake Risk: Every innovation or new idea means risk. Organizations which undertake risks are the ones to create differences by being open to the new. Organization culture affects workers' attitudes in undertaking risks by using its encouraging or inhibiting influence (Sargut, 2001: 95).

Organizational Conflict

Conflict as a natural consequence of social life is an inevitable product of differences between individuals and groups; conflict is possible due to culture and life style differences wherever there is human (Özkalp and Kirel, 2001: 396). Therefore, conflict is a concept that draws attention of not only management or organization psychology but also is included in many research fields such as sociology, anthropology, economy (Asunakutlu and Safran 2004: 27).

Majority of conflicts experienced between individuals arise from properties of social or formal structures individuals belong. Structural properties that could cause organizational conflicts are (Eren, 2000: 379; Stoner, 1978: 348; Kılınc, 1985: 114; Robbins, 2001: 387; Newstorm and Davis, 1993: 226–228; Tuğlu, 1996: 29); status and power, bureaucratic reasons, participation to management, social, rewarding system that is not just, manager not being acknowledged in the workplace, hierarchic structural order, functional dependency, role uncertainty, low performance, organizational change, organization politics, organization culture and organization climate etc.

Kinds of Organizational Conflict

Individual Conflicts: It arises in conditions where individual is not certain of what is expected from him/her or is expected more than he/she is capable of and creates discomfort and stress for individual (Ertürk, 2000: 219).

Interpersonal Conflicts: It is dispute of two or more individuals on various issues. Most important reasons for this are the differences of purpose, methods, information, data and value judgment between individuals (Akat et al., 2002: 405).

Group Conflicts: In general, these are considered as interpersonal conflicts. Nevertheless, in group conflicts, there is the presence of unity of a group and a group idea differing from interpersonal conflicts. It is suggested that group behaviors are different than individual behaviors, so group dynamics have an interesting role in conflicts; different organizations being in conflict as groups could cause lack of coordination and work inefficiency within the organization (Callahan and Fleenor, 1988: 202; Johnson and Johnson, 1994: 4–20; Rahim, 1992: 101).

Group Identity Conflicts: Group identity conflicts are mostly due to disputes arising between worker groups who work under the same department manager (Eren, 2000: 535).

Correlation of Organization Culture and Intra-organizational Conflict

In a globalizing world, fast developing economy and multinational companies as well as strategic mergers brought along variety of workers in terms of background, education, ethnic origin and culture; labor force becomes more and more heterogeneous every day. This heterogeneousness shows itself as an important increase in numbers of potential issues, misunderstandings and tensions and conflicts between workers. It also brings along work load and work stress. Therefore, conflict management becomes more and more important for management discipline everyday. Culture constitutes one of the main sources of conflict now (Değirmenci, 2008: 42).

The process of conflict is influenced by culture significantly. The role of culture in interpersonal interactions has been discussed many times in literature. As studies of Kaushal and Kwantes (2006) refer, Leung and others analyze the role of responsibility attributes as well as procedural justice, equity and properties in the choice of conflict strategy. Every interaction between individuals, include power ranges too, even to a degree. Level and manifestation of this power changes from culture to culture and it determines not only the nature of process of conflict but also adopted conflict management strategies (Holt and DeVore, 2005: 168).

In organizations which have a flexible organization culture, enough freedom would be present to enable members to communicate to each other easily. The reason of conflict between employer and employee is especially the non-humanistic character of behavior. The reason for this non-humanistic behavior is the fears of managers. Managers' lack of self-confidence due to personal reasons may cause them to act in a way that is not within the frame of ethical rules. In addition to all these, in workplace, personnel in argument with other individuals are inclined to communicate about this situation. The experienced difficulty could be resolved before getting out of hand by adopting behaviors such as trying to find a common ground or empathy (Yirik, 2011:84).

It is predicted that organizations dominated by a flexible culture which tolerates faults, encourages workers to take responsibility, communicate and compete by working on new ideas, would adopt reconciliation and problem solving strategies in conflict management and would stay away from strategies of avoidance, mollification and use of power (Santaro and Gopalakrishnan, 2000: 304).

Aim and Importance of the Study

The aim of this study is to analyze the effect of organizational culture a five star hotel organization has on organizational conflict. Since tourism sector has a labor-intense structure, many problems could arise if necessary measures are not taken. The organization culture belonging to hospitality businesses could create conflicts between employees due to differences in culture. Planning of an organizational culture independent from than that of employees while forming organizational culture could triggers these negative results. Managements should take into account employee profile too when forming organizational cultures. Considering negativities direct effects on quality and efficiency in tourism sector which has a very sensitive balance, businesses need to determine the possible conflicts that organizational culture could give rise to between employees and develop measures to prevent these. From this perspective, it is very important to determine the effects of organizational culture on organizational conflict in hospitality businesses.

The universe of this study is consisted of employees of five star "x" hotel business which operates in tourism sector in Antalya. Study has been conducted just on one company because every company has its own unique culture. The results obtained are thought to provide important tips for the workers and managers of tourism sector.

Method of Study

In this study, literature has been reviewed and then, secondary data were analyzed. Study's theoretical frame has been determined based on these information and findings. Then, starting from this theoretical frame, an empirical study has been carried out. Field survey has been conducted in a five star hotel business in Antalya. "x" business which stays open after the high season was operating during November 2011 in which survey was conducted and its employees have been given survey forms. Business consisted of 350 employees in total. 232 survey forms were returned from all that has been distributed. 6 of these forms were considered invalid. 226 survey forms which were considered valid to be taken for evaluation of survey, consist more than 60% of employees which constituted the study's universe. This number is at an adequate level for statistical analyses.

Questionnaire method has been used in field study as data collection tool and 5 point Likert type scales have been used in survey (1: Definitely agree, 5: Definitely do not agree). First section of questionnaire consists of questions related to demographic properties of employees. Questions concerning demographic properties are related to data such as gender, marital status, education level, term of employment in sector, term of employment in business, department of work, monthly income.

Organization culture scale that could be found in second section of questionnaire is taken from Çelik's (2007) doctoral dissertation. This scale which consists of 26 questions is used to measure seven dimensions of organization culture (individual autonomy, organizational structure, organizational support, organizational identity, organizational justice, tolerance in conflict, encouragement to undertake risk). Reliability analyses have been conducted on the scale and Organization Culture Scale alpha coefficient has been calculated as 0.928.

Organizational conflict scale which can be found in the third and the last section of the study has been taken from "Organizational Conflict Inventory I" found in Rahim's (1983) study. Reliability of the scale has been tested and alpha coefficient is calculated as 0.960. Rahim's scale is observed to be used in many studies both domestic and international in the field of organizational conflict in recent years. Organizational conflict has been analyzed in three dimensions. First dimension is personal conflict, second dimension is group conflict, and third dimension is group identity conflict. SPSS 16.0 for Windows package software has been utilized in all the analyses of data collected during survey.

Questions and Hypothesis of the Study

The questions to be answered in the study and main hypothesis of the study may be summarized as below.

Is there a relation between personal conflict and organization culture?

Is there a relation between group conflict and organization culture?

Is there a relation between group identity conflict and organization culture?

In this direction, main hypothesis of the study has been determined as "there is a relation between dimensions of organization culture and dimensions of organizational conflict."

Findings of Study and Interpretations

We can summarize socio-demographic properties of organization employees in the scope of the study as follows. Of 226 employees in total, 45% is female, 55% is male; education level 32% primary school, 43% secondary school and 25% higher education; marital status 54% single, 46% married. It is established that; employees' terms of employment in tourism sector 21% is 1-3 years, 54% is 4-6 years, 4% is 7-9 years and 21% is 9 years and above; terms of employment in the same firm 45% is less than 1 year, 55% is 1-3 years; monthly average income, 10% is 0-750 TL, 42% is 751-1000 TL, 41% is 1001-2000 TL and 7% is 2000 TL and more; department of work, 20% is housekeeping, 18% front desk, 21% service and bar, 19% kitchen, 13% administrative departments and 9% security.

Factor Analyses

In the study, data related to organizational culture and organizational conflict scales have been subjected to factor analyses in order to enable a more accurate determination of variables.

Organizational Culture Scale Factor Analysis

Before factor analysis with regard to organization culture scale, the compliance of scale consisting of 26 questions to factor analysis has been checked. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin sampling sufficiency has proven to be 0.786. This value shows that data is suitable for factor analysis. Collected data have been subjected to factor analysis according to varimax rotation through principal component method. Reliability analysis which was performed of the dimensions obtained in factor analysis conducted with 26 variables resulted in reliability coefficient (Cronbach Alpha) of 0.928. In this way 6 factors in total have been obtained which have eigenvalues above 1 and factor loads above 0.40. Obtained 6 factors are respectively: Organizational structure and identity, individual autonomy, encouragement to undertake risk, organizational support,

organizational justice and tolerance in conflict. 6 factors obtained, explain 85.841% of total variance. Bartlett test value has proven to be 0.000 ($p < 0.05$), and this shows that correlation between variables is meaningful.

Organizational Conflict Scale Factor Analysis

Before factor analysis with regard to organizational conflict scale, the compliance of scale consisting of 21 questions to factor analysis has been checked. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin sampling sufficiency has proven to be 0.817. This value shows that data is suitable for factor analysis. Collected data have been subjected to factor analysis according to varimax rotation through principal component method. 3 factors have been obtained in the first analysis performed. Reliability analysis which was performed of the dimensions obtained in factor analysis conducted with 20 variables resulted in reliability coefficient (Cronbach Alpha) of 0.960. In this way 3 factors in total have been obtained which have eigenvalues above 1 and factor loads above 0.40. Obtained 3 factors are respectively: Personal conflict, group conflict and group identity conflict. 3 factors obtained, explain 85.361% of total variance. Bartlett test value has proven to be 0.000 ($p < 0.05$), and this shows that correlation between variables is meaningful.

"Correlation" Analyses Regarding Organizational Culture and Organizational Conflict Factors

When looked at Table 1. Correlation analysis is utilized when a study concerning direction and force of relation between two variables is desired to be performed. Table 5 shows correlation matrix of factors obtained on organization culture. With regard to organizational structure and identity, determined correlations with individual autonomy ($r = .400$), encouragement to undertake risk ($r = .425$) and tolerance in conflict ($r = .473$) were positive, significant and slightly weak; but no correlation has been determined with organizational justice. With regard to individual autonomy, determined correlations with encouragement to undertake risk ($r = .275$) and with organizational support ($r = .267$) were positive, significant and weak; correlation with tolerance in conflict ($r = .514$) was positive, significant and slightly strong. There were no significant correlation between individual autonomy and organizational justice. With regard to encouragement to undertake risk, determined correlation with organizational support ($r = .353$) was positive, significant and relatively weak; with tolerance in conflict ($r = .481$) was positive, significant and slightly weak; with organizational justice there were no significant correlation. Between organizational support and tolerance in conflict ($r = .412$) positive, significant and slightly weak correlation was determined. There were no significant correlation between organizational justice and organizational support, and tolerance in conflict and organizational justice.

Correlation Analysis of Organizational Conflict Factors

When looked at Table 2. When the relations between organizational conflict dimensions are analyzed, positive and significant relations have been found between all dimensions. Correlation between personal conflict and group conflict ($r = .694$) was positive, significant and relatively strong; correlation between personal conflict and group identity ($r = .334$) was positive, significant and relatively weak and finally correlation between group conflict and group identity conflict dimensions ($r = .547$) was positive, significant and slightly strong.

When correlation analysis results are examined it is seen that correlation coefficient numbers are not above 0.85. This also shows that the study has discrimination validity. By this way, after structural validity has been proved by factor analysis, discrimination validity is proven by correlation analysis.

"Regression" Analysis Results Concerning Hypothesis

Regression analyses have been performed to determine the influence of employees' organization cultures on personal conflicts. The result of anova analysis aimed at determining whether or not model is statistically meaningful, was $F = 29.899$, $p = 0.000$ and this value has been found to be meaningful statistically at the significant level of 1%. R^2 value concerning analysis has been found to be 0.450. In other words; approximately 45% of personal conflict variable is explained by organizational culture variables ($R = .671$, $R^2 = .450$, $P < 0.01$). This rate shows that employees' organizational cultures have a relatively strong influence on personal conflicts. When we look at the results with regard to Durbin-Watson test, the value is determined as 2.082 in the study. Durbin-Watson value indicates that there is no autocorrelation in the model if it is in the range of 1.5-2.5.

Multiple Regression Analysis Concerning Organization Culture Factors Influencing Personal Conflict

When looked at Table 3, it is observed that employees' organization culture's most influential factor on personal conflicts is "organizational structure and climate." According to regression coefficient (β) which is standardized to test the predictive power of independent variables concerning personal conflicts; organizational structure and climate, encouragement to undertake risk and organizational support have been observed to be meaningfully predictive ($p < 0.01$). Individual autonomy,

organizational justice and tolerance in conflict have been determined as having no statistically meaningful influence on personal conflict.

Another effective factor on personal conflict is "organizational support." Encouragement to undertake risk, on the other hand, has a counter wise and low relation with personal conflict.

Regression analyses have been performed to determine the influence of employees' organization cultures on group conflicts. The result of anova analysis aimed at determining whether or not model is statistically meaningful, was $F=20.466$, $p=0.000$ and this value has been found to be meaningful statistically at the significant level of 1%. R^2 value concerning analysis has been found to be 0.359. In other words; approximately 36% of group conflict variable is explained by organizational culture variables ($R=.599$, $R^2=.359$, $P<0.01$). This rate shows that employees' organizational cultures have an influence on group conflicts, although not a strong one. When we look at the results with regard to Durbin-Watson test, the value is determined as 2.481 in the study. Durbin-Watson value indicates that there is no autocorrelation in the model if it is in the range of 1.5-2.5.

Multiple Regression Analysis Concerning Organization Culture Factors Influencing Group Conflict

When looked at Table 4, it is observed that employees' organization culture's most influential factor on group conflicts is "organizational structure and climate." According to regression coefficient (β) which is standardized to test the predictive power of independent variables concerning personal conflicts; organizational structure and climate, organizational support and tolerance in conflict have been observed to be meaningfully predictive ($p<0.01$). Individual autonomy, encouragement to undertake risk and organizational justice, on the other hand, have been found to have no statistically meaningful influence on group conflict.

Another effective factor on personal conflict is "organizational support." Tolerance in conflict, on the other hand, has a counter wise and low relation with group conflict. Regression analyses have been performed to determine the influence of employees' organization cultures on group identity conflicts. The result of anova analysis aimed at determining whether or not model is statistically meaningful at the level of 1%, was $F=24.830$, $p=0.000$ and this value has been found to be meaningful statistically at the significant. R^2 value concerning analysis has been found to be 0.405. In other words; approximately 40% of group identity conflict variable is explained by organizational culture variables ($R=.636$, $R^2=.405$, $P<0.01$). This rate shows that employees' organizational cultures have a relatively strong influence on group identity conflicts. When we look at the results with regard to Durbin-Watson test, the value is determined as 1.662 in the study. Durbin-Watson value indicates that there is no autocorrelation in the model if it is in the range of 1.5-2.5.

Multiple Regression Analysis Concerning Organization Culture Factors Influencing Group Identity Conflict

When looked at Table 5, it is observed that employees' organization culture's most influential factor on group identity conflicts is "organizational support." According to regression coefficient (β) which is standardized to test the predictive power of independent variables concerning personal conflicts; organizational support and individual autonomy have been observed to be meaningfully predictive ($p<0.01$). Organizational structure and climate, encouragement to undertake risk, organizational justice and tolerance in conflict have been determined as having no statistically meaningful influence on group identity conflict. Another slightly influential factor on group identity conflict is individual autonomy. Individual autonomy has a low level influence on group identity conflict but not as much as organizational support.

Conclusion and Suggestions

As the subject of this study, five star hotel sector addresses to both national and international markets. It is multinational and multicultural due to employee profile and organization structures of hotels. In the hotel business analyzed within the scope of this study, leading dimension of organization culture to cause conflict is organizational support.

When all the dimensions of organizational conflict have been evaluated, it is observed that organization culture has 45% of influence on personal conflict, 36% of influence on group conflict and 40% of influence on group identity conflict. According to this result, the dimension in which organizational conflict is experienced the most is personal conflict. But we still observe that organization culture is influential on all dimensions of conflict in levels that are close to each other.

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Tables

Table 1. Correlation Analysis of Organization Culture Factors

Dimensions	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Organizational Structure and Identity	1					
2. Individual Autonomy	,400**	1				
3. Encouragement to Undertake Risk	,517**	,275**	1			
4. Organizational Support	,425**	,267**	,353**	1		
5. Organizational Justice	-,124	,088	-,015	,082	1	
6. Tolerance in Conflict	,473**	,514**	,481*	,412**	,013	1

* p<0.05 ** p<0.01

Table 2. Correlation Analysis of Organizational Conflict Factors

Dimensions	1	2	3
1- Personal Conflict	1		
2- Group Conflict	,694**	1	
3- Group Identity Conflict	,334**	,547**	1

** p<0.01

Table 3. Multiple Regression Analysis Concerning Organization Culture Factors Influencing Personal Conflict

Dependent Variable	Independent Variables	Beta Value	T Value	P Value
Individual Conflict	Organizational Structure and Climate	,506	7,694	,000**
	Individual Autonomy	,104	1,724	,086
	Encouragement to Undertake Risk	-,174	-2,805	,005**
	Organizational Support	,297	5,105	,000**
	Organizational Justice	-,063	-1,224	,222
	Tolerance in Conflict	,014	,204	,839

** p<0.01

Table 4. Multiple Regression Analysis Concerning Organization Culture Factors Influencing Group Conflict

Dependent Variable	Independent Variables	Beta Value	T Value	P Value
Group Conflict	Organizational Structure and Climate	, 401	5, 649	, 000**
	Individual Autonomy	, 122	1, 868	, 063
	Encouragement to Undertake Risk	-, 001	-, 015	, 988
	Organizational Support	, 338	5, 386	, 000**
	Organizational Justice	, 011	, 198	, 843
	Tolerance in Conflict	-, 174	-2, 423	, 016*

* p<0.05

** p<0.01

Table 5. Multiple Regression Analysis Concerning Organization Culture Factors Influencing Group Identity Conflict

Dependent Variable	Independent Variables	Beta Value	T Value	P Value
Group Identity Conflict	Organizational Structure and Climate	, 012	, 173	, 863
	Individual Autonomy	, 204	3, 257	, 001**
	Encouragement to Undertake Risk	-, 064	-, 999	, 319
	Organizational Support	, 577	9, 530	, 000**
	Organizational Justice	, 087	1, 613	, 108
	Tolerance in Conflict	-, 049	-, 711	, 478

** p<0.01

COMPETITION IN THE ALBANIAN BANKING MARKET

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Abstract

The objective of This Paper is to analyze competition in the Albanian banking market referring the period 2009-2013. To determine what we have in this market structure, monopolistic competition or oligopoly market structure. If we have an oligopoly form what features it has compared to the classical form of oligopoly and fair competition affects. The period is analyzed coincides with the apparent decline rate of increase of the GDP and the global recession. This objective sought to be achieved by using a set of coefficients that index and provide some degree of concentration of the main indicators of the banking system. So are using CR concentration coefficient, the Herfindahl index of concentration -Hirschman, Hall-Tideman, CCI industrial concentration, the Gini index, etc. Pearson Correlation Coefficient. Through these indices examine the extent of concentration and degree of connectivity between synthetic indicators. The conclusion of the analysis is that the banking market have a special kind of oligopoly and monopolistic competition does not have. This situation is reflected in the volume of loans, deposits to each of them to the total system, the high interest rates on loans and lower deposit. Reactions reflected in Commercial Banks indifferent to the expansionist policy of the Central Bank over the years etc.

Keywords: banking concentration, monopolistic competition, oligopoly, CR concentration index, the Herfindahl index of concentration - Hirschman, Hall-Tideman, CCI, the Gini index, the Pearson correlation coefficient, etc.

Introduction

Today's banking system is relatively new. From 2004 and until today in Albania have Central Bank, as the bank of the first level and 16 Bank, as Commercial Banks. All commercial banks are private. There is no bank with state capital or to be the state as participant. All banks are foreign-owned. Only three of them have local shareholders. Since 2004 the number of banks has decreased.

In the paper are given concepts to market structures. This is done with the intention of comparing the banking market to them in order to determine the similarity of the relevant market. Analyzed the features of the banking market and its products. By doing this analysis we determine that bank market has more features than the oligopolistic market of monopolistic competition. We further analyzed the degree of concentration of leading indicators and their degree of connectivity. Through abusive detailed analysis we concluded that the banking market is not a market of monopolistic competition but is a oligopoly market structure. It is not the domed classical oligopoly but a special type which have dominant market 6 banks and other banks have their trackbacks. Six banks will be dominant if we analyse only them, will have a monopolistic competition market structure, so we had the other banks in the second group. This was proved through indexes that provide the degree of concentration and calculated by us. Trying to have a monopoly market structure, contrary to other authors, Albanian who evaluate the market as monopolistic competition we give a scientific basis Competition Authority to look into the possibility of market intervention. The possibility of intervention is in some areas, in the field of preventing growth of the six group is reflected in the interest rate on loans and deposits, structure and distribution of loans etc. It will be of interest to businesses and Albanian citizens.

Methods and indicators used.

We have used the method of description, comparison, analysis and synthesis, statistical and econometric methods using a set of index coefficients that are put in the service of the material for determining the degree of concentration of the banking market. Financial concentration indicators are used in the material.

CR Index. $CR_k = \sum_{i=1}^k S_i$ Characteristics. Includes participation of largest banks in the banking market. This is a simple method and requires less data compared with other indicators. For this reason it is one of the most frequently used in literature (unique index). Explanation. Index approaches 0 for an infinite number of subjects of the same size and approaches 1 if the larger entities constitute the entire industry. The rate of concentration varies from 0 to 100. Usually used to classify these estimates market:

There is no concentration. 0% means perfect competition or no monopolistic competition. If for example $CR_4=0\%$, the fourth largest firm in the industry will not have any significant market share.

Full concentration. 100% means an extremely concentrated oligopoly. If for example $CR_1=100\%$, we have a monopoly.

Low concentration. 0% to 50%. This category ranges from perfect competition to oligopoly.

Secondary concentration. 50% to 80%. An industry in this range is likely a oligopoly.

High concentration. 80% to 100%. This category ranges from oligopoly to a monopoly.

Herfindahl-Hirschman, HHI. Formula $HHI = \sum_{i=1}^n S_i^2$. Information referred to as full index because it includes complete information for all distribution entities. Stresses the importance of larger entities, and weighted with a higher value smaller units. Explanation. The index is between $1/n$ and 1 reaching low limits when all subjects are the same size, and the upper limit catches in the case of monopoly. Market used to classify these estimates:

HHI index below 0, 01 (or below 100) shows a very competitive market.

HHI index less than 0, 15 (or 1, 500) indicates a non-concentrated market.

HHI index between 0, 15 to 0, 25 (or 1500 and 2500) shows a moderate concentration.

HHI index over 0, 25 (2500) shows that we have a high concentration.

Hall-Tideman, HTI. Formula $HTI = 1 / (2 \sum_{i=1}^n i s_i - 1)$. Characteristics. Stresses the need to include the number of subjects that reflect competition in the market; a small number of entities representing the harsh conditions of entry into the banking industry and the opposite for a larger number of subjects. The market share of each company is weighted by its ranking.

Index tends 0 for an infinite number of subjects with equal size, and become the first in the case of monopoly.

Industrial concentration, CCI. $CCI = s_i + \sum_{i=2}^n s_i^2 (1 + (1 - s_i))$. This indicator combines the features of the index relative and absolute magnitude distribution. Give us the amount of participation of companies with larger shares to the leveling of subjects, weighted by a coefficient that reflects the proportionate size of the rest of the industry. The index is 1 in case of monopoly and is great in the case of participation of major banks in an industry with a large number of banking entities.

Pearson coefficient formula.
$$r = \frac{n(\sum xy) - (\sum x)(\sum y)}{\sqrt{[n \sum x^2 - (\sum x)^2][n \sum y^2 - (\sum y)^2]}}$$

Numerically, the Pearson coefficient is represented in the same way as a correlation coefficient used in a linear regression; ranging from -1 to +1. Value + 1 is the result of a perfect positive relationship between two or more variables. On the other hand, a value of -1 represents a perfect negative relationship. Pearson coefficient may have a small mistake when he used a non-linear equation.

Gini correlation coefficient. Ranging from 1 to 100. As is so close to one of lower concentration is much greater and the higher the concentration.

Purpose. The purpose of this study is to make a detailed analysis of the banking market concentration. Determine its structure. Market structure is monopolistic competition and oligopoly market structure. By determining the type of market we give more opportunities to apply the Competition Authority and its rights in the business market and consumer protection in Albania.

Discussion

Competition and market structures.

A) Pure competitive market. In general, a perfectly competitive market exists when every participant is "price acceptable", and no participant influences the price of the product it sells or buys. In the specific characteristics of this market without addressing to them may include:

1. **Buyers and sellers are in an unlimited number.**
2. There is no barrier to entry or exit from the market.
3. Factors of production have perfect mobility.
4. Consumers and sellers have perfect information.
5. No transaction costs.
6. Their goal is profit maximization.
7. Sellers offers homogeneous products.
8. Do not have the income scale upward.
9. Royalties.
10. Envisaged rational buyer.
11. Not taken into account any externalities.

B) Monopoly. In this structure there is a single firm that produces and sells all product branch. The product has no close substitutes. In the specific characteristics of this market without addressing them may include:

1. It is profit Maximizer. Maximizes profit.
2. It is Price decisive. It Puts the price of goods and services it sells. This makes determining the price of the desired amount.
3. Has major obstacles to entry. Many dealers are unable to access market monopoly.
4. Has only one seller.
5. It's Price Discriminator. It sells more quantities by reducing the price for a product in a very elastic market and sells less quantities higher price in a less elastic market.

C) Monopolistic competition. Monopolistic competition is a form of imperfect competition and corresponds to a situation in which there are many companies in the market that offer products or services not completely homogeneous and therefore not entirely substitutable. In such a situation, each firm has some market power to influence the price of its products or services. In fact, they have specific products, differentiated products by competitors, each firm acts as a monopoly small. Proximity bigger or smaller monopoly depends on the existing differentiation between different products offered. If the replacement rate is low, the competition will be smaller and closer competition is monopoly. If the replacement rate is high, competition will be reduced and the market will be closer to pure competition. In the specific characteristics of this market without addressing them may include:

1. Existence of a large number of firms: In monopolistic competition operate a large number of small firms each of which is relatively small compared with the overall market size. This ensures that all firms are relatively competitive with very little control over market price or quantity. These firms do not produce perfect substitutes, but the products are close substitutes for each other.
2. Goods similar but not identical. Each firm in this market sells a similar product with another product. The term used to describe this is the product differentiation. Product differentiation is the cause that gives features monopolistic competition monopoly negative sloping demand curve. Various firms in monopolistic competition produce differentiated products which are relatively close substitutes for each other, in this way, their prices can not be very different from each other. Various firms in monopolistic competition compete with each other if similar products are substitutes and close to each other.

Differentiation is done through real or natural materials used, design, color, size, shape, conditions of sale, location of the shop, the attitude towards the product, customer behavior etc.

Differences between products generally fall into three categories: the physical aspect, the perceived, and support services.

- a. Physical differentiation: This means that a firm's product is physically different from other product firms.
- b. The difference in perception: Product differentiation can also result from differences in perception by buyers, although there are actual physical changes.
- c. Supporting differentiated services: This feature means that each firm in monopolistic competition produces a good that is near, but not a perfect substitute for the good produced by any other firm in the market.
3. Relative freedom of entry and exit out of the branch: In monopolistic competition is easier for new firms to enter the branch alongside existing firms, while it is also easy to come by this branch.
4. Extensive knowledge: In monopolistic competition, buyers do not know everything, but they have relatively complete information about alternative prices.
5. Several influential on the price: If the products are close substitutes, lowering the price of a product from a vendor will attract some of the customers of other products. And with a price drop quantity demanded will increase. This means that the demand curve of a firm in monopolistic competition is the negative slope and lie down its marginal revenue.
6. Lack of interdependence of firms: In monopolistic competition each firm operates more or less independently. Each firm formulates its own policy prices - production, its cost and demand.
7. Competition not only by price: Advertising is an outstanding example of competition not only with the price side.

D) Oligopoly. Oligopoly market structure mean that the market in which they operate a limited number of powerful firms that offer the greatest product in the market. The question is how firms make up the oligopoly? In oligopoly part as well as the latest firm size is able to affect the price. Some definitions of the concept of oligopoly.

"Oligopoly represents such a structure of a market economy, in which production and supply of a product is concentrated in a small number of companies." "Oligopoly, a situation where the rule less commercial vendor and other vendors entry in the same market is difficult or costly"

"Oligopoly, a market where some dealers have a monopoly of supply." "Oligopoly. Market which is dominated by a few powerful companies. " "Is a kind of oligopoly market structure in which a small number of firms carry the bulk of industrial production." "Oligopoly is a market structure in which a few firms sell standardized products or differentiated. In this difficult strukturè entry and firms have restrictions on price control because they do subordinate intermediate and not through price competition. " "Oligopoly, a situation of imperfect competition in the industry in ETE cilebn dominate a Muner small firms". "Oligopoly, market structure characterized by a relatively small number of firms that provide all market production. Oligopoly is similar to monopoly but has two or more firms ". " Oligopoly is a market situation where a small number of control subjects bid in the market for a given good or service, and therefore, are able to control the market price . An oligopoly can be perfect when all subjects produce the same good or service and imperfect when each subject produces a product different from others, but like them. Since each entity recognizes an oligopoly market share, attributable to the product or service produced by him, any change in price or in its market share in sales reflected the others, so we have a tendency of interdependence between Entities. Everyone must make his own decisions about the price and production support in the decisions of oligopoly entities other status. thus oligopoly prices, as placed, are solid. This promotes competition through advertising, packaging and service, a form generally unproductive resource allocation. "

The existence of a limited number of firms in the market makes them have commercial power and generate depending on the decisions of firms

Characteristics of oligopoly

Few sellers. In oligopoly market structure have less powerful firms. Each firm produces certain parts regarding total production branch. Small number of sellers who will constitute the oligopoly market structure depends on the size of the market. So there is strong competition between these firms.

The nature of the product. Products sold by firms in this market can be homogeneous or differentiated. When firms sell homogeneous products they are known as pure oligopoly. When they sell differentiated products oligopoly they are known as clean or not differentiated oligopoly.

Interdependence between firms. This characteristic of oligopoly is distinguished from other forms of market structures. Because there are few sellers in the market, each acting according to the movement of rival retailers.

Difficulties entering and leaving the branch. Oligopolistic market can be characterized by strong barriers to entry to other firms. Some entry barriers are common in economies of scale, absolute cost advantage for older firms, the threat of price reductions, control over important materials, patents and licensing.

Competition among firms. Competition can not consist of perfect competition conditions where there is no war because it is very quiet and strict distribution determined price.

2. Difficulty in running the firm.

Have full knowledge and gjithëanëshme for prices, technology, organization of markets, etc..

Firms in oligopoly prices are often characterized by hardened and unchanged for years. This price solidification express their dependence on each other. Its growth is not reflected in one another.

Competing with other ways besides through price competition. Most common ways are product differentiation, advertising and entry barriers.

Government restrictions. Sometimes governments operate with severe barriers to entry of new firms. They prevent the entry of new firms from licensing, patents, etc. quotas. So the market will operate only a few powerful firms. In the case of banks Central Bank sets limits.

3. Banking market and some of its features.

Albanian banks market dynamics from 1991 to today. Until 1992, the banking system has been a layered. In 1992 began the reform of banking system restructuring. Reform the system has gone through several stages.

= 1992-1997. In this period of time have ruled entirely state-owned banks that dominate 90% of deposits. This period was characterized leisurely a very low level of lending to the economy due to the currency outside banks was such mivele. In 1997 the Savings Bank was established.

= 1998-2003. In 1998 both went bankrupt state-owned banks. BTA was absorbs from NCB and NCB itself was privatized in 1999. Was privatized in 2003 the Savings Bank. Savings banks owned about 52% of the market value of assets, 56% deposit and only 1% of the bank loan market. Most of its assets invested in financial assets by government owned about 80% of the market treasury bills. During this period, the number of second-tier banks and added seven new private banks. During these years the banking system was expanded and increased volume of loans.

= 2004 onwards banking system is completely private. During these years are also licensed two other banks. Their total number today is 16 with about 530 branches and agencies scattered across the country.

Some of the more general banking market. The banking market is part of the financial market. It has the features and characteristics of the branch that generally determined by the characteristics of banking products, the sellers and buyers, the ease of entry and exit in the branches, knowledge of costs and prices of products etc. Initially, we explain the term "product" banking. Product term will determine the inclusion of services in the general category. Among the products and services has many changes that deserve attention in their explanation. Services are essentially no tangible activities that ensure the fulfillment of requirements and that it is not necessary to be associated with the sale of a product or service to another. Health care, private education, transport, communications and professional services are examples of industrial services. Characteristics of banking services can define as follows:

Are no tangible

Are inseparable

Are not homogeneous but not heterogeneous

Are subtle, and ever changing requirement

Services are not tangible. Since services can not be seen, be operated, tested, affected by different experiences or feel. For all is more necessary to emphasize the provision of earnings from these services.

Services are inseparable. In general it is impossible to separate the product and the service is consumed.

Services are not completely homogeneous. It is not possible to have the exact same standard of service in every office and in every moment. It is very easy to mass produce products that are standardized. It is difficult to standardize banking services. So it is very important for the bank or other service companies to pay particular attention to sales and product knowledge training and standardization of the final operations of services in order to ensure high quality. Therefore we

consider banking services not homogeneous but not heterogeneous. Service credit is the same in all banks. All banks make short term loans, medium and long term, and provide home mortgage loans without collateral, lend differentiated for students or businesses. Change in general interest rate and in the manner of disbursement. The same can be said for deposits, are short-term, and long afatnesëm. Interest rates vary from. Even here we have differences because deposits for children and different payment terms. Regarding market assets banks buy government debt instruments generally. It's the same active buying all. Interest rate changes only. In general we can say that the services are similar. They meet every buyer the same application, the need for money.

Fluktacioni delicacy and demand. Sometimes services are very delicate since they can not be saved. For example, when cashiers are tired can not be used as extension services on special days of the week when long queues formed.

The combination of delicacy and fluktacioni products are stirring demand for employees in the planning process of product, price, promotion and distribution in the area of the bank.

Regarding demand fluktacionit characteristic is the fact that the decision in purchasing banking services becomes unique. Banking may not include repeat sales for many consumer products. If consumers do not buy a kind of paste this month they can buy it next month. Banks have no chance to reach the client. Finally the introduction of ATMs for payment has facilitated the routine work of bank employees.

The size and distribution of banks. The structure of the banking industry directly affects the competitiveness of the banking enterprise markets. How much higher is the competition are lower interest rates on loans and the higher interest rates are for deposits. In the banking market have a dypol banks. 6 strong bank that is one pole and 10 small banks is another pole. Few of these banks extend their activities across the territory of Albania.

Entry in the banking industry. Adjustments on the matter relating to the promotion or restriction of entry, resulting in increasing or restricting competition. If the monopolistic market structure, there is no restriction on access to or exit from the branch, there are limitations in the banking market. This is because each commercial bank to be established must meet a set of conditions and then licensed by the Bank of Albania.

Entry into banking market is regulated by the Law "On Banks in the Republic of Albania" and bylaws, which are issued pursuant to this Law, the regulations for the licensing of banks. Licensing and monitoring authority is the Bank of Albania. The main objective of the Bank of Albania is to provide a greater alignment with international standards and criteria. The policy of the Bank of Albania for licensing can be assessed as relatively liberal and non-discriminatory. From 1990 to 1999 the banking system was added 11 new banks. The Bank of Albania has the right of final decision for approval or rejection of applications for opening new banks. The decision is not appealable bank. The main requirements for opening a bank are:

- Capital and its origins;
- Professional competencies and personality future administrators of the bank;
- Shapes bank organization and rules for its administration and operation;

Business-plan and its adaptability.

These requirements are the same as for domestic banks as well as foreign ones, including a branch of a foreign bank.

Albanian legislation makes no distinction between resident and non-resident applicants. They comes treated equally. In these circumstances it is difficult to access the banking system. There is as monopolistic competition that anyone can enter. Here have big capital and expertise, along with a well-crafted plan.

Offset of banks expands competition and therefore increases the quality of bank services. In the Banking market In Albania nowadays operate about 530 bank branches and agencies.

Bank merger or absorption is another regulation of the banking structure. Approval of absorption of a single bank takes into account two factors: the financial condition of banks and the level of competition. In the process of absorption of a bank being liquidated and absorbed by another bank, it is important to remember that after absorbing low level of competition and in some cases may create monopoly position. In Albania we have four such cases but have not brought the change of the structure of the banking market.

Offer and its characteristics in the banking market. Represented by 16 banks offer their services. There are the same size. The two largest banks hold 45.53% of assets and three largest banks hold 56% of them. A bank has less than 5 million worth of assets, two banks have from 5-15 million and 13 others have over 15 million. Have common procedures of

establishing liability. They accept deposits from different economic entities. Banks make loans and buy denominated financial assets, euros and dollars. Term loans and offer different interest rates. Buy the same financial asset, sovereign debt instruments (Treasury Bills).

Demand and its characteristics in the banking market. Demand for loans. Demand for credit is represented by economic entities, business or individual to obtain credit or loans. Demand for sale financial assets. The main applicant seeking to sell financial assets (debt instruments) is the state with treasury bills and bonds. If bank customers that create liabilities are any individuals and businesses, bank customers seeking loans in the form of loan or the sale of assets are separate.

If we analyze the relationship between these two indicators will look that has a moderately strong positive sense. The correlation coefficient is +0.7033. Normally the connection between them should be negative because the reduction of the interest rate will reduce interest rates on loans, making them more palatable. In this way would increase the money in circulation causing rising inflation. In fact the opposite has happened. Both are sitting. This further shows the complete lack of effect of monetary policy transmission on commercial banks. This can be seen from the chart below.

Second, we did not follow transmission effect on the interest rate of loans and deposits in the same way.

The correlation coefficient between the repo and 1-year deposit rate is 0.95. This coefficient shows that decreases the repo rate is reflected in a nearly full deposit rate. Transmission effect was complete. There was complete because its reduction is in the interest of commercial banks and not in the interest of depositors.

The correlation coefficient between the interest rate of 1-3 year loans and repo is only 0.74%. This shows that we have a strong and reliable. The data are presented in table and chart below:

The graph and table no.2 data shows that the difference between the rates of loans and deposits has increased. This has occurred by monitoring the effect of deformed repo in commercial banks. In this case you are injured depositors lower interest rates on deposits and loans and deposit rates have not changed much compared with declining deposit rates. Because banks have gained increased spread between interest rates.

Third, has negatively affected the distribution of assets in terms of lending and investment in instrumented debt (Treasury bills). Decreased the percentage of credit and increased the proportion of investment in treasury bills. Transmission effect has not been very positive in terms of increasing the stock of loans as a result of the fall of the stated interest rates. Most to this action, lowering the repo rate has benefited government than business. Here crowding out effect which clearly shows Table No.4. The data presented in the table below.

The data clearly shows that deposits grew by 43.5% while only 24.5% loans. The difference between deposits and loans almost doubled. Stock appreciation has gone into buying government debt instruments as well as a currency is invested outside the territory of Albania. Loans to deposit ratio has been decreased. This is clearly seen from the chart below.

These three indicators show clearly the situation of the Albanian banking market concentration. Such a situation can not be in a monopolistic market structure but can only be a pure oligopoly or not clean.

Measurement of market concentration in the banking sector.

The volume of deposits and loans in absolute ALL has increased. Growth is also in the ratio between loans and deposits by 38.1% in 2009 to 44.5% in 2014. If we take the degree of connectivity in the last 4 years of the loan / deposit ratio in% and interest rates show that is only 0.460. This correlation coefficient indicates that there is a weak link between credit and growth rates of loans to deposits. This means that the effect of transmission is not fully conveyed in increasing the percentage of loans to deposits in domestic currency. If we compare this table with data table 4 look at the total loan to deposit ratio decreased, ALL credit to deposit ratio has increased. This means that the business is paying increasing attention in domestic credit, but the figures remain very low. Only 44.2% of deposits have gone to credit while the rest went towards financial assets.

The degree of concentration of bank loans is about 82% which means that we try to oligopoly and monopoly. With 69.7% concentration limits are still branches of oligopoly. HHI, CCI and HHI indicate moderate. If we assume that 86% of loans, deposits and profits will have one bank and 14% will have other banks will result 0.322 coefficient we would call a real monopoly structure. If we clean then the market would be 0.067. HHI and HHI situation is between pure market and monopoly, 0.146 and 0.134. If the group the six as a separate bank and 10 other pole as the other pole would then have a genuinely political oligopoly where the bank is seen with 6 steering and second with ten others will be satellites. Within each group, each pole have monopolistic market. Only this differentiation, the two poles of the structure reveals the truth of this market. Largest banks have 82% of loans and others have 18%.

3.2 Measuring the concentration of deposits

Deposits have increased. 2014 compared to 2009 they increased by 140%. All deposits for this period increased by only 133%. Dynamics of total deposits in domestic currency and is given in Table. 5. From the table we see that the decrease of deposits to total deposits. By occupying 55.7% in 2009 to total deposits in 2014 they accounted for only 52%.

Profit is one of the more synthetic indicators for the outcome of all the activity of an enterprise. The data show that six largest banks receives 96.6% of its HHI and HTI have maximum numbers, so the CCI. This indicator gives the most significant degree of concentration of commercial banking system. It is very important to mention here that the reduction of interest rate by the Bank of Albania is associated with a decline in domestic interest rates, and is not associated with changing loan rates by increasing the difference between them. In this way they have increased their profits. Banks that have stocks of Lek's refusal loan businesses use to purchase treasury bonds. Increasing the stock of available appreciation has led to significantly lower their cost. So from these actions the bank has won government since decreased its cost of debt and lost business who is credited less in the last year.

In table 11 we have given the extent of links between the above indicators. The data shows that the indicators have a high degree type connection. This statement supports the conclusions we have reached above the level of concentration of loans, deposits and profits.

Conclusions and Recommendations

Banking market structure is oligopoly. Indicators that we analyzed show that their concentration level is high. The situation of the banking market dominance has caused some negative consequences.

Has reduced the effectiveness of monetary policy of the Bank of Albania in the field of transmission the effect of interest rate. There have pursued policies BOA but the interest rates are set according to their policies and interests. So based on interest rates, which have decreased from 6.25% in 2009 to 2.5% in May 2014 are not associated with declining interest rates in domestic credit. They have remained high while quotas are cut deposits rates. In this way, the financing of the economy remains costly.

Reduced effectiveness of the transmission mechanism of decisions on the economy and is hampering implementation faster pace of indirect instruments of monetary policy. Lowering key interest rates is not accompanied by increased inflation rate but is associated with decreased it. In this regard, the Bank of Albania has lost its control over the monetary market. This not only of concentration but also on the traffic in the form of deposits and loans of the euro dollar.

They kept high costs of providing services to customers, not only high rates of loans and deposits lower commissions but also banking and other services.

Recommended to gradually decrease the amount of credit in euros and dollars.

Establish a wholly-owned agricultural bank in the state so that it can allow transmission effect.

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Tables and figures

Table No. 1 Correlation between inflation rate and basic interest rate

Years	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
The REPO rate%	5.25	5	4.75	4	3	2.75
Ave. inflation rate %	2.28	3.56	3.45	2.04	1.94	1.8

Fig. No. 1 Relationship between the inflation rate and the REPO rate



Table No.2 dynamics loan interest rates from 1 to 3 years old and 1-year deposit rate. The difference between them in proportion.

Years	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
The REPO rate, %	5.25	5	4.75	4	3	2.75
1 year deposite rate %	6.78	6.4	5.78	5.38	4.17	2.46
1-3 years deposite rates %	15.75	15.68	13.45	14.35	13.99	12.93
The rate of credit-deposit rate	8.97	9.28	7.67	8.97	9.82	10.47

Fig. No. 2 Dynamics and the difference between the loan rate and the 1-3 year deposit interest rate 1 year.

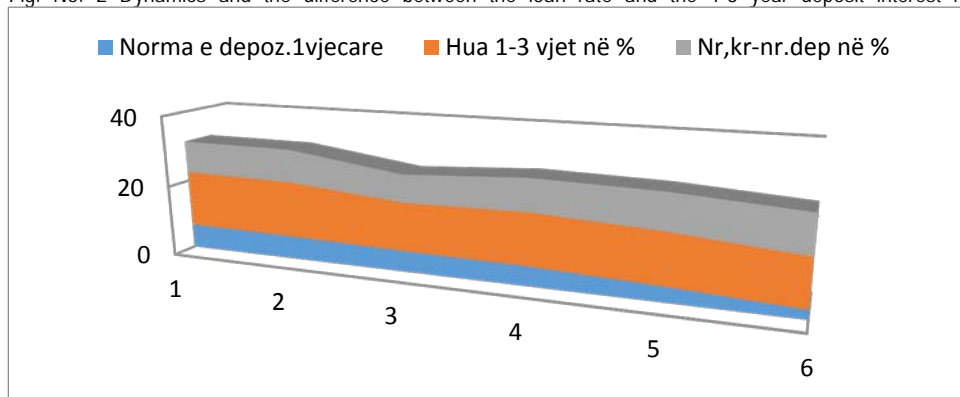


Table no. 3 Dynamics of loans and total deposits (currency, euros and dollars) expressed in billion and percentage

Years	Deposits	Loans	Dep-Loans(bill)	Loa/Dep %
2009	662.4	440.4	222	66.5
2010	785.2	483.1	302.1	61.5
2011	875.2	541.9	333.3	61.9
2012	930.7	554.7	376	59.6
2013	950.1	547.9	402.2	57.7

Fig. No.3 dynamics rate loan / deposit 2009-2013

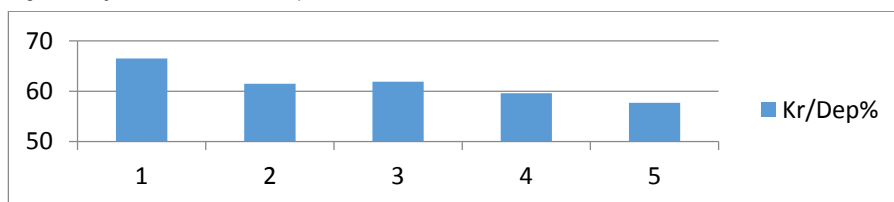
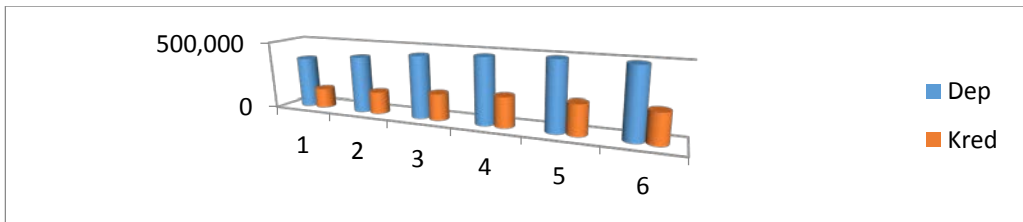


Table no. 4 Dynamics of deposits and loans in domestic currency. The loan to deposit ratio in percentage.

Years	Deposits	Loans	Loans/deposits %
2009	369, 137	140, 479	38.1
2010	409, 458	157, 197	38.4
2011	452, 080	188, 788	41.8
2012	476, 872	215, 122	45.1
2013	494, 279	219, 933	44.5
2014(II)	493, 322	218, 047	44.2

Fig. No. 4 Dynamics of deposits and loans in domestic

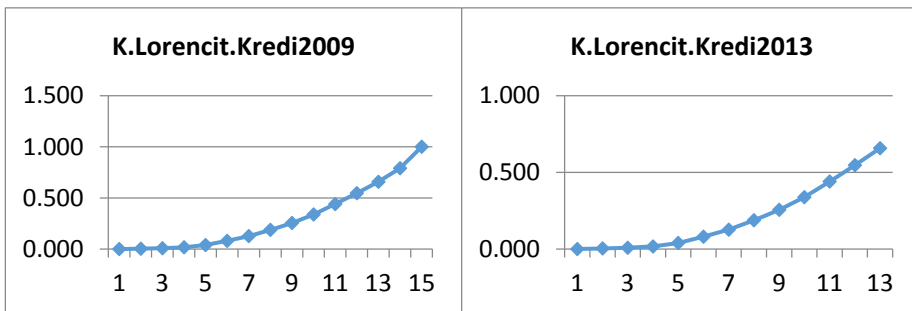


Concentration Gini coefficient for all loans to banks is as follows:

Table No.5 Gini coefficient for loans

2009	0.465
2010	0.490
2011	0.490
2012	0.484
2013	0.487

Fig.Nr .5 Lorenz Curve 2009 and Curve 2013 Lorentz



The Gini coefficient for loans is at a moderate level, around 50. This figure speaks for monopolistic competition but to attempt to oligopoly. Group other indicators given in Table no. 6.

Table No.6. Group 4 and 6 indicators for banks

Years	CR6K	CR4K	CR6branch	CR4branch	HHIk	HTIk	CCI loans
2009	61	55.95	73.37	59.0	0.1199	0.1305	0.3544
2010	79.4	62.4	74.4	60.7	0.1313	0.1402	0.3793
2011	79.9	64.2	76.2	59.3	0.1385	0.1445	0.3933
2012	75.3	60	70.3	53.4	0.1241	0.1290	0.3654
2013	81.9	65.9	69.7	53.0	0.1348	0.1416	0.3851

Table no. 7 Dynamics of total deposits and currency

Yars	Total Deposits	ALL Deposits	%
2009	662.4	369.1	55.7
2010	785.2	409.4	52.1
2011	875.2	452	51.6
2012	930.7	476.9	51.2
2013	950.1	494.3	52
2014(II)	946	493.3	52.1

Fig.Nr. 6 Dynamics of deposits and currency.

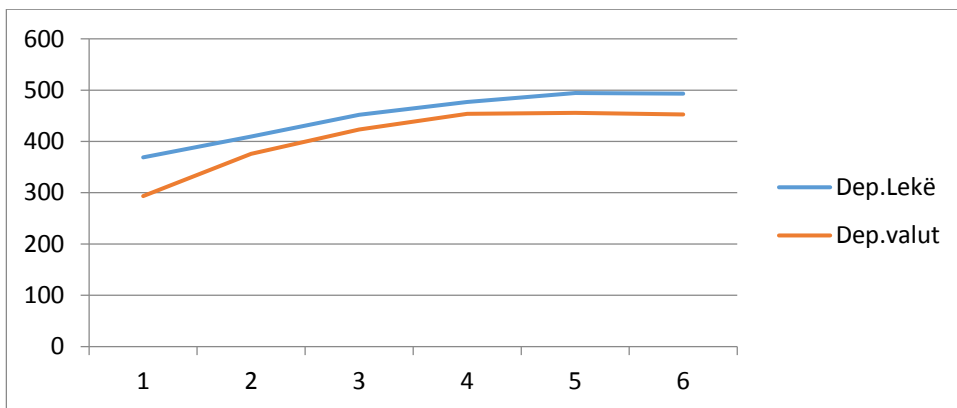


Table no. 8 Indicators synthetic deposits

Years	CR6D	CR4D	HHId	HTId	CCIdep
2009	81.8	68.1	0.1631	0.1623	0.4363
2010	87.6	72	0.1706	0.1701	0.4486

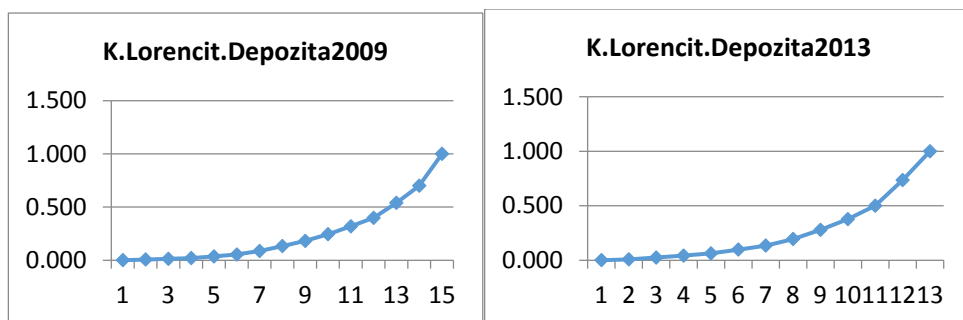
2011	86.3	72.7	0.1788	0.1745	0.4611
2012	81.2	67.4	0.1558	0.1508	0.4233
2013	86.6	72.1	0.1568	0.1583	0.4231

Concentration of synthetic indicators deposits are clearly at high levels belonging to more than the oligopoly structure of monopolistic competition. The Gini coefficient for deposits given in the table below. The data show that this ratio is high. Even we focus on this item. If we analyze two poles then most people have two much softer coefficients 0.242 and 0.319.

Table no. 9 Gini coefficient for deposits

2009	0.563
2010	0.576
2011	0.59
2012	0.543
2013	0.544

Fig.Nr 7 Lorenz Curve 2009 and Curve deposits deposits Lorentz 2013



The conclusion is simple currency deposits have focus where six largest banks have 86.6 deposits, HHI and HTI are over 1500.

Table no. 10 synthetic indicator of profit

Years	CRF4	CRF6	HHIProfit	HTIprofit	CCIprofit
2009	70.9	95.3	0.2611	0.2505	0.5665
2010	89.9	96.5	0.2599	0.2618	0.5730
2011	78.6	95.9	0.2557	0.2546	0.5619
2012	84.8	92.9	0.3332	0.3232	0.6575
2013	92.0	96.6	0.3136	0.3168	0.6523

Table no. 11Tabela the Pearson correlation coefficient for the six largest banks.

	CR6 D+Ag j	CR 6D	CR 6K	HH ld	HT ld	HH lk	HT lk	HHI profit	HTI profit	CCI dep	CC l loans	CC l profit	Gini Loans	Gini Dep
CR6 D+Ag j	1	0.0567	0.7146	0.1365	0.2988	0.4518	0.1483	0.6606	0.6989	-0.1811	0.4940	0.6422	0.7130	-0.2551
CR6 D		1	0.7300	0.5343	0.6696	0.8441	0.9320	-0.3794	-0.2105	0.4996	0.8383	0.2578	0.7061	0.4748
CR6K			1	0.1958	0.1944	0.8565	0.7135	0.2455	0.3921	0.1426	0.8788	0.3233	0.9728	0.0754
HHld				1	0.9616	0.5204	0.6057	-0.8338	-0.7864	0.9976	0.5364	0.8334	0.3298	0.9912
HTld					1	0.5493	0.7020	-0.8969	-0.8233	0.9585	0.5489	0.8604	0.2900	0.9627
HHlk						1	0.9483	-0.1484	0.0021	0.4630	0.9966	0.0582	0.8188	0.4162
HTlk							1	-0.3829	-0.2256	0.5580	0.9300	0.2726	0.6702	0.5317
HHIpr ofit								1	0.9842	-0.8564	0.1365	0.9881	0.1446	-0.8928
HTIpr ofit									1	-0.8171	0.0115	0.9964	0.2772	-0.8593
CCI dep										1	0.4803	0.8616	0.2854	0.9969

CCllo ansi											1	- 0.0 53 4	0.8 56 4	0.42 95
CClpr ofitm												1	0.1 99 3	- 0.89 80
Gini.L oans													1	0.21 54
Gini. Dep														1

Students' First Language Skills After Six Years in Bilingual Education

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Abstract

The longitudinal study investigated the effects of Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) on the development of children's literacy skills during their first six school years. In the three CLIL classes students studied, from the very beginning of the first grade, different school subjects in Finnish and in English. Three other classes were used as a control group. The students in those classes studied all school subjects in Finnish and started to learn English as a second language in third grade. At the beginning of the first grade, the level of school readiness was significantly higher in the bilingual classes than in the monolingual classes. At the end of the first grade, there was no significant difference in the literacy skills of the two groups, but after two study years, the reading and writing skills of the test group were significantly better than those of the control group. After four school years it was obvious that the children's creative writing skills had also benefited from bilingual teaching. The students in the CLIL classes had learned to pay attention to languages, as well to their mother tongue as to other languages. Moreover, they had more positive attitudes towards reading, writing and foreign language learning. Especially the boys' attitudes proved to be more positive in the CLIL classes than in the other classes. In addition, they enjoyed studying English and also studying through it. The students' spelling skills and ability to understand different texts were measured during the last month of their sixth school year. The measurements showed that the students in the CLIL classes had achieved significantly better first language spelling and reading skills than the students in the other classes. They made significantly less spelling errors and understood significantly better fiction, non-fiction, and newspaper texts. Furthermore, they showed more proficiency in deriving the meaning of new words from the written context than the other students. They succeeded significantly better in finding the most important facts of the non-fiction text and summarising the text than their peers in the other classes. It is worth mentioning that especially the boys seemed to have benefited from bilingual education: in the other classes the girls' skills were significantly better than the boys' but this was not the case in the CLIL classes.

Keywords: Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL), primary education, literacy skills, learning attitudes

Introduction

Foreign language competence is one of the main determinants of learning as well as personal mobility. Foreign language skills are needed for studying, employment, understanding of own and other cultures, and personal fulfilment. (Commission of the European Communities 2007.) However, a European survey on students' language competences shows that at the end of lower secondary education only four in ten students are able to have a simple conversation in a foreign language. At the same time, almost half of the Europeans say that taking part in a conversation in any foreign language is impossible for them. Consequently, it is important to improve the quality and increase the quantity of language teaching. This requires efforts in terms of teacher training, the development of new materials, and teaching methods. These investments will have a significant return, improving the efficiency of the whole labour market. The goal is that by 2020, at least 50% of 15 year olds is able to have a simple conversation in their first foreign language and at least 75% of the students in lower secondary education is studying at least two foreign languages. (Commission of the European Communities 2012.)

The national education systems of each state should enhance their efficiency in giving their students the language competences they need. The focus should be in 1) quantity (through early start, increased provision, teaching at least two foreign languages to all students, and increased exposure at school and through the media); 2) quality (through innovative teaching methods and teacher training, better opportunities of using language skills, Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL), and development of ICT-based language learning resources); and 3) monitoring of learning results in order to identify strengths and weaknesses. Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL), mentioned above, can be an

exceptionally efficient learning method because it increases language exposure, improves motivation, and links language acquisition to themes that have a concrete relevance for the learners. (Commission of the European Communities 2012.)

However, many educators and parents are concerned that teaching through a foreign language may have negative effects on the development of children's first language skills. In teaching, one should take into account that a child's mother tongue is the basis of all learning. A considerable amount of work in school involves reading and activities closely related to reading. Reading skills, including being capable of discovering the meaning and of finding information in written texts, and learning to remember this information and to relate it to previous knowledge, are the necessary tools for the study of almost any subject of instruction. (Hannon 1997; Whitehead 1999.) A child who does not learn to read and comprehend different texts in the early school years will have severe difficulties also when studying other school subjects. For instance, when studying mathematics and practical school subjects a student has to read and understand various instructions in order to carry out a task or solve a problem. Good readers are more successful in almost any school subjects than those whose reading skills are poor. Therefore, it is important to develop the children's language-based study skills systematically. They should acquire knowledge of language and literature in increasingly demanding language-usage situations and learn to evaluate and observe themselves as readers. Furthermore, they should learn strategies that help them to comprehend these diverse texts. The older the students get the more they need good reading skills to acquire new information and the more complex texts they have to be able to comprehend. (Bowyer-Grane & Snowling, 2005; National Core Curriculum for Basic Education, 2004; McGee & Johnson, 2003.)

In CLIL, the content of all teaching has to be concise in order to leave sufficiently time for teaching through a foreign language. The risk that this involves is that the children may not have enough time to practise their literacy skills. In today's society it is important that children achieve a good, versatile command of both their first language and foreign languages. Therefore, it was a matter of importance to find out whether CLIL can affect the development of children's literacy skills in a negative manner. Another matter that has caused concern amongst educators is the literacy skills of boys. In PISA 2012 (the OECD Programme for International Student Assessment) girls achieved better scores than boys in reading literacy in all OECD countries. A disquieting result is that between PISA 2000 and PISA 2012 the gender gap in reading performance widened in 11 countries. To close the gender gap in reading performance, new ideas aiming to attract interest and engagement among boys in literary culture are badly needed. (OECD, 2013; Välijärvi et al., 2007.) The aim of the study described in this article was to find out whether students' reading and writing skills develop equally well in CLIL as in regular education. Moreover, the study aimed to explore if there was a difference in the development of boys' and girls' literacy skills in CLIL and in regular classes.

First language skills

Reading is thinking cued by written language. A skilful reader finds – when reading fiction as well as non-fiction – several pieces of information in the text that make the understanding easier. Effective readers locate the basic facts from the text. When reading non-fiction, a reader needs to comprehend the topic, learn new facts related to it, and be able to find and remember the important information. (Scharer, Pinnell, Lyons, & Fountas, 2005.)

There are four key elements that are central to comprehension processes: prior knowledge, inferential reasoning, self-regulation, and affective variables connected to efficacy and motivation. The readers with prior knowledge of the topic and the structure of an informational text are the most able to mentally organize and remember the ideas the text provides. Inferential reasoning refers to a reader's ability to 'read between lines'. He or she makes connections that are not clearly expressed in the text. Inferential reasoning is an essential factor of skilled reading. A reader with sufficient prior knowledge of the topic makes more inferences than a less knowledgeable reader in order to make his or her comprehension easier. The term self-regulated reading refers to self-questioning and repair processes. Skilful readers are consciously aware of efficient information-seeking processes. They control these processes by choosing alternative strategies when others do not work. (Coiro & Dobler, 2007.)

Good readers summarise while reading and it helps them to remember and connect the important ideas of the text. Nevertheless, many students struggle with determining the main ideas and themes of the text as well as combining similar ideas, and synthesising them into a coherent whole. Often they just repeat most of the text or give a very vague statement. Still, a good summary should give a whole picture of the story and include only the important parts in the same order as the text as well as knowledge of how they are related. (Diehl, 2005.)

The process of writing can be defined as planning and reviewing. Planning includes idea generating, translating involves text generating and transcription, and reviewing comprises evaluating and revising. To become a good writer a student needs to learn to construct meaningful sentences that express his or her ideas, emotions and views appropriately and in a creative and mature style. In addition, a writer should have knowledge of how to use grammatically accurate language and adequate syntactic, morphological and semantic elements in his or her texts. (Berninger, Abbot, Whitaker, Sylvester, & Nolen, 1995; Hurry & Doctor, 2007.)

An important goal of literacy teaching is to awaken students' interest in language and literature and give them a lasting positive attitude towards reading. Children who are motivated to read spend more time reading than their less motivated peers. Unfortunately, poor readers are often unmotivated to read. Consequently, the difference between their respective levels of reading skills becomes even more significant. The aim of literacy teaching is to support the development of students' ability to read, interpret and use different texts. Each student should adopt a habit of evaluating and observing himself or herself as a reader. In addition, he or she should learn to select appropriate reading material for different purposes and to find information in various sources. (Merisuo-Storm, 2006.)

There are numerous reasons why a person can be interested in reading and writing. Children can read for pleasure, to get new information, or because it is a part of a classroom task. Writing can be a tool for social interaction or a creative activity a child enjoys. Consequently, one can consider reading and writing as tools to be used in learning and communicating but also as interesting activities. (Nolen, 2007.)

Content and language integrated learning (CLIL)

There are at least thirty-three different terms that refer to some type of bilingual education. For instance, 'content-based language teaching', 'language-based content instruction', 'language sensitive content instruction', and 'content-enhanced teaching' refer to bilingual models where language and content are integrated. The term 'immersion' should only be used to refer to Canadian bilingual education and its replicas elsewhere. In European Union, two acronyms are used to distinguish European bilingual education models from other similar programs elsewhere: CLIL for Content and Language Integrated Learning and EMILE for Enseignement d'une matière intégrée à une langue étrangère. CLIL is an umbrella term that is used to describe educational methods where subjects are taught through a foreign language. It refers to an educational approach where curricular content is taught through the medium of a foreign language to students participating in some form of mainstream education at the primary, secondary, or tertiary level. However, it does not cover language maintenance programs for minority or lesser-used languages. In those programs, the entire curriculum is given in the minority language for its speakers. For instance, in Wales there are schools where Welsh-speaking children are taught in Welsh. In addition, teaching children of immigrant language backgrounds in mainstream language is not considered CLIL education either. (Beardsmore, 2009; Dalton-Puffer, 2011.)

The acronym CLIL is the platform for a methodological approach of far broader scope than language teaching. It aims to develop proficiency in a curriculum subject as well as in the language through which it is taught. Achieving this twofold goal requires an integrated approach to instruction and learning. In CLIL education, the non-language subject is not taught in a foreign language but with and through a foreign language. Therefore, the teachers should not only consider how languages should be taught, but also think about the educational process in general. (Beardsmore, 2009; Content and Language Integrated Learning at School in Europe [CLIL], 2005.)

Bilingual education uses two languages to educate generally, purposefully, equitably, and for the tolerance and appraisal of diversity. The narrower goal of foreign language teaching is to learn an additional language. Bilingual education aims also to help students to become global and responsible citizens as they learn to function across cultures and worlds. (García, 2009.) The differences between bilingual education programs and language education programs are displayed in Table 1.

CLIL programs include typically following characteristics: The language used is not a second language (L2) but a foreign language (most often English) that children encounter mainly in the classroom. The teacher is normally not a native speaker of the target language and instead of being a language specialist he or she is most often a content expert. The lessons are timetabled as content lessons (e.g. biology, music, history) and language experts teach the target language separately from CLIL lessons in foreign language lessons. Usually less than half of the contents in the curriculum is taught in the target language. In short, CLIL is a foreign language enrichment attached to content teaching. (Dalton-Puffer 2011; Nikula, Dalton-Puffer & Llinares, 2013.)

The view of content-based language learning as an efficient method of obtaining language proficiency has been supported by Krashen's studies about language learning. He distinguishes between language learning and language acquisition. Language acquisition occurs when a person receives and understands messages in a foreign language. It is possible only when he or she has the opportunity to hear a sufficient amount of language. The language material has to be selected to meet, for the most part, the student's level of understanding and yet to be partly beyond it. Thus, it is possible that the student infers the meaning of new words and expressions from the context, and acquires knowledge of the language in the same manner as an infant acquires his or her first language. (Krashen, 1992.)

However, language usage is always interactive and, consequently, it is important that the students are not reduced to passive receivers. They should be encouraged to use the foreign language to communicate meaning and receive feedback from the teacher and from the other students. (Hedge, 2000.) When students get new information through the medium of a foreign language and have opportunities to practise their language skills in genuine communicative situations they find language learning purposeful and learn effectively. (Met, 2004; Richards & Rodgers, 2001.)

Study

The main goal of the study was to find out if bilingual education affects the development of students' first language literacy skills negatively or if children in CLIL education achieve the same level of literacy as their peers who study exclusively in Finnish. Another goal was to explore if there is a difference in the development of boys' and girls' literacy skills in CLIL and in regular classes. The development of the students of six classes in three schools in southern Finland was observed from the beginning of the first grade to the end of sixth grade. At the beginning of the first school year in these classes there were 138 students, 78 of them studied in the CLIL classes and 58 in the other classes. In the CLIL classes 20–25 per cent of the teaching was in English.

Table 2 shows what skills were tested in the five measurements that were conducted during the research period. The students' starting level was measured at the very beginning of their first school year. At that time, they were six or seven years old. The initial test was used to measure their general level of school readiness, auditory and visual perception, mathematic skills and memory. The results showed that the students in the CLIL classes had, as a group, better initial skills than the students in the other classes. This was due to the entrance procedures for the CLIL classes. When selecting students, the emphasis in many schools was laid on the applicants' linguistic skills. Therefore, it is not surprising that in the initial test the students in the CLIL classes had considerably more success in the tasks that measured phonological and phonemic awareness. However, it should also be pointed out that although the students in the CLIL classes showed, as a group, a higher starting level, there were on the one hand in the control group students who showed excellent performance in the initial test and on the other hand in the CLIL classes students who had poor initial skills.

The students' spelling skills were measured in first, second, and sixth grade with writing from dictation tests. When the children were in fourth grade the focus was on their creative writing skills and attitudes towards reading, writing and language learning. Three reading tests were used to measure the students' reading skills at the end of the first, the second, and the sixth school year. In the first and the second grade the reading tests included reading aloud and reading comprehension tasks and in sixth grade the reading test measured the students' ability to comprehend different kinds of texts. All the measurements were performed in class, and on average no more than one lesson (45 minutes) was used during the same day for measurements. The test results were analysed using an SPSS program. The results may have been somewhat effected by the loss in the number of the students. At the end of the sixth school year only 60 per cent of the students (n=134) were the same as in the beginning of the first school year. However, it is worth mentioning that in the CLIL classes the wastage rate of the students was notably smaller than in the other classes. The families were in most cases so happy to have their children in a CLIL class that they did not want to move them to another school.

In this article the main focus is on the sixth grade measurements and the results of the previous measurements are presented only briefly.

Writing

As was mentioned above, the students' spelling skills were measured in first, second, and sixth grade with writing from dictation tests. At the end of the first school year, there was no significant difference in children's spelling skills in the bilingual classes and the other classes. However, after the second study year the students in the CLIL classes made significantly less spelling errors than the students in the other classes ($t = 4.83, p = .000$). At fourth grade, the focus of the

study was on the students' creative writing. They wrote a story about someone's journey to a place that is very different from where he or she lived. The writers were encouraged to use colourful and rich language, and invent interesting and amusing events. The stories composed by the students in the CLIL classes showed that they had learned to pay attention to their first language as well as to other languages. The Finnish language that they used in their stories was significantly more often colourful and rich than the language in the stories composed in the other classes ($t= 5.19, p= .000$). Furthermore, they described significantly more often and in a more detailed manner the differences between home and the new place ($t= -5.17, p= .000$), as well as the appearance and the characteristics of the characters ($t= -3.15, p= .002$). There were 138 stories altogether. When selecting the twenty best stories out of them, the main criteria that were used were their individuality, eventfulness, story structure, rich and colourful language, and fluency of narration. The attention was also paid to the fashion in which the author sketched the difference between home and the new place and described the characters of the story, and whether he or she had shown original thinking or made clever remarks. Of the twenty stories that best met these criteria, seventeen came from the CLIL classes and only three from the other classes.

At the end of the sixth school year the students in the CLIL classes had significantly better spelling skills than their peers in the other classes ($t= 4.22, p= .000$). There was a strong correlation between the results of the sixth grade spelling test and the spelling tests of first and second grade ($r= .44, p= .000$; $r= .65, p= .000$). Table 3 shows the results of the sixth grade spelling test. In the CLIL classes 23 per cent of the students and only 10 per cent of the students in the other classes had excellent marks. In the other classes 10 per cent of the students had made so many errors in the writing from dictation task that their marks were very poor. No one in the CLIL classes had performed equally poorly in the task. In the regular classes, the girls' marks were significantly better than the boys' marks ($t= -2.76, p= .007$), however, this was not the case in the CLIL classes. Moreover, the boys' marks in the CLIL classes were significantly better than the boys' marks in the other classes ($t= 4.24, p= .000$) but there was no significant difference in the marks of the girls of the two groups.

In the sixth grade the most common errors in the students' papers were compound word mistakes and capital letter mistakes. In Finnish language there is a large number of very long words and compound words that are written as one word and often children have difficulties in writing them correctly. It seems, however, that the different ways of writing compound words and using capital letters in Finnish and English had not increased the number of these errors in the CLIL classes. On the contrary, the students in the regular classes made them significantly more often than the students in the CLIL classes ($t= -3.37, p= .001$; $t= -4.46, p= .000$).

Reading

After the first and the second school year the students in the CLIL classes read with greater accuracy and speed than the students in the other classes. After two school years, especially the reading comprehension skills were significantly better in the CLIL classes than in the other classes ($t= 7.10, p= .000$). When observing the students who started school with a poor level of school readiness or the students who started school with an excellent level of school readiness, there was no significant difference in regard to the development of literacy skills in the CLIL and the regular classes.

During the last weeks of the sixth school year, the students' reading comprehension skills were measured with a test that consisted of three different texts. In addition, the focus was on the students' ability to derive the meaning of a word from the written context and to summarise a text. The first text was a story written by H.C. Andersen, the second a newspaper article about H.C. Andersen, and the third a non-fiction text about orang-utans and their living conditions in today's world.

H.C. Andersen's story was called "What the old man does is always right". After reading the story, the students answered 20 questions. In this section of the test, the difference between the two groups was not significant ($t= 2.21, p= .029$, Table 4). However, the students in the CLIL classes proved to have heard or read more Andersen's stories than their peers in the other classes. They could significantly more often produce a title of another story by Andersen. The difference between the two groups was significant ($t= 4.11, p= .000$).

The second text in the reading comprehension test was a newspaper article about H.C. Andersen. After reading the article, the students' task was to answer ten questions and explain the meaning of ten words picked from the text. In these tasks, the students in the CLIL classes performed significantly better than the students in the other classes ($t= 3.16, p= .002$, Table 5). Their scores varied from 20 to 8 and the scores of the students in the other classes from 19 to 3. The students in CLIL classes performed especially better in word explaining task than the students in regular classes. Both, the boys and the girls in CLIL classes had significantly better scores in the task than the boys and the girls in the other classes ($t= 2.65, p= .010$; $t= 3.25, p= .002$).

The third section of the test proved to be the most difficult. The students were asked to read a non-fiction text about orangutans and their living conditions in today's world and then write a five-sentence summary of it. It was stressed that the summary should include the most essential aspects of the text. In the CLIL classes there was no difference in the results of the three sections of the test. However, in the other classes finding the most important facts in the text and summing them up into five sentences appeared to be significantly more difficult than answering the questions in the two previous sections. In the CLIL classes almost half of the students (48 %) and in the other classes only 11 per cent of the students achieved excellent or very good marks in this section. In contrast, in the monolingual classes almost half of the students' marks (46 %) were poor or fair but only 13 per cent of the students in the bilingual classes succeeded as poorly in summarising the text. The difference between the marks of the two groups was significant ($t= 5.80, p= .000$, Table 6). Also in this section of the test, both the boys and the girls in CLIL classes had significantly better scores than the boys and the girls in the other classes ($t= 3.54, p= .001$; $t= 4.90, p= .000$).

Attitudes towards reading, writing and language learning

The students' attitudes towards reading, writing and language learning were measured at the fourth grade. As was mentioned above, international assessments have shown that there is a significant gender gap in boys' and girls' reading performance in almost all countries. The differences in girls' and boys' skills are mainly due to their different attitudes towards reading related activities. These are a result of gender differences in values, goals and out-of-school activities. To decrease the gender gap, new ideas that seek to attract interest and engagement among boys in literary culture and that help them to find pleasure in reading, are badly needed. (Väljörvi et al., 2007.) Therefore, the positive results of the attitude measurements in CLIL classes were most encouraging.

The instrument that was used was a questionnaire including three twelve item sections (reading, writing, and language learning). Responses were made on a 4-point scale to avoid the possibility that students would select a neutral alternative. At that time the students in the regular classes had been taught English for nearly two years using a formal language-teaching method. There was no significant difference in the attitudes towards reading and writing in the CLIL and the regular classes, whereas the girls' and the boys' opinions differed greatly especially in the regular classes. There the boys' attitudes towards reading and writing were more negative than the girls' attitudes. In the CLIL classes the boys' and the girls' opinions did not differ significantly in any of the twelve items in the reading section of the test. In contrast, in the other classes the boys' and the girls' attitudes towards, for example, reading books and reading aloud in class differed significantly. In the writing section of the questionnaire, writing poems was the only task towards which the boys in the CLIL classes had significantly more negative attitudes than the girls in the same classes. However, in the other classes boys gave, in addition, significantly more negative answers to the questions about being an author in the future, about writing to a pen friend, about keeping a diary, and about editing their texts.

When one examines the answers given to the questions on learning English, the difference between the students' attitudes in the CLIL classes and the other classes is clear. The students in the CLIL classes had significantly more positive opinions towards studying English than their peers in the regular classes ($t= 4.86, p= .000$). The total scores of the language learning section were significantly higher in the CLIL classes than in the other classes. It is worth mentioning that there was a significant difference ($t= -2.98, p= .004$) in the total scores of the boys and the girls in the other classes whereas this was not the case in the CLIL classes.

The results show that especially the boys seemed to benefit from the CLIL education. They had more positive attitudes towards reading and writing than the boys in the other classes. Consequently, they read more than the boys in other classes and as the results of the sixth grade reading and writing tests show, this had had a positive effect on their literacy skills.

Conclusion

The results of the study showed that bilingual education had not affected the development of the students' first language literacy skills negatively. After six study years the students in the CLIL classes had achieved significantly better spelling skills than the students in the other classes. Furthermore, the dissimilarities in spelling English and Finnish language did not seem to cause errors in writing Finnish. For instance, the different ways of writing compound words and using capital letters in the two languages had not increased the number of these errors in the CLIL classes. On the contrary, the students in the CLIL classes made them significantly less than the students in the other classes.

In sixth grade, the students in the CLIL classes understood different texts better than their peers in the other classes. They succeeded equally well in comprehending fiction, non-fiction and newspaper texts while the students in the other classes had much more difficulties in understanding the non-fiction text and the newspaper article than the narrative text. The students in the CLIL classes showed more proficiency in deriving the meaning of new words from the written context than the other students. This may be because they had learned to do that when reading and hearing the English language which often includes words unknown to them. In addition, they succeeded significantly better in finding the most important facts of the non-fiction text and summarising the text than their peers in the other classes.

The results revealed that in the CLIL classes the students' attitudes towards reading and writing were more positive than the attitudes of their peers in the regular classes. Although the boys, at the age of ten, did not appear to be as interested in reading and writing as the girls, the difference between the attitudes of the two genders was not as apparent in the CLIL classes as in the other classes. Moreover, in the regular classes there was a significant difference between the boys' and the girls' attitudes towards language learning, whereas this was not the case in the CLIL classes.

Still, when assessing the results of the study it is necessary to keep in mind certain facts: Firstly, most parents whose children studied in the CLIL classes were interested in their children's studies and sought to help them to succeed in them. They attended parent-teacher meetings more often than parents on average. Furthermore, it is possible that they encouraged their children to read and write also outside school more often than other parents. All this has had a positive effect on the children's development. Secondly, the students in the CLIL classes showed, as a group, a higher starting level in the initial test six years earlier. Nevertheless, also in the CLIL classes there were children who at the beginning of the first grade showed poor starting level and in the regular classes children who showed excellent performance in the initial test. However, the results of the study show that even when the different starting levels of the two groups were taken in account the students' reading and writing skills developed at least equally well in CLIL education as when the students studied exclusively in their mother tongue. Studying through one or two languages did not appear to have any significant effect on the development of a student's literacy skills when his or her starting level at the beginning of the first school year had been poor of excellent.

The students in the CLIL classes had learned to pay attention to languages, as well to their mother tongue as to other languages. They were aware of several similarities and dissimilarities in the languages. For instance, in fourth grade the most distinguishable differences between the stories composed in the CLIL classes and in the other classes were related to the writers' consciousness of the existence of different languages. It was obvious that languages played a more important role in the lives of the students studying in the CLIL classes than for the students in the other classes.

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Tables

Table 1. Differences between Bilingual and Language Education

	Bilingual Education	Foreign or Second-Language Education
OVERARCHING GOAL	Educate meaningfully and some type of bilingualism	Competence in additional language
ACADEMIC GOAL	Educate bilingually and be able to function across cultures	Learn an additional language and become familiar with an additional culture
LANGUAGE USE	Languages used as media of instruction	Additional language taught as subject
INSTRUCTIONAL USE OF LANGUAGE	Uses some form of two or more languages	Uses target language mostly
PEDAGOGICAL EMPHASIS	Intergration of language and content	Explicit language instruction

Source: From García, 2009

Table 2. The five measurements conducted during the research period

MEASUREMENTS		
Measurement 1	Measurement 2	Measurement 3
FIRST GRADE AUTUMN - school readiness - auditory perception - visual perception - mathematical skills - memory	FIRST GRADE SPRING - reading accuracy - reading speed - reading comprehension - spelling	SECOND GRADE SPRING - reading accuracy - reading speed - reading comprehension - spelling
Measurement 4	Measurement 5	
FOURTH GRADE SPRING - attitudes towards reading - attitudes towards writing - attitudes towards language learning - creative writing	SIXTH GRADE SPRING - reading comprehension (fiction, newspaper text) - deriving word meaning from context (fiction, newspaper text) - summarizing (non-fiction) - spelling	

Table 3. The percentage distribution of the students' marks of the writing from dictation test in the CLIL classes and the other classes

SPELLING IN SIXTH GRADE		
marks	CLIL classes n = 62	other classes n = 71
excellent	23 %	10 %
good	70 %	56 %
fair	7 %	24 %
poor	-	10 %

Table 4. The percentage distribution of the students' marks in the fiction section of the reading comprehension test in the CLIL classes and the other classes

READING COMPREHENSION IN SIXTH GRADE (fiction)		
marks	CLIL classes n = 62	other classes n = 71
excellent	8 %	3 %
very good	32 %	20 %
good	48 %	57 %
fair	11 %	16 %
poor	1 %	54 %

Table 5. The percentage distribution of the students' marks in the newspaper section of the reading comprehension test in the CLIL classes and the other classes

READING COMPREHENSION IN SIXTH GRADE (newspaper)		
marks	CLIL classes n = 62	other classes n = 71
excellent	9 %	3 %
very good	34 %	22 %
good	48 %	50 %
fair	9 %	20 %
poor	-	5 %

Table 6. The percentage distribution of the students' marks in the summarizing section of the reading comprehension test in the CLIL classes and the other classes

READING COMPREHENSION IN SIXTH GRADE (summarizing)		
marks	CLIL classes n = 62	other classes n = 71
excellent	13 %	2 %
very good	34 %	9 %
good	40 %	43 %
fair	11 %	37 %
poor	2 %	9 %

Facebook as Space of Resistance for Indonesian-Postcolonial Identity

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Abstract

This paper aims to answer the problem of how Facebook functions to re-construct the Indonesian-postcolonial identity by means of narrative in marking the transition from colonized subjects to liberated beings. The reason why colonial discourse still dominates modern society is due to its ability to possibly re-generate the feeling of inferiority in native culture and perpetuate the patterns of behaviour even after the era of colonialism was over. Evidently, the coming of Internet in Indonesia is significant and highly relevant to postcolonial study only if it is grasped in relation to the preceding history of Indonesian 'old' media. If Internet is socially imagined as a powerful tool of opposition to authoritarianism, I will show how Facebook makes room for a voice of disapproval of the dominant systems and create an independent surveillance over state, opening up unconstrained participation of people who are used to live under authoritarian regimes. My analysis will be focused on the way Facebook provides a mechanism to formulate a 'new' community that hold power to form a collective struggle of those who were considered as the 'other' – the ones formerly excluded or marginalized from the oppressive discourse. Certain ideas are liberally spread out in Facebook, creating an unstoppable flow of resistance toward the dominant discourse and changing the face of the nation. I see narrative as the ideological apparatus that seeks to liberate marginalized subjects by giving them the power to interpret their own experience and subjectivity without conforming to the dominant discourse. The medium is now giving a sense of pleasure and fascination in designing the conception of being a free agent. The process of self-identification produces acts of contestation by making clear the fact that identity is historically unstable and an object of change and reconstruction.

Keywords: Identity, Narrative, Resistance, Postcolonial, the Other, Facebook

Introduction

Having suffered colonial domination and oppression for hundreds of years, Indonesia is struggling with the idea of being a nation in contemporary society. Even though the colonial period has ended, the colonial discourse remains and gives shape to anti-colonialist debates in the post-colonialist era which is materialized in the huge range of issues that shows the problematic concept of post-colonialism itself. The emergence of new media appears as a new area of enquiry within the discourse of post-colonialism and the problem of agency is the specific issue I focus on. The question of identity is central within postcolonial theories. It also has a considerable impact on the study of media. Postcolonial theories are continuously struggling with the idea of 'culture' especially when they claim to speak from the position of the marginal or the silenced. It means that these theories will always deal with identity as a construct, shaped and continuously transformed within new cultural conditions. The notion of agency is important in my thesis since I will scrutinize how identity under postcolonial discourse needs to be re-situated within the emergence of new media that put forward the political economy of signs as an inevitable part of hyper-capitalism. Thus globalization will never leave individuals free without trying to transform them as commodity. As the notion of power has unquestionably characterized the postcolonial discourse, it is interesting to see how new media have acted as an apparatus that bring the power of consumption as a means of understanding oneself. For this reason, my thesis is certainly an interdisciplinary study, positioning identity in contradiction - as an active agent that makes the most of new media but also nothing but a coded object materializing as an image.

Defined by anything but the West, Indonesia, which is living with the history of a former colonized country, was politically positioned to comply with the fate of being the 'Other'. Therefore, the notion of colonialism in this paper will be scrutinized within the discourse of Orientalism which gives a crucial impact in constructing the binary opposition of the Orient (the East) and the Occident (the West) in the contemporary system of representation. Said's thesis about Orientalism will be best in making clear that the Orient is not a natural condition - rather a construction made in order to support the authoritative position of the West, a western style for dominating, restructuring, and having authority over the Orient (Said, 1978; 3). The

binary opposition the Orient - the Occident is not simply produced without involving a structured political domination between engaged parties.

While I focus my paper on the representational domain, I am fully aware that the relevance of postcolonial studies remains central. Its heterogeneous inter-disciplinary nature opens up diverse meanings and implications of the term 'postcolonialism'. The question of superiority and inferiority in the production of knowledge is mostly evident in the process of naming as it implies the power relation between the dominant and the dominated. A contemporary study on postcolonialism should take a specific case that illustrates the mechanism through which the former discourse of colonialism has been challenged by the emergence of new media as colonialism had deployed diverse strategies and methods of control and representation (Loomba, 1998: 19). As Orientalism proposes imaginative assumption about what Orient is, it is necessary to see how the so-called 'Orient' produces text about 'the self' instead of just becoming a fabricated construct, manufactured by the West. Therefore, the scope of my analysis in this chapter will be limited to answer the question whether the Indonesian-Orient can liberate themselves from the logic of subjugation and domination or reinforce the assumptions/stereotypes posed by the West to the Orient.

I will advance my analysis by bringing the identity of the Orient into light pertaining to the problematical conception of agency in the virtual domain. Participatory culture as suggested by Jenkins has made it possible for the average consumers to archive, appropriate and re-circulate media content in powerful new ways (Jenkins, 2009: 8). Hence, it is hard to consent with Fernandez who says that postcolonial studies has a very few points of intersection (Fernandez, 1999: 59). Quite the contrary, key postcolonial issues, such as identity, representation, agency, gender, power and space have been inherently assigned to the new media discourse.

I have chosen Facebook as a specific case relating to the idea of agency, because during its rather short existence this social networking site has become the top-ranked site in Indonesia, beating Yahoo and Google.¹ This fact was published in The Sidney Morning Herald and this news story triggered some debates among local religious groups, responding to the popularity of Facebook with accusations of spreading lies and gossips. When The Sidney Morning Herald announced about the popularity of Facebook in Indonesia, the article acknowledged Facebook as a current phenomenon, dictating public actions. In the article in this online newspaper, Facebook has been accused for strongly arousing moral indulgence, enabling people to exploit this site in an inappropriate manner. Facebook even brought together Indonesian Muslim clerics to come together and criticize the existence of this social networking site that has successfully attracted around 1-2 million people and makes Indonesia the fastest growing country on Facebook in Southeast Asia.² About 700 Muslim clerics agreed and decided that Facebook is forbidden if it is used for spreading lies, gossips and sexual content, even though this edict did not carry any legal weight. The involvement of religious groups in the evaluation of Facebook has opened up a valuable debate about the meaning of technology for human experience and the consequences of adapting 'the self' in technoculture, where identity is judged by the way individuals relate themselves to technology.

If technology continues to penetrate everyday life, it is understandable to worry about its capability to dominate both private and public spheres and challenge what was considered to be traditional values. Facebook can probably be perceived as seduction, provoking people to consume more texts and explore all the possibilities of what the medium can do. The seductive nature of the medium might also be the reason why the local government in Surabaya, the second biggest city in Indonesia, block access to Facebook and two other social networking sites for their employees during the office hours, arguing that civil servants, working for the local government, have wasted too much time using these services.³ What is it on Facebook that creates fascination and dread at the same time, establishes link between human and machine, fuses the real and the virtual in the new realm of reality', based on self-production and participation? This 'new reality' is the subject of my thesis which also bring me to examine how Facebook has promoted a space for resistance to the dominant ways of seeing by welcoming the users to create their own narratives and contribute to the definition of the new media.

New media now appear as a contemporary colonial discourse that works through the specific rhetoric, engaging people in a voluntary support of the imperialist projects. Facebook is a virtual world industry, an economic-oriented space intended to be the market leader in the real world. Sign becomes a commodity by generating 'needs' and offering a sense of individuality. The parade of images on Facebook reveals the fact that key categories of colonialism have been incorporated

¹ <http://www.smh.com.au/world/indonesia-gives-Facebook-the-nod-but-no-flirting-please-20090522-bi9v.html>. Retrieved:10-09-2009

² <http://www.smh.com.au/world/indonesia-gives-Facebook-the-nod-but-no-flirting-please-20090522-bi9v.html> & <http://globalvoicesonline.org/2009/01/11/indonesia-Facebook-users-on-the-rise/>. Retrieved: 10-09-2009

³ <http://www.smh.com.au/technology/technology-news/Facebook-blocked-for-indonesia-city-employees-official-20090911-fjtt.html>. Retrieved:

into the global market. Virtual commodities are linked with the actual substance, which distort the assumed border, dividing the virtual from the actual, which might not have actually existed before. It is intriguing to see how Facebook as a medium has captured the 'real self' and turned it into a sign that refers to 'the self'. At this point it is hard to recognize which one can be considered 'the real self', since this digital apparatus replaces the real subject with an object. If this is the case, I wonder if Facebook has actually put an end to the notion of 'the subject'.

This makes me think that there is still a question that has not been answered adequately yet, namely, how the agency of the self should be re-positioned in the tension between the sovereign power of the subject, making the production of knowledge possible through re-narration, and the supremacy of the objects that forcefully transform any matters into signs? I believe that postcolonial studies need to be rethought within the political economy of signs, because colonialism is manifest in numerous different institutional and cultural practices. If this is the case, then I believe that the analysis of Facebook within the Indonesian context will produce a valuable study on how new media studies and postcolonial theory can mutually collaborate to tackle the challenge in incorporating the postcolonial subject not merely within a system of representation, but also by dealing with the propensity of the medium to absorb the content and question the supremacy of 'the subjects'. I will focus my analysis on the specificity of Facebook as the medium which brings the relation between the material and the ideological to light. The aptitude of Facebook will be elaborated to demonstrate the way postcolonial subjects represent themselves and are now responsible for their own images.

I will consider Facebook as narrative machine that provides freedom for users not only to relocate their world into texts within the realm of representation, but also to actually create the world in which the notion of agency manifests through the interpretation of events, without probing whether the events are real or imaginary. Rather I locate users' narratives within the social, cultural and historical frame in order to trace how Facebook gives form and mechanism for the reconstruction of the postcolonial subject. My research will explore the nature of Facebook and how it functions within the larger context of modern Indonesia. This thesis will define and typify what exactly within Facebook gives raise to the idea of the transformation of the colonized subjects into liberated beings in the contested sphere of the digital media. It is crucial to note that the agency of the self is placed in the paradox of having an ability to create narratives and being commodified as a system of sign at the same time.

Moreover, this thesis will also draw attention to the way new media possibly create a new form of narrative caused by its digital materiality - not simply technological, but also ideological. Considering narratives not only in terms of what they say or mean, but also in terms of what they do (Bassett, 2007; 41), I will closely delve into Facebook to give an idea on how postcolonial identity can be historically made and challenged by unmasking the work of new media as means to provide the subjects with a space to articulate their past and present, as well as organize their experience and make it meaningful to them. I will take Ricoeur's viewpoint that corresponds with Wittgenstein who says that the meaning of human existence is itself a narrative (Bassett, 2007; 27). By considering Facebook as a space allowing users to rethink current cultural moment, my analysis will be aimed to ask how new forms and elements of narratives evident in Facebook show that the relation between human and machine enables to rethink and reconstruct the agency of subject through the process of production and interpretation of texts. At this point, I depart from the premise that material reality exists outside Facebook, even though it can not be assured whether the narrative has been based on the real or imaginary events. What will be considered as 'the real' is everything that has been documented on Facebook, a cultural artifact that plays with three different principles of narrative discourse – mythic, historical and fictional (Ricoeur in White, 1987; 170). I attempt to uncover how the relation between these three principles turn human experience into signs, which possibly happens through human agents, active subjects and their quest for the meaning in their life.

Method

In order to produce critical insights for answer to the main research question this thesis is developed by investigating how the theoretical frameworks function throughout my analysis. I will draw on web sphere analysis and cybercultural studies to capture the means, patterns, artifacts, and mechanisms on Facebook with the intention to explore how postcolonial identities are reproduced through the relationship between the nature of Facebook as a medium and as a form of narrative, formed by abundant content produced by its users. My analysis is based on an understanding that Facebook brings about the problematical nature of the narrative in the digital age, since the process of remediation from old to new media has challenged the narrative's centrality and makes various forms of signs pervasive.

Since web materials are time-sensitive in their nature, an attempt to capture the reproduction of postcolonial identity should include the unique mixture of ephemeral and permanent aspects of the Web. This needs to be done as I will bring together

the materiality of Facebook as a medium and the text - the content produced by the users. According to Kirsten Foot, there are two aspects of the ephemerality of Web content: firstly, it is ephemeral in its transience as it can be expected to last for only a relatively brief time, but still can be viewed again at a later time; secondly, it is ephemeral in its construction where the content, once presented, needs to be reconstructed or represented in order for others to experience it (Foot in Silver & Massanari, 2006; 90). At the same time, Foot explains that the Web has a sense of permanence which is different from its predecessors (Ibid). I agree with Foot when she says that the permanence of the Web is somewhat fleeting, since it will be regularly demolished each time it is updated by its producers. However, this concept can not be fully employed to clarify the mechanism of Facebook, as it broadly gives room for the users either to restore prior content or to remove it.

The position of the researcher should be clarified and taken into consideration in order to ensure that the research material will be properly approached and investigated by answering the proposed research question. Having said this, I will interactively engage with the objects, since the position of the researcher in the hermeneutical cycle is critical and therefore requires participant observation, whereby the researcher will be an observer and a participant at the same time. This course of action is essential for the interpretation of texts as a way to engage with postcolonial subjects and identity, which will also be claimed and taken by the author of this thesis. For this consideration, as a researcher, I will actively engage with the texts investigated. It means that I will simultaneously play with the production and consumption of the text on Facebook. This should be done as means of understanding how the relation between machine and humans is persuasively affecting the formation of identity in the digital realm. This can be achieved only if I become part of the system - as a producer, turning myself into a sign, a text, and the object of study all at once.

There are two areas on Facebook as mechanisms of self-identification that I will investigate in order to see how subjectivities are performed by the postcolonial subjects, which are: 1) identification under the profile picture where the users can narrate their identity, and 2) political views under the section 'Info'. Considering the numerous amount of information that I can get from 1132 friends on my Facebook account, I will select only several relevant narratives that show variation of data.

Discussion

Re-Self-Narrating the 'Indonesian-Orient'

As the Orient was destined to be repressed and reduced to silence, new media have emerged to promote the participatory culture that provide a way for the Orient to have their own voices articulated and expressed without restraint. But it will be premature to suggest that new media stand only for the sake of the Orient, since no arena is completely free from ideological contestation. In order to show how the 'Orient' is a contested category and problematically constructed on Facebook, I will firstly take three statements made by the users on Facebook that address the idea of colonialism.

The first statement made by Jones Batara Manurung that directly articulates his thought into words: "Against Colonialism" as a way to portray his identity. I also take a look at the second statement made by Yordan M. Batara Goa on his profile which does not straightforwardly take in the word 'colonialism': "In which there is no exploitation of man by man, there is no exploitation of man by the state, no capitalism, no poverty, no slavery, no women who desperately miserable because of the double burden". The third statement is written by Budiman Sudjarmiko: "My life is going through the agreement I have made with the conscience of humanity. If we are willing to listen, this conscience of humanity will be here, sneaking in our childhood naïve questions. My life is seeking for the answers of those childhood questions". He also describes himself in these words: "I am a Palestinian in the West Bank of Jordan river, an Aymaran-speaking Indian who lives in the city of La Paz, an Afro-American in Mississippi... fighting for freedom, justice and liberation".

Yordan has cited one of Sukarno's speeches as a way to reveal himself and Budiman Sudjarmiko was well-known as Indonesian activist and politically abused in the New Order era. It is interesting to relate Yordan's profile with the fact that Sukarno employed Communist-rhetoric in his political system 'Guided Democracy'. Sukarno's vision of the nation was based on socialism. His support for the latter stems from his advocacy of the Third World as the opposition of imperialism, where the US and Britain are seen by him as the chief international agents (Vickers; 2005; 149). This policy was the complete opposite to the New Order which returned Indonesia to a basically pro-Western and pro-capitalist development (Philpott, 2000; 164). After Sukarno was overpowered by Suharto, communism was prohibited in Indonesian society which lead to the ban of any literature or media suspected of propagating this political agenda. There was nearly no media that gave significant space for self-articulation where Indonesian citizens could freely express their own political view and put their own viewpoint into words.

I see that the tendency of bringing the political affiliation publicly in the process of identification is made possible not only because Facebook provides the specific section about political view but also through the specificity of this medium in creating a space for 'forbidden' identity that formerly was restricted in the era of New Order and cannot be done in other kinds of media. Writing any statements that are opposed to the dominant discourse used to be considered as the act of threatening the unity of Indonesia and going up against the ruling government. The New Order effectively barred political activism and even political debate, exercising the authoritarian theory of media for the purpose of nation-building. (Sen & Hill, 2000: 3, Kitley, 2000: 4). For me, it speaks to the fact that the emergence of new media fundamentally influences the formation and representation of the self since individuality is taking a crucial place in the media landscape.

Access to technological device is the vital thing needed to play part in the national discourse. Is the quest for hope to recover Indonesia from a long practice of colonialism finally realized by the new media? Have postcolonial subjects who are still striving to be completely free from modern colonialism worked out by indigenous people really been able to become the knowable man that can liberally perform their resistance strategically? Surprisingly, there is no word of Indonesia mentioned in these two statements and in other sections on his Facebook account. Instead of mentioning 'Indonesia', stating three other national identities all at once is his choice. At this point, narratives, symbols and rituals that constitute a sense of mutual and national belonging are something that can possibly be shared with other nations. Freedom, justice and liberation are what Budiman has in mind when he personally approaches the idea of nation, not by plainly ascribing the mutual sense of community as a nation but also positioning nationalism in the global perspective. Budiman Sudjatmiko has mentioned three different identities that both represent the trivial figure, marginalized groups of people that live in separate geographical space but share the same vision of freedom, justice and liberation. Every identity might experience the different sites of oppression, diverse ideological principles and each has to contribute to the very fundamental conception and vision of emancipation which are relevant to their unique characteristics.

The history of Indonesia is marked with violence therefore it is not surprising that most people see power as a destructive force that was frequently deemed in parallel with domination. Foucault makes a clear explanation that domination is not the essence of power and as a matter of fact, power is exercised upon the dominant as well as on the dominated; there is a process of self-formation or auto-colonization involved (Foucault in Dreyfus & Rabinow, 1982; 186 and Smith, 2006; 100). Foucault has made it clear when he envisioned that the fundamental technical inventions and discoveries, a new technology of the exercise of power has emerged which is probably even more important than the constitutional reforms and new forms of government established at the end of the eighteenth century (Foucault, 1980; 12). Mostly, users who address the key issues of colonialism do not clearly state how colonialism can potentially be materialized in contemporary world, even for someone who explicitly states the word 'colonialism' like Jones Batara Manurung.

Articulating his thought into words: "Against Colonialism" on his Facebook account, Jones Batara Manurung stimulates a question about what colonialism means on his account when he wrote this word and how diverse forms of struggle can be brought to light in the contemporary society. At this point, there is no such thing as an inherent meaning since the readers consciously determine the meaning of what is written. This appears with their subjectivity and makes the authority over meaning present once they start to comprehend the word (Muller, 2004; 113-114). In order to understand how this works in new media, I need to clarify that there has been a change in the social and cultural implication of writing caused by the new media..

Where Am I Politically? Resistance and Power in the Digital Realm

I choose national issues depicted in the section of 'political view' on Facebook as a space that defines the subjects not only based on their political affiliations but also their capacity to overcome the possibility of oppression. Since the beginning, the Indonesian society has struggled to deal with diversity in political agenda which has frequently been seen as a threat to Indonesian unity. This illustrates current struggle between modernity and tradition. The parade of diversity in political principle is one of the radical changes that revolutionary transform Indonesian citizens from passive subjects into the subjects of knowledge.

There are quite a lot of political views stated by the users on Facebook which never imagined to be seen publicly before without causing a problem for the subjects such as: "Left Hedonic" (by Airlangga Pribadi), "Transrational" (by Novri Susan), "No Facism" (by Jojo HateFesbuk), "Liberal" (by Eka Rahma), "Abstain" (by Kristina Lydia), "Apathetic" (Cindy Tomaso), "Other" (Harris Abdullah), "Neutral" (Alexa Saxon), "Political What?" (Satrya Wibawa) and "Proud to be the member of People's Democratic Party" (by Tulang Iyek Marpaung). I believe that a range of political views should be seen as the end of dominating and homogenous system of knowledge where individuals are not determined by dominant discourse in

formulating and displaying their self-images. The self and the political are obviously conjoined regardless of how apolitical their statements are for whoever reads them. I know that I should retain information about the historical fact that politically relates with this word.

Convincingly testified, all those political declarations above are defending beliefs and becoming a struggle for emancipation. For me, they are arguing on the importance to keep identity heterogeneous by standing up against the Unitarian system that attempts to keep other voices but the dominant one silenced. When Kristina Lydia goes for "abstain", the political statements posed by Cindy Tomaso have the same tone with 'abstain' as she states 'apathetic' in her profile which is also analogous with Satrya Wibawa has 'political what?' in his Facebook account. The self and the political are obviously conjoined regardless of how apolitical their statements are for whoever reads them. I know that I should retain information about the historical fact that politically relates with this word.

Refusal to vote for any parties and abstain from Indonesian politics formerly was considered as a subversive act. As a matter of fact, individuals who decline to vote in the election are called golongan putih (golput). Literally, it means 'white group', but it signifies the non-voters. Even though the values and the consequences of abstainment are still debatable, the New Order had frequently propagated a campaign against golput even though there are no laws prohibiting the Indonesian citizens to abstain. Accused of being rebellious and disrupting the public order, Indonesian citizens were politically forced to vote while there were still individuals or groups who insisted to be non-voters and considered it as a kind of political act. Among various reasons why people do not vote, golput was commonly deemed as the expression of apathy toward the government and political order in Indonesia. Astonishingly, after the New Order was over and reformation era has come forward, the total amount of golput has significantly increased. According to recent survey in Indonesian election 2009, the number of golput has approximately reached 50 millions of people or 30 percent from Indonesia's total population.¹ Whoever abstained in the election can never be detected - these citizens remained anonymous, except for who choose to explicitly state political standpoint in public

Performing a Nation without a Nationality

Although Facebook is understood as a social networking site, the assumption that technology will consequentially be utilized to bring the world, strictly speaking, the others, closer than before has been challenged by a range of categories of subjectivity as it becomes harder to recognize who should be counted as the 'Other'. Facebook does not provide any section for nationality which means that this specific kind of identity categorization has been obscured and made invisible. If technology's greatest promise is to eradicate otherness as indicated by Nakamura (Nakamura, 2002; 4) and if the Orient take the chance to reveal their postcolonial identities and challenge the stereotypes projected by the West to them, how does it make their origin visible if it does not even appear on their Facebook account? It seems that the subjects on Facebook mostly use their personal social background as the basis of making a national statement to others. The fact that online world can easily be manipulated is well-understood which enables any virtual spaces to forcefully stand for their own sake and the subjects behind it.

Taking all statements, I am continuing my analysis into the point where the otherness functions well in picturing the profile of a nation with no reference to its own name. As I have mentioned before, the term 'Indonesia' has been concealed in all those political views. At this point, narratives, symbols and rituals that constitute a sense of mutual and national belonging are something that can possibly be shared with other nations. Freedom and liberation in political views are values attached by the users when they approach the idea of nation, not by plainly ascribing the mutual sense of community as a nation but also positioning nationalism in the global perspective. This is done by featuring ideas that represent the condition of marginalized groups of people that possibly live in separate geographical space but share the same vision of freedom, liberation and even rebellion. Every identity might experience the different sites of oppression, diverse ideological principles and each has to contribute to the very fundamental conception and vision of emancipation which are relevant to their unique characteristics. However, by posing the issue of self-sovereign in global digital media like Facebook, they all argue that this is an urge for all nations, especially those who still strive for liberation from colonial forces in all senses.

I agree with Nakamura's argument that chosen identities are not breaking the mold of unitary identity but rather shifting identity into the realm of the 'virtual' and it can definitely create and reproduce stereotypes as well (Nakamura, 2002; 4). Identity is truly traveling now, traversing the frontiers between the offline and the online screen. I also concur with Bhabha on his theory that postcolonialism will always operate through the dimension of time, history and space, both geographical

¹ www.nasional.kompas.com. Retrieved: 02-12-2009

and political by positioning new media as a space through which activities by which new identities, new geographies, and new conceptualization of the world are fashioned and performed (Young, 2001; 66). Formulating national identity can no longer be done by simply drawing a strict line that physically separates one object from another. Even though national heritages are apparently materialized in tangible or natural matter and marked out by geographical borders that did not happen by accident rather were contested, defended and constructed (McLeod, 2000; 68), national identity has possibly been envisioned by positioning one's nationality among others, exercising the notion of differences as well as similarity.

I believe that the invisibility of national identity does not automatically mean that national identity has not been taken into account. Being promoted from an object of history to the rank of creators (Abdel-Malek in Brydon, 2000b; 829), the Orientals should think how to call themselves. Living in the world called the Oriental, the resistance to the politics of Orientalism can be performed by asking what Said has asked in 'Orientalism Reconsidered' -who writes or studies the Orient, in what institutional or discursive setting, for what audience, and with what ends in mind? (Said in Brydon, 2000b; 848). Posing these questions will lead to a wide range of answers that convey a problem about how postcolonial identity (the Orient) can produce non-dominative and non-coercive knowledge without being trapped to think within the logic of colonialism.

Religion, Nation and Multiple Images of the Orient

When new media are believed promoting no boundaries in the physical world, the same thing also happens in the incorporeal realm where the border that constructs the basic conception of religion itself has been stretched out beyond the conventional principles. It is not my intention to say that before the reformation, Indonesian people were frightened to stand for what they believed. Yet it must be clearly recognized that every cultural phenomenon leads to significant changes in ways of thinking. I concur with Schaeffer (Schaeffer in Smith, 2006; 20) who claims that "If we are to understand present-day trends in thought, we must see how the situation has come about historically and also look in some detail at the development of philosophic thought-forms". I believe that the conception of the self will always be embedded by what the history has brought to the subjects and the way it shapes the actuality of identity in all notable moments. I will bring the historical context of Indonesians in order to show how this nation is very familiar with the tradition of violence even in the realm of religion. It needs to be done before understanding how new media, and Facebook in particular through the section of 'religious view', function as a break down that can potentially disrupt the dominance of tradition for having religious matter as a grounding of coercion.

Islam, Christianity, Catholicism, Buddhism, and Hinduism are five official religions acknowledged by the Indonesian government. Other believers are prohibited to engage in religious practices or worship and also are not allowed to bring up any disciples or followers. In Indonesian context, the first of the five principles in Pancasila, the philosophical foundation of the Indonesian state, which is 'Believe in the one and only God' (Ketuhanan Yang Maha Esa) has established a strong interrelation between the State and religion. All believers are not merely convinced by the dogma to have faith in God but are also required by the State to confess one of six officially recognized religions. This first principle was initiated as an alternative to the creation of an Islamic state, even though there were many who were in favor of founding the state on the basis of the religion of the majority (Vickers, 2005; 118). With the endeavor to recognize the value of other religions and minority groups, the first principle was set up to guarantee the rights of all Indonesian citizens to hold any acknowledged religions. In fact, the use of the term 'official religion' (agama resmi) is still debatable until now.

In 1978 the government issued the circular letter of the Minister of Home Affairs which stated that there were only five religions in Indonesia even though the higher constitution, the former Presidential Decision No. 1/Pn.Ps/1965 1/Pn.Ps/1965 recognized Konghucu as a valid religion together with the other five. As a consequence of this circular letter, all citizens were ordered to fill in the religion section in their National Identity Card (Kartu Tanda Penduduk /KTP) by choosing one of five religions. Konghucu was excluded until K.H Abdurrahman Wahid, the fourth Indonesian president, annulled this in 1978 and acknowledged Konghucu again as one of six official religions in Indonesia. Even though the 1945 Constitution does not explicitly state these six religions, it is still generally assumed that Indonesia recognizes only them which leaves out other forms of indigenous spiritualism. Until now, religious affiliation still needs to be listed by all Indonesian citizens in their National Identity Cards which brings many discrimination practices based on religious differences in reality.

There are multiple images of the Orient portrayed on the section of 'religious view' on Facebook which should not be oversimplified as they reflect the intricate concept of culture itself which. Its "differential and relativist" functions are precisely what is important (Clifford in O'Hanlon & Washbrook in Brydon, 2000; 905). The absence of a unified identity is the most obvious feature displayed on Facebook and religious view is the section where the Orient is constantly performing their cultural differences, bringing any possible form of subversion, mockery and cynicism into play as an effort to deconstruct

any single master narrative and reject all universal forms of cultural centralization. At this point, being modern or staying traditional may not be the main issue for the Orient. Rather what is at stake is the construction of new ways of exercising knowledge about oneself and the others. Facebook equally privileges the voices of indigenous individuals and gives space for the Orient to reinvent themselves in unpredictable ways.

The online religion emerges as a response to the call to deconstruct grand narratives. The word 'others' used by Nayarini Estiningsih when she defines her religious view on her Facebook account is quite provoking as it implies a distance, a separation from anything that has existed before. One intriguing statement is written by Muhammad Amin: 'Religion' and 'Atheism' are the same stupidity with different name whilst PennyRoyal Tea writes down 'Believe 1 God' for her religious view'. For many and nearly all people, cyberspace is a playful and sacred space at the same time. Imagination and vision about the self, others, society and nation are all penetrating this virtual terrain and showing the unstoppable transformation of reality and history. Social, political and religious institution are about to change by the power of free will, a will for interpretation and multiple production of identities. Satrya Wibawa passionately envisages that spiritual experiences are expected to happen in cyberspace when he says this appealing statement in his religious view: 'God is in Internet! Believe me'. All these users are reluctant to state or choose one of 'official' religions. As an alternative, they put forward their enthusiasm of playing part in the self-determination and taking advantage of Facebook that allows their identities to be embedded as unconventional towards religious views. Some of them still correlate their religious view with the existence (or extinction) of God to different extents whereas others prefer to approach religious matter quite unconventionally. How can one comprehend such words like 'agnostic', 'toujours fidele', 'progressive muslim', 'proud to be infidels...they shall enjoy freedom, democracy, art and rock music', 'esoteric', 'inheritance' (warisan), 'monyetism' ('monyet' means monkey) or 'samawi religions' (agama samawi) with no trouble at the first reading of subject's account on Facebook?

Some phrases might be relatively more familiar because they make use of concepts that are generally recognizable and highly allied with religious matter. Some labels are considered as unusual for naming a religion since they widen the very conception of what should be considered as religion, especially when the enduring religious traditions have habituated the followers to get familiarized only with major religious affiliation which are Islam, Christianity, Catholicism, Buddhism and Hinduism. In her book 'Give Me That Online Religion', Brenda E. Braser has explored more than one million operating online religion websites. They encompass every major religious traditions in the world, most new religious groups and innumerable social movements that function as de facto religion for their follower (Braser, 2001; 6). This online phenomenon provides evidence on the aptitude of new media to promote an interreligious understanding. The challenge to traditional religion has been set up not only by modern religious institutions but also it is made possible by every single individual in the virtual space. This way narrative introduces an opposing point of view, perspective, consciousness to the unitary web of vision (Said 1978: 240). For me, the fundamental issues of human and social life are now under erasure since everyone starts asking the essence of being which in my opinion arguing that there is no essential being that can escape from the historically-cultural shift. All ideas are seeking for self-expression and new media overpoweringly endows individuals with an immense power to pose their incredulity toward meta-narratives.

If the religious freedom comes to be construed as the individual's right to worship any god or none at all (Tipton in Arjomand, 1993: 274), it does not automatically render the position of religion outside of public life. But if God is in Internet as said by Satrya Wibawa, then God must compete with the others positioned as the center of religion in the online world. Religion may still need God, but speaking of religious view, any corporeal matters or forms of knowledge can potentially catch the attention of a new devotee without being institutionally engaged. The way the internet fascinates its users may be the main reason why Satrya Wibawa argues that God (must be) in the Internet. Re-fashioning God and giving Him/Her the new look that goes well with face of the digital era can be the case here, but erecting boundaries that formerly existed between faith and knowledge is quite liberating for many people. Religious skepticism (a religion without religion) may be the product of postmodern religious faith which is not linked to any particular dogma, doctrine and denomination (Smith, 2006; 119). If Satrya Wibawa's statement should be considered as a radical view for bringing the Internet as the new sanctuary where everything that people believe in God are already provided by technology, how about the indigenous religions which actually exist in the Indonesian society? Do new media bring their existence back or make them present in Indonesian people's lives after prolonged concealment in nearly all media representations?

Indonesian government has chosen to call the indigenous Indonesian religion as 'aliran kepercayaan'. It is analogous with a cult which means that it is not acknowledged as a religion, but only as a spiritual practice that believes on the existence of God. Personal experiences and relationships between the followers and their God is the basis of the practice that combines different system of religious beliefs with mystical elements that are typical to local values among particular ethnicities. In some areas in Indonesia, there are existing indigenous beliefs, such as the 'Sunda Wiwitan' embraced by the

community in Baduy, Lebak, Banten and also known as CIGUGUR religion (and there are several other names), 'Buhun religion' in West Java; 'Kejawen' in Central Java and East Java; 'Parmalin religion', an indigenous Batak religions; 'Kaharingan religion' in Kalimantan; 'Tonaas belief' in Minahasa regency, North Sulawesi; 'Tolottang' in South Sulawesi; 'Wetu Telu' in Lombok or 'Naurus IslandSeram' in Maluku Province. These indigenous religions are degraded as a doctrine of animism, pagan or just as a cult as I mentioned before. The religious matter had been exercised by the government as the instrument of oppression instead of being developed as national heritage.

I used my personal Facebook account to ask other users whether any of them write down the indigenous Indonesian religion or not in the 'religious view' section. None of my friends on Facebook responded positively. This implies different meanings. The users may not know what the indigenous Indonesian religions are or they choose not to relate with traditional values. It is easier to find various religious views which are not rooted in Indonesian ritual or tradition. The Orient occupies the virtual terrain and brings representational images posed by the West to trouble. This is the point of departure for the negotiation of the self, the process of destabilizing the firm construction of the Orient by progressively challenging any homogenous intellectual, cultural and political narratives.

If the essence of Orientalism is the ineradicable distinction between Western superiority and Oriental inferiority (Said, 1978; 42), does the formulation of contemporary religious view on Facebook point towards the idea of bringing the Orient closer to modern realities as a refusal to accept the binary distinction made by the West? When While Said says that everywhere among Orientalists there was the ambition to formulate their discoveries, experiences and insights suitably in modern terms (1978; 43), I personally find out the paradox between the potential to break out from the stereotypes of the Orient and the tendency to intensify the constructed figure of the Orient. By realizing that the construction of binary positions was based on the imaginative vision about the Orient who is oddly different – unusual, fantastic, bizarre, irrational, extraordinary, or abnormal (McLeod, 2000; 44) – and that history is made by men, 'religious view' materializes power exercised by what has been called the Orientals in order to give shape to the new material reality of the Orientals.

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The Medicalization of Ethnicity in Vietnamese-American Women: Cosmetic Surgery and Hybridization

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Abstract

Within the growing proliferation of the cosmetic procedures in the United States and worldwide, the alteration of ethnic features dominate surgeries chosen by Asians. This study surveys a group of Vietnamese women who have undergone ethno-altering cosmetic surgery in the United States and Vietnam. The study utilized semi-structured interviews and participant observations to elicit the following information from participants and their families, friends, and coworkers: a) How does the cosmetic procedures affect their acculturation to the United States? b) How have their experiences affected their cultural identity? c) How have they experienced their surgeries in relation to the presence of western technology, images, and culture? d) How have their experiences with their surgeries affected their relationships with friends, families, and coworkers? Fifteen women between the ages of twenty-five and sixty-five participated in this study. All subjects immigrated to the United States after reaching fifteen years of age with 58% had their procedures in Vietnam. Major findings include the claim by all subjects that the surgery was motivated by a pursuit of Asian standards of beauty, but with the specification by them typical of a hybrid mix of Western and Asian features.

Keywords: ethnic identity, cosmetic surgery, plastic surgery, Vietnamese women, acculturation

Introduction

The sense of beauty and the inclination for status and success may differ from one ethnic group to the next. However, standards for beauty and status for some minority groups mimic the prevalent features and characteristics of the dominant group (Sarwer, Grossbart, & Didie, 2003; Slupchynskij, 2005). The dominant group not only has the power in numbers, but it also has the power of influence. Taking on some of the influential characteristics may be one way minority groups can grasp some of the perceived power and status of the dominant group.

For several minority groups, ethno-altering of the facial features is one way to identify with the majority. Ethno-altering or changing one's ethnic appearance has been made possible with the technological advances of surgery. Some social scientists see plastic surgery as a step towards a modern version of ethnic cleansing for people of color (Boras 2007; Slupchynskij, 2005). About 45% of cosmetic surgery on Asian Americans consists of eyelid surgeries, while twenty percent involves having nose implants and nasal tip refinement (Kaw, 1993; Nguyen 2005; Xuvn 2013). For certain minority groups, such as Asian Americans, African-Americans, and Latin Americans, ethnicity is distinguished by facial characteristics, followed by language and culture (Rosenthal, 1987). In altering ethnic features, distinctions between ethnic groups can be less defined and more apt to fit the western ideal of beauty (Bulbeck, 1998). Looking different for certain groups is a mark of their ethnicity and minority status.

Recent studies have indicated a growing trend in cosmetic surgery in U.S. ethnic minorities with Asian Americans having the largest increase in cosmetic procedures between 2007-2008 and fueling a market that aim to reach \$17.5 billion by 2015 (American Society of Plastic Surgeons, 2013; Wimalawansa, McKnight, and Bullocks, 2009). The procedures for minority groups tend to be ethnically specific. Asians prefer blepharoplasty (eyelid surgery) and rhinoplasty (nose reshaping), while Latinos prefer breast and buttock augmentations.

Racial minorities often internalize the body images revered by the dominant culture's racial ideology. By revising their body parts, many Asian women are attempting to rid themselves of the effects of their internalized racism. These Asian women may consciously want plastic surgery to look beautiful, but their need to look more Anglo is an unconscious denouncement of their cultural identity (Kaw, 1993; Nguyen 2005). The results of the ethno-altering surgery have both advantages and

disadvantages. Dubois (1993) contends that the emotional cost of assimilation outweighs the perceived benefits and may lead to more depression. Hence, looking less Asian can also improve their social status as racial minorities. Economic success implies easy assimilation into American society, while lack of success is looked upon as resisting acculturation (Dubois, 1993). Having the surgery represents a mark of status, where one is finally incorporated into the technological world of the dominant, white group.

Method

Sampling

A small, non-probability sample (n=15) of Vietnamese women who have had ethno-altering cosmetic surgery participated in the study. The use of snowball sampling was used in finding participants with most participants acquired through friends, Vietnamese businesses, and various Vietnamese trade schools in the Houston and San Francisco. Participants met the following recruitment criteria: 1) a Vietnamese woman at least 18 years of age 2) having had ethno-altering cosmetic surgery 3) had the surgery in the U.S. or Vietnam 4) had the surgery with the past two years. The study utilized semi-structured interviews and participant observations to elicit the following information from participants and their families, friends, and coworkers: a) How does the cosmetic procedures affect their acculturation to the United States? b) How have their experiences affected their cultural identity? c) How have they experienced their surgeries in relation to the presence of western technology, images, and culture? d) How have their experiences with their surgeries affected their relationships with friends, families, and coworkers?

Data Collection Methods

Since little information or research has been implemented in studying the relationship between ethno- altering cosmetic surgery and acculturation, an exploratory, qualitative research design is the most appropriate for this study. A flexible method of interviewing would allow for examination of this issue, in which face-to-face, semi-structured interviews were used to guide questions as well as allow for exploration of important themes. With the difficulty of locating these subjects, phone interviews were also used to acquire subjects and data. The majority (14 out of 15) of the participants live in Houston, Texas for face-to-face interviews. Since one participant live in San Francisco, I conducted that interview by phone. All participants had agreed to have their interviews recorded by a digital voice recorder. No major costs in terms of special equipment or materials were needed.

Human subjects' approval was received prior to contacting subjects. Consent forms were given to prospective subjects to read and sign prior to the interviews. Confidentiality was the primary concern for some of the subjects. In many Vietnamese families, family secrets and struggles remain strictly within the family unit. Careful measures were used to ensure confidentiality for the subjects and their families. Although the interviews were conducted at the subjects' home, workplace, school, or businesses, the subjects set private areas aside for comfort and some degree of confidentiality. Accuracy was enhanced during the process of the study by keeping notes of the interviewing environment and recording both verbal and nonverbal interactions of the interviews. The interviews were transcribed from audiotapes and erased immediately after transcription.

While the interview schedule made it easier to gather large amount of information in a short period of time, it also had limitations. Although the interviews did not require translation since the researcher is fluent in Vietnamese, translation from English to Vietnamese may not be accurate due to certain Vietnamese expressions that do not have their equivalence in English and vice versa. In addition, the participants might not have understood the questions and might have provided vague, incomplete, or distorted responses for other reasons. The accuracy of the data is dependent upon the honesty of the participants' responses.

Data Analysis

Unstructured data gathered in this study was recorded and analyzed manually. Since some of the interviews were in Vietnamese, initial transcriptions were in its original language and translated into English afterwards. Data were compiled and compared for common themes and specific responses of interest. First I listed and clustered similar topics together, and then I formed them into columns. Columns consisted of major topics, unique topics, and leftovers. Data that did not match specific categories were collected and examined for other important themes related to the research.

Results

The qualitative descriptions of these Vietnamese women who have undergone ethno-altering cosmetic surgery revealed complex motivations for having surgery. The findings supported the aim of the study by allowing these experiences to have a presence in the limited collection of literature about Vietnamese-Americans. This study pointed to other areas of research concerning acculturation and racism. Past research on acculturation and racism did not explore the experiences of Vietnamese-American women in this capacity. Therefore, the findings supported the aim of the research by generating descriptions of the Vietnamese women's experiences and understanding of their ethno-altering cosmetic surgery.

Participants

The age range for this group of fifteen subjects was twenty-five to sixty-five years of age, and all fifteen subjects in this study immigrated to the United States after reaching fifteen years of age. Thus, all fifteen subjects spent their childhood and adolescent years in Vietnam, which also meant they were all first generation Vietnamese refugees. The time of immigration ranges from the first immigration wave of 1975 to the most recent immigration of 1997. Eleven out of fifteen lived in Houston, Texas, and one resided in the San Francisco area. Both areas have a high concentration of Vietnamese population.

United States citizenship was not a good measurement for national affiliation and cultural identity due to the variation in the time of immigration. Another reason was that all the subjects identified themselves as Vietnamese people with or without the United States citizenship. Two subjects out of fifteen believed that having U.S. citizenship meant being less Vietnamese. Those two participants felt that obtaining a United States citizenship meant betraying their affiliation with Vietnam and their ancestors. On the other hand, ten out of fifteen perceived U.S. citizen status as increasing resources, not as a change of national or cultural identity.

In terms of the socioeconomic background, the subjects ranged from working class to upper-middle class status. Five came from a working class background. Five out of the fifteen subjects fell in the middle class status, and two were classified in the upper-middle income bracket. The socioeconomic status of these women in Vietnam was difficult to measure as the earned income and time of immigration varied among the women. Interestingly, all fifteen subjects were educated in Vietnam, with the high school as the highest level of education completed. Below is brief information on some of the participants in the study. I have used pseudonyms and changed some background information to ensure confidentiality of the participants.

Mau

Mau, a thirty nine year old store clerk, gave the above statement about her motivation to alter her eyes and enhanced her looks, as well as improving her health. Mau immigrated to the United States with her family at the age of seventeen in 1975. She obtained her citizenship in 1983 and had her cosmetic surgery in 1984, less than a year after acquiring the American citizenship. When asked about short time span between two significant events, she remarked, "I wanted to do both at once: being an American and looking better."

Hoa

Hoa was a thirty-seven year old seamstress who came to the United States in 1985 at the age of twenty-five. She had her surgery two years prior to her resettlement in the United States. Hoa was considering applying for citizenship in the future. The need to prepare for the resettlement and acculturation process appeared to be the reason for her cosmetic surgery. She worked as a seamstress in a tailor shop nearby her residence and was married with three children. Hoa had plastic surgery on her eyes, nose, and chin. I wanted to look better. Bigger eyes are better with two folds instead of one. Besides, my original eyes reminded my mother of her hated father.

Linh

Linh was a forty-four year old housewife who immigrated to the United States in 1984 at the age of thirty. She obtained her citizenship in 1997 at thirty-seven years old. Her eyes were made larger with the double folds in 1982, also two years prior to her immigration. As with Hoa, acculturation played an important role in the decision to have surgery. However, Linh's altering of her eyes also impacted her relationship with her mother, who associated Linh's original eyes with the conflictual relationship with her mother's father.

Dao

Dao, a thirty-three year old hairstylist, wanted to fit in with her friends. Her motivation appeared to deal primarily with peer group relations, in which she wanted to join her friends and cooperate with them in the cosmetic surgery endeavors. She only had her eyes fixed but remarked how she regretted the surgery, which she had in Vietnam when she was twenty years old. She came to America in 1994 at the age of thirty and claimed how she did not want a citizenship here because she wanted to remain Vietnamese.

Lan-Truc

Lan-Truc was a twenty-seven year old nail technician who came to the United States in 1993 at the age of twenty-four.

She was not a citizen but would like to become one in the near future. She had her nose surgery when she was eighteen years old with her parents' permission. It also seemed to be the natural method to enhance her looks since so many members of her family endorsed cosmetic surgery.

Khanh

At forty-three years old, Khanh reflected her motivation to fit in with her friends and the community when she had her eyes altered at the age of twenty-six in 1980. Khanh came to America in 1990 when she was thirty-six and obtained her citizenship one year ago. She worked as an attendant for a dry cleaning store and was married with three sons. Khanh noted she felt so naive and young when she had her cosmetic surgery. During an interview, she claimed, "I became afraid after I had it done. I didn't think about it until after I came back to the doctor's office and saw blood on someone else's face." Khanh also she regretted the surgery:

Hang

Hang was twenty-four years old when she came to the United States in 1979 with her husband and their four children. She had her eyes and nose surgery in 1983, at the age of twenty-eight, and obtained her citizenship six months later. At forty-three years old, Hang worked as an assembly worker for a major computer corporation. She emphasized how the surgery made her feel better: "It was something I wanted before I came to America. To me, it was part of coming here and living here." Hang perceived the surgery as part of the resettlement package and a new beginning for her family as they were impoverished in Vietnam.

Thu-Thuy

Thu-Thuy immigrated to America in 1997 with her husband and their twenty-year-old son. She was forty-five at the time of the interview and was working on her licensure as a manicurist. Although not yet a citizen, Thu-Thuy was looking forward to being a US citizen in the future. Thu-Thuy had her eyes altered in 1980 when she was twenty-six years old. Her motivation for the surgery was peer group relations: she saw all her friends with the ethno-altering surgery and wanted to join them. Thu-Thuy regretted her surgery and wished she never had it done.

Phuong

Phuong immigrated to the United States in 1975 with her husband and their three children. Phuong was twenty-five-years old when she resettled in America. Her husband died five years later in a car accident, leaving Phuong widowed but with a large sum of money from his life insurance. Phuong decided to go into real estate with the money and became successful. She had her eyes and nose altered in 1982 at the age of thirty-one and acquired her citizenship within a year

of surgery. Her motivation for the surgery was to make herself more presentable and more marketable as a saleswoman and as an American.

Tien-Hanh

Tien-Hanh was twenty-one years old when she had her nose surgery in Vietnam. With much distress and conflict with her family after the surgery, Tien-Hanh felt guilty for having the surgery without her family's permission. At the time of the interview, Tien-Hanh was working as a nail technician in salon owned by a family friend. She was twenty-five years old at the time of the interview. Tien-Hanh immigrated in 1997 and looked forward to becoming a citizen. For Tien-Hanh, the cosmetic result of the surgery pleased her, but she regretted defying her parents' objection to the surgery. She talked about the difficult period after the surgery involved family conflict, although her family eventually accepted her altering her face.

Huong-An

Huong-An was thirty-two when she had her cosmetic surgery in 1988, and the doctor she referred to was a well-known Vietnamese plastic surgeon in the San Francisco area. Huong-An immigrated to the United States in 1985 by herself. Though she had a sister in Texas, Huong-An wanted to be on her own in California. She married within a year of her surgery and became a United States citizen in 1993. Although it was convenient for Huong-An to have her ethno-altering surgery, Huong-An also wanted to look better and to fit in more in the new country.

Minh

Minh had her eyes and nose surgery by an American doctor in 1990 at the age of thirty. Minh, who immigrated to the United States in 1975 at the age of fifteen, was more skeptical about the skills of Vietnamese doctors. Although she identified herself as Vietnamese, she perceived the American doctors as more knowledgeable. Minh attended one year of high school in America but dropped out and married at seventeen. Her cosmetic surgery was a celebration of her success as an entrepreneur with a chain of grocery stores. Minh associated the surgery with a mark of success and status.

Findings of Acculturation

Acculturation was a motive for the ethno-altering surgery with some participants. The findings also showed that having the surgery symbolized status. These findings supported past research on Asian-American women and plastic surgery, in which status was a strong motivator for some women (Kaw, 1993; Cuong 2013). The Vietnamese women in this study associated the surgery with "making it" because the ethno-altering surgery was a luxury only the wealthy can afford.

Acculturation is a process where elements of both one's own culture and the new culture are accepted to suit one's resettlement needs. For many of these women, the ethno-altering surgery prepared them for different stages of the acculturation process. Seven out of the fifteen subjects interviewed had their surgeries in Vietnam. Two out of the seven women had their surgeries within a year of coming to the United States. Linh reported the relationship between immigrating to the United States and the cosmetic surgery, "A lot of people wanted to have the surgery in hopes of coming to America. They figured that it's cheaper to get it done in Vietnam, and it makes it easier to adjust to America. I was anticipating on coming to America and had mine done right before we left." Hoa, another participant, explained the need to blend in more by stating, "We've heard so much about American technology and wanted to catch up somehow. Surgery was one way." According to Linh, the cosmetic surgery helped her, and others like her, prepare for their initial adjustment in a new country. Tien-Hanh noted that some women do try to acculturate by having the surgery, "I do believe that some people do fix their noses very high and eyes very big to look Anglo. They do it so they can fit in more before they come to the United States. It's so unnatural. I wanted mine to fit my face."

For the five subjects who had their surgeries in the United States, their associations to the surgeries varied. Two out of those five women had the surgeries within a year of their citizenship. For Hang, the surgery was a kept promise made by her husband. Mau wanted the fat in her lids removed so she would not look so "sleepy." However, both women saw their surgery as one step further in resettling in America. Hang remarked on the timing of the surgery: "I had it done right before I got my citizenship, and it felt right. They go together. I was promised this before coming here so having it made it complete." The surgery and the citizenship were one package. Phuong altered her looks in order to feel more competitive in the

American market. Minh celebrated her business success with her surgery, which represented status for her. Huong-An wanted the surgery in Vietnam but eventually had it done in the United States.

Findings of Standards of Beauty

The standards of beauty reported by the subjects were labeled by them as Asian but specific features mentioned as ideal were western. All research participants immigrated to the United States after reaching fifteen years of age with 58% had their procedures in Vietnam. Major findings include the claim by the participants that the surgery was motivated by a pursuit of Asian standards of beauty, but with the specification by them typical of a hybrid mix of Western and Asian features.

The findings show that all the participants in this study had the ethno-altering cosmetic surgery because they wanted to look more beautiful. Vietnamese culture regards beauty as an important virtue in women. The four virtues for ideal feminine beauty are (a) to be a good housewife (b) to have a beautiful appearance (c) to speak well and softly (d) to be of good character (Kibria, 1993). Looking beautiful, for the participants in this study, is part of being a woman. To not want it is abnormal.

The main motivation for all fifteen subjects interviewed for this study was beauty as the primary reason for the cosmetic surgery. As Minh stated, "Women need to be beautiful. If their noses are flat and eyes are small, they should get it fixed. Women should be beautiful, and everyone wants beautiful things." The standards of beauty for all fifteen women were similar with regard to high noses and bigger eyes with double creases, not just one fold. Hoa described the need for bigger eyes: "The eyes are the windows to the soul. That's why we have to keep it open and big like the people on TV." Another participant, Khanh, explained her reasoning for the popular ethno-altering surgery in the Vietnamese community in the United States and in Vietnam: "We want to fix it to enhance our Vietnamese features and to make it look natural. We can't look natural if we were to look Caucasian," Huong-An noted, "You can't have it too high; then you look white. You can't look too white."

On the other hand, four out of the fifteen subjects thought that many other Vietnamese women change their looks to have more westernized features. Thu-Thuy commented on the need to look more Anglo: "Asian women having surgery to look more Anglo because they see the beauty of western features, and they also want that because there are so many magazines and beautiful American women on television." Accordingly, Huong Linh denied having her surgery to look more Anglo but attributed it to others:

"There are people who want to look more Anglo. That I have seen, but not for me. I can fix my own features, but I still can't change to look white. No matter how you fix it. The Americans know that you're Vietnamese. You can change all you want, but you'll still be Vietnamese, although some people do want to look more American and they change to look that way. I think you

can't change your ethnicity, but some people try to with surgery. I didn't. I just want to enhance what I have."

Nevertheless, all fifteen subjects admitted to wanting to look as if they were mixed with another race. The ideal result from surgery was for it to look natural without the Vietnamese features of a flat nose and small eyes. All fifteen subjects esteemed looking "mixed" with another race. Tien- Hanh stressed the ideal of the surgery was to look more mixed and not white, "We don't want to look white-just more mixed. We want to enhance our Vietnamese features. My friend actually looked Japanese when she had hers done. I just wanted to look like the way she had hers but to enhance my own features." Hoa summarized her friends' reactions after the surgery: "It looked so good that everyone thought I was mixed with Indian blood!"

All fifteen subjects ascribed successful and satisfying surgery to luck and the skills of their doctors. Mau described her experience of the surgery: "To get away from the surgery without harm and looking decent is luck. Some people are not that lucky. I recommend going to surgery in the morning when the doctors are alert." Hoa described her doctor as "unique with a keen eye for beauty. He was careful and knew what he was doing." Minh, who did not trust Vietnamese doctors, went to an American doctor because "they're more professional and less likely to mess up."

The subjects who regretted their surgeries talked about how they would rather have their natural features back because the original features matched better with their facial structures. Three out of fifteen subjects regretted their surgeries, as in Thu-Thuy's remark, "I had small eyes with drooping lids, but I'd rather have that now because they match my face more."

Findings of Family Relations

An unforeseen effect of the ethno-altering surgery is on the family and community. Family relations were affected by the surgeries for many participants, with Confucian values and implications being one source of conflict around the surgery. The majority of the participants (60%) spoke of shame and guilt for going against the Confucian principle of filial piety and dishonoring their family honor by altering their inherited facial features. Several women saw improvement in their family relations after the surgery. They believe that changing their facial features have improved their circumstances and fate.

The Vietnamese family usually consists of the nuclear family along with extended family members. The fifteen participants interviewed in this study all ranked their families as the most significant relationships in their lives. Nine out of fifteen participants reported that their surgeries affected their families. Five out of those nine participants had conflicts with their family members regarding the surgery. Mau talked about the surgery causing some friction between her and her mother:

"I didn't tell my parents. My husband knew about it. His family had their noses done. I didn't want my mother to know. She didn't need to know. When she found out, I felt guilty as if I took something away from her."

Thu-Thuy experienced the conflict with her husband and her shame for dismantling a filial piety, "My husband couldn't understand why I wanted to change what my parents have given me. I felt ashamed." Khanh reflected on how family was against her surgery for it went against their beliefs and culture:

"My family did not know about the surgery until afterwards. My mother was so upset. She said it was unnatural. They were something God had given to me and my parents have given to me. I shouldn't have changed it. Vietnamese custom dictated it. I wanted to fix my nose, too. But I went to a psychic who told me not to do it. He was upset at my eye surgery and said that I had tampered with fate. Fixing the nose would only make my bad luck worse."

Linh, however, had mixed results in her family. Her surgery cause some marital conflict with her husband as she described her interaction with her husband:

"He was against it [surgery]. I think it's because he didn't want other men to look at me. Men are selfish in that way. He told me not to change what my parents and God had given me. According to him, the surgery was going against fate and a need to compete with others. I disagreed. After I had the surgery, he liked the results. You see? Beauty is a way to keep the happiness in the family. Men look at pretty women all the time. It's a way to keep your husband."

On the other hand, Linh's relationship with her mother changed for the better:

"This surgery made me look different. I had my grandfather's eyes. They were very small, and my mother was not getting along with him. It was difficult for me because my eyes reminded her of my grandfather. After the surgery, my eyes were bigger and much different. They didn't look like my grandfather's eyes anymore. My mother didn't feel as cold to me as she did before the surgery."

Linh altered her eyes, and according to a common Vietnamese belief, her fate. Ironically, her relationship with her mother improved as a result of altering of the "fate" on her face. Another participant, Khanh, went to a Vietnamese psychic after her mother became furious that she had her eyes altered. Khanh related her experience:

"My mother was so upset that I had changed something that was natural, that God gave me, and my parents, too. Vietnamese custom stated to keep things natural. But I wanted to fix my nose also. So I went to a psychic who told me not to do it. He was also upset at my eye surgery and said I had destroyed"

Contrary to Khanh's experience, four of the fifteen participants had positive relationships with their family before and after the surgery. Three women felt closer to their families, some whose members had already had cosmetic surgeries. Lan-True shared her newfound closeness with her family members:

"I never knew how it would affect my relationships with my mother and my brother. I guess I always felt left out. They both had theirs fix years before I had mine. I didn't expect something like this to bring us together. Especially something you have to fix! [giggled]"

Huong-An grew closer to her husband, who kept his promise to pay for her cosmetic surgery. In Huong-An's words, "It was one of the few promises my husband kept, and it made all the difference."

Discussion

Ethno-altering cosmetic surgery may be one derivative of Vietnam's long struggle against colonization and acculturation. With its western origin and influence, ethno-altering cosmetic surgery seems popular with several generations of

Vietnamese-Americans. Vietnamese women have altered their faces in the United States and in Vietnam as it is cheaper and more discrete. Vietnamese doctors, trained overseas in the US and Europe, bring western technology and culture back to Vietnam (Cuong 2013; Brown 1970). The circulation of techniques, technology, and images has made cosmetic surgery a pinnacle of medical tourism and globalization. In fact, Vietnamese women are altering their faces not only in the United States but also in Vietnam. Vietnamese doctors, trained overseas in the United States and Europe, bring western technology and culture back to Vietnam. Although cosmetic surgery usually attracts women, some advertisements in Vietnamese magazines and newspapers also include men. The surgery advertisements focus mainly on raising nose bridges and cutting folds into the eyelids (Boras, 2007; Kaw, 1993; Wimalawansa, McKnight, and Bullocks, 2009). The advertised features are ethnically specific, yet the reasons for the increasing percentage of Vietnamese women, as well as a handful of men, choosing such surgery need further exploration. Although a certain number of Vietnamese men had these surgeries, this research focuses on women and their understanding of their cosmetic surgeries.

Wanting to look mixed supported the historical experience of Vietnamese people in the literature review. Vietnamese identity involves history, and Vietnamese history consists of continuous colonization and domination by foreign powers. The desire to look mixed is part of a Vietnamese identity, which incorporates the oppressive history of its people. In fact, this research illuminates the image of being "mixed" with another race was the look preferred by all participants. The participants perceive looking stereotypically Vietnamese as less attractive than looking mixed. According to the results, the ideal standard of beauty for these Vietnamese women consists of a blending of western features with a Vietnamese face.

Interestingly, the findings supported the notion that imported western images affected Vietnamese women's view of themselves and what they considered beautiful. The presence of media images on television and in magazines skews the standard of beauty toward to Anglo features. Some participants alluded to the effects of western images on the standards of beauty in Vietnamese women. They denied being influenced themselves by the western standard of beauty, but projected such standards onto others. Projection, a defense mechanism, refers to the process of attributing unwanted or bad feelings or thoughts of one's own to others.

The standards of beauty for all the participants reveal a desire for Anglo features. Eighty percent of the research participants claim that eyelid surgery changes their "sleepy eyes" to a more "awakened look," which gives them more control of their lives. The "sleepy eye," a term used to classify Asian eyes, condenses the images of passive, docile, slow-witted, and unemotional Asian women. Movies often depict these sleepy eyed beauties as objects of desire that are childlike, submissive, silent, and eager for sex (Hagedorn, 1994). The increasing number of facial surgeries on Asian women may result from a reaction against the association of negative stereotypes with their Asian features (Nguyen 2005). To combat some of the depression and isolation stemming from being and looking different, this study claims that plastic surgery has helped many Asian women look less stereotypically Asian.

Although this study focuses on some aspects of racism in the surgery, these experiences of acculturation are specific to the first generation Vietnamese-American women. They also bear witness to the war that ended the colonization of Vietnam and a long aftermath of resettlement and confusion. I would go one step further and argue that Vietnamese people have historically use acculturation as means of surviving the continuous presence of foreign domination. Vietnamese people use acculturation as a cultural coping mechanism. The findings also speak to the resettlement literature. A couple participants stress the need to remain Vietnamese by not wanting an American citizenship. The resettlement literature discusses how being a Vietnamese refugee means having to leave the ancestor's land and be separated from the family, the history, and culture. It comes with a feeling of shame, of not living up to one's Confucian obligation of continuing ancestral and familial traditions. A couple participants feel that obtaining a United States citizenship meant betraying their affiliation with Vietnam and their ancestors. On the other hand, a couple of the participants view the ethno-altering surgery as a symbolic of their acculturation. They altered their looks around the time that they acquired their United States citizenship. They viewed the citizenship and the surgery as one package, a package of acculturation and of their new lives in the United States.

Studies have found that Vietnamese women acculturate differently from Vietnamese men (DuongTran, 1996; Kibria, 1993; Matsuoka, 1993). The resettling in the United States provides new opportunities for both Vietnamese men and women. Vietnamese women, however, are often caught between their new access to resources in the United States and their traditional role in the family (Kibria, 1993). They struggle to balance the two conflicting demands of economic survival in the new country and maintenance of their familial expectations. Matsuoka (1993) notes that women are affected most by changes in family and community functioning because they lose their networks and social supports and feel estranged from the new social processes and expectations of roles and behaviors in the United States. One study found that feelings of isolation and depression are more prevalent in Vietnamese women than men (Matsuoka, 1993). Although depression is

common in this population, a strong desire and willingness to learn about and adapt to life in the United States can balance depression (Haines, 1989).

An unforeseen effect of the ethno-altering surgery is on the family and community. Many Asian families, especially Vietnamese families, live under the Confucian ideal of filial piety, which holds children eternally indebted to their parents (Ebrey, 1993; Jamieson, 1995). To cut, alter, or remove any part of the body is a crime against one's parents, as well as the heavens (Ebrey, 1993). Asian children learn from a very young age that their bodies are gifts from the heavens and their parents and ancestors; to intentionally change any part of the body means rejecting the family. Kaw (1993) contends that cosmetic surgery can further alienate people from family and their cultural identity.

Vietnamese women, who have had traditional roles in the families, find the new culture and economic opportunities confusing. They are often caught between taking advantage of more economic opportunities and keeping their traditional roles. Most Vietnamese women have been reared with Confucian ideology in which men dominate women (Kibria, 1993). A Vietnamese woman often marries young and takes on a subservient role in her in-laws' household. She has little domestic status until she produces a son. Traditional Vietnamese values dictate that a woman has three submissions: to obey her father, to obey her husband, and to obey her eldest son (Kibria, 1993). The need for Vietnamese women to work in the United States, which gives them more authority at home, causes problems for the family. Many husbands cannot understand why their wives are not living up to traditional expectations. On the other hand, the wives struggle with adapting to their new freedom while trying to maintain their traditional role at home (Kibria, 1993). One important virtue of an ideal Vietnamese woman is being a good housewife, which means partially means being able to keep the family together. Some of the participants believed that having the surgery help keep the family together. Looking beautiful would prevent the husband from running off with another woman. In this respect, the surgery was working with the Confucian ideal of the perfect woman.

Many Asian families, especially Vietnamese families, live under the Confucian ideal of filial piety, which holds children eternally indebted to their parents. To cut, alter, or remove any part of the body is a crime against one's parents, as well as the heavens. Findings for this study support other research on Vietnamese cultural identity (DuongTran 1996; Kibria 1993; Matsuoka, 1993; Nguyen 2005). The distinctive features of family life, particularly its cooperative and collective manifestations, remain a source of cultural pride and self-esteem. Some participants spoke of shame and guilt for going against the Confucian principle of filial piety. By altering their facial features, these participants had violated what their ancestors and the heavens gave them. Their regrets and sadness support past research on Asian women and plastic surgery, in which depression was common in many Asian women after having the plastic surgery (Kaw, 1993). Part of the depression came from the break in family relationships. The findings spoke to change in family relations caused by the participants' surgeries, some for the worse, and some for the better. Some participants experienced better relationships with their families as a result of the ethno-altering surgery. Although they still operate within Confucian context, the surgeries had helped family relations. The participants and their family members believed that having the ethno-altering surgery changed their fate, both the women's and their families' fates. The participants whose family relations were poor prior to the surgery experienced improvement in the relationships after undergoing the surgery. A change of fate was the explanation.

Conclusion

In summary, all participants in the study had ethno-altering cosmetic surgery because they wanted to look more beautiful, in which beauty is equated with success. The findings support the notion that imported western images affected Vietnamese women's view of themselves and what they considered beautiful. The presence of media images on television and in magazines skews the standard of beauty towards Anglo features. The participants altered their looks in order to change the stereotypical Vietnamese features of a flat nose and small "sleepy eyes" to more western features of a high nose bridge and the "awakened look." Despite wanting Anglo features, the participants did not want to look completely Caucasian but preferred the image of being "mixed" with another race, a hybridity of racial features. Moreover, having surgery also symbolizes status, which also has a socioeconomic impact. Nevertheless, altering one's look can affect family relations. Some families criticized altering inherited features as an insult to their family honor and the natural balance of face and body, while others saw improvement in familial relations after the surgery. Regardless of the outcome, the Vietnamese women in this study initially had ethno-altering cosmetic surgery to feel better about themselves and to attract positive interactions with others. With its western origin and influence, ethno altering cosmetic surgery seems popular with several generations of Vietnamese-Americans. Some people would go as far as ethno-altering cosmetic surgery to make assimilation easier.

Many Vietnamese people, particularly women, have adopted to a western standard of beauty. The \$17 billion cosmetic surgery industry plays an active role in reproducing these cultural ideals and influences. Some Vietnamese women, as with many other Asian women, seek to acquire the ideal Western images under the knife of cosmetic surgery.

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An Empirical Study for Investigation of the Effects of Strategic Alliances in the Civil Aviation Sector: THY (Turkish Airlines) Case

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Abstract

Nowadays companies have to be reorganized in order to adopt changing environmental conditions and try to take advantage of opportunities arises while avoiding the emerging threats. One of the aforementioned reorganization effort is the strategic alliances between firms. The low rate of full capacity, high costs and high tax rates pushed airline companies for forging partnerships and as a result of this huge strategic alliances occurred as like Star Alliance, One World and SkyTeam. These partnerships has built code sharing, frequent flier programme and similar collaborations helped the existing capacity usage to the maximum level. So that this provided crucial cost advantages to the companies. In this paper it is aimed to find out whether Turkish Airlines participation to the Star Alliance with signing engagement letter in 2006 has made structural change in firms profitability and within this frame the current ratio and asset turnover rate of Turkish Airlines between 1992-2013 is modelled on return on equity. Performed strategic alliance being examined by Chow test methodology and it is found that this alliance has resulted a structural change on firm's return on equity.

Keywords: Civil Aviation, Airline Alliances, Profitability, Chow Test

Introduction

Technological improvements are one of the most important element which shapes today's modern life. As a result of these improvements new products, jobs and sectors emerged. Aviation sector is the one may be the most important one among others in this modern life where time, process, and safety became important. World Civil Aviation started with 12 seconds flight which is made by Wright brothers in 1903 is now reached three billion passengers, 25,000 aircraft and became massive sector as its economic activity accounts for %3, 5 of the world GNP (IATA, 2013).

Current technological improvements, shifting of competition from national to international level with globalisation, removal of economical boundaries in the worldwide, liberalisation, increasing and differentiating the customer demands have been effecting the businesses from different aspects. Companies now have to be reorganized in order to adapt changing environmental conditions and try to take advantage of opportunities arises while avoiding the emerging threats. One of the aforementioned reorganization effort is the strategic alliances between firms. Strategic Alliance can be described as the collaboration of the two or more companies for a certain aim (in order to decrease cost, get free access to the market etc.) exchanging and sharing resources, using and/or improving products, services or technologies mutually.

Emergence of the strategic alliance dates back to the late 1980's. The low rate of aircraft occupancy, high costs and high tax rates pushed airline companies for forging partnerships and as a result of this huge strategic alliances occurred as like Star Alliance, One World and SkyTeam. These partnerships has built code sharing, frequent flyer programme and similar collaborations helped the existing capacity usage to the maximum level. So that this provided crucial cost advantages to

the companies. In this context we can say that the purpose of strategic alliances in aviation industry is to increase competitiveness of the member firms and simultaneously provide higher yields to the members (Rajasekar & Fouts, 2009: 94). This paper divided into six parts. In the second part information is given in theoretical frame, in the third part aviation sector's improvement in Turkey and World is given, in the fourth part literature review is conducted, in the fifth part methodology and analysis results are explained. In the sixth and the last part conclusion and suggestions are given and general evaluation is made.

Conceptual Framework

With liberalisation of economies world nearly became a small village, nevertheless particularly since 1990 rising of technological improvements with head spinning speed resulted globalisation of firms and give them a chance to make operation all over the world but both international and economic or political relations influenced the trade agreements and quotes naturally so that making operation in foreign countries became more difficult. In this point strategic alliances help firms, provide mutual trade advantages and play critical role in expanding their operations to the different countries and continents.

Strategic airline alliance can be described as: the long term partnership of two or more firms for specific and common purpose such as decreasing overall costs, providing market access etc. (Iatrou & Alamdari, 2005:2). Partners in strategic alliance may assign product, distribution channel, production capacity, Project funding, knowledge, expertise, basic material or intellectual property. Another definition of strategic alliance is the partnership of two or more firms aiming to create synergy by forging alliance through which they hope, they will have more benefit than their individual effort while keeping their independence. Generally slight difference between alliance and acquisition or merger lies right here. In acquisition one firm purchase the other and purchased firm loses its independence and becomes one of the brand of parent company. For example: giant technology firm "Apple" bought famous headphone brand "Beats" by paying 3.2 billion dollars at the beginning of 2014. In this situation, Beats will be under Apples management thereafter. Similarly mergers in the same way as well. Merger is building wholly new brand by two or more firms while losing their previous forms. For example; in the mid 2000's in Turkey, phone operator brands "Aycell" and "Aria" merged and created the new brand which is called "Avea". In this situation Aycell and Aria are no longer exist but now they have new combined brand "Avea". In either situations firms lost their their independence and involved in different form of business. In contrast in strategic airline alliances firms do not lose their independence.

Even though the strategic alliances provide great advantages to the firms, according to Doorley's (1993) study % 60 of alliances splitted within 4 years or less. Similarly Spark's (1999) emphasize on his study % 61 of alliances ended unsuccessfully or alliance performed below expectations. In spite of these datas, between 1990-2000 in where strategic alliances became common, the value of strategic alliances increased from 153 billion dollars to 1 quadrillion dollar (OECD, 2011).

Reasons of Strategic Alliances in Aviation Sector

Most of the airline companies want to serve beyond their current markets and extent their networks. However limitations and restrictions to reach foreign markets pushed companies to forge strategic alliances (Iatrou & Alamdari, 2005:3). Four strategic factor plays important role in creation of alliance (Gudmundsson & Rhoades, 2001: 210). Among these first and traditionally most popular one is the opportunity to enter into restricted international markets. Through alliances firms can operate in international markets without being challenged by limitations and restrictions. The second factor is the desire of creating flawless international network. According to previous researches, customers prefer the airline which has bigger network in comparison to others. Because they can reduce the travel duration, increase the number of online links, and join better frequent flyer programme by choosing bigger networked firm (Tretheway & Oum, 1993). Third factor is to reduce costs. Cost reduction can be done by joint activities (joint purchase, ground handling etc.). In other words they can utilize from economies of scale through shared flight, fuel or engineering services (Amoah & Debrah, 2011: 42). Fourth and the last factor is the desire of the firms to keep their existence in the regions where their individual operations are unprofitable (Lynch et al., 1998).

Type of Strategic Alliances in Aviation Industry

Strategic alliances have different types as like, technology transfer and improvement, joint research and development effort, licencing, franchising, marketing agreements and joint ventures (Lee, Cho, Cheong & Kim, 2013: 30). As airline companies come along because of different factors, the alliance types are diversified too. Increasing the income and customer benefits and reducing costs lie behind the appearance of different alliance types. Within the alliance types in Table 1 most common airline alliances are code sharing, blockspace and franchising and/or feeding agreements while the least commons are sharing or adopting computer reservation systems and management contracts (Gudmundsson & Rhoades, 2001).

Table 1. Types and Definations of Airline Alliances

Type	Defination
Code Share	One carrier offers service under another carriers' flight designator
BlockSpace	One carrier allocates to another seat to sell on its flight
Revenue Sharing	Two or more carrier share revenues generated by joint activity
Wet Lease	One carrier rents the aircraft/personel of another
Franchising	One carrier rents the brand name of another fort he purpose of offering flight service but supplies its own aircraft/staff
Computer Reservation System	One carrier shares and /or adopts internal reservation system of another
Insurance Parts/Pooling	Two or more carriers agree to joint purchase
Joint Service	Two carriers offer combined flight service
Management Contracts	One carrier contracts with another carrier to manage some aspect of its operations
Baggage Handling/Maintenace/facilities Sharing	One carrier contracts with another to provide services/personnel/facilities at specified sites
Joint Marketing	Two or more carriers combine efforts to market joint services/activities
Equity Swap/Governance	Two or more carriers swap stock and/or create joint governance structure

Source: (Gudmundsson and Rhoades, 2001:210)

3. General Overview of Civil Aviation Sector

International air transportation has grown with two digit numbers until petroleum crise in 1973. Technical improvements were the key factors fort his growth. These improvements while providing high speed, bigger dimension and reduced costs at the same time caused less flight prices naturally.

Rise of households real income and increase in the time that they are willingness to spend for holiday also increased the demand on air transportation. Aviation sector is the most critical factor in globalised economy of the world. This year aviation industry celebrating 100. Anniversary of commercial aviation (Aeronautics) and aviation industry passed 3 billion passengers for the first time in 2013 (IATA, 2013). International organizations and giant aircraft producers expect that existance growth will continue until 2030's. Accordingly in world civil aviation in 1990, 1.2 billion passenger and in 2010, 2.7 billion passenger carried and it is expected that in 2030 this number will rise up to 5.9 billion passenger. Also the number of aircraft was 17.307 in 1990 while 23.844 in 2010 and is expected to reach 45.273 in 2030. Sector accomadated (hired) 21 million and 56, 6 million people in 1990 and 2010 respectively while it is predicted to reach 82, 2 million in 2030 (ATAG, 2012: 41). The first modern strategic alliance is made between Florida Air and British Island in 1986 (Oum and Yu, 1998). However strategic alliances became widespread in mid 1990's. Three biggest airline alliances are Star alliance, One world and Skyteam. These alliances are still operating and found in 1997, 1999 and 2000. Comperative information about these airline alliances can be seen in Table 2.

Table 2. Global Airline Alliances

	Star Alliance	oneworld	SkyTeam
Date of Establishment	1997	1999	2000

Number of Member Airlines	26	15	20
Number of Yearly Passenger	637.62 m	506, 98 m	588 m
Destination Countries	193	151	178
Fleet Size	4.338	3.324	4.467
Number of Daily Flight	18.000	14.011	15.723
Number of Employee	439.232	391.968	459.781
Headquarters	Frankfurt, Germany	New York, USA	Amsterdam, Netherlands

Source: Table Created by collecting datas from official websites of Alliances (22.06.2014)

Although the first aviation efforts began in 1912 in Turkey, institutionalization could be achieved in 1925 by establishment of "Turkish Aeronautical Association". First civil air transportation was initiated by establishment of "State Airline Administration" which then transformed so called Turkish Airlines. In 1933 and in 1954 "General Directorate of State Airports Authority" and "General Directorate of Civil Aviation" was established respectively due to the response to the need of regulatory and inspectory authorities in the sector through which important steps taken for the procurement of infrastructure, facilities and equipments. Civil aviation sector which developed by the announcement of civil aviation law in 1983 was able to increase service quality, and reliability through enhanced airports. Turkey was the side of "International Civil Aviation Agreement-Chicago Contract" in 1945 which is the root of international civil aviation at the same time Turkey was one of the founder members of "International Civil Aviation Organization (ICAO)". Moreover Turkey Became founder member of "European Civil Aviation Conference (ECAC)".

Civil aviation activities which are milestones of economic and social developments of countries, despite the wars and economic crises etc have shown increasing trend around %4-%5 annual growth on average in 1980's. After 1990s new companies entered into market and that created intense competition among rivals in this context in 2003 liberalisation decision was the breakthrough for Turkish civil aviation sector. According to the datas of civil aviation authorities, by the end of 2012 there were 15 airline companies (including 3 cargo), with 370 aircraft and 55 air taxi 44 general aviation, 17 baloon and 39 agricultural spraying firms with 786 air vehicle exist in Turkey. Furthermore the number of bilateral air transportation agreements which allows Turkey for international operations, reached 143 from 122 after the announcement of 24 new agreements in 2012. With these agreements Turkey has been the fastest developed country in terms of number of flight network. After adopting regional aviation policy in 2003 sector has shown rapid growth. In this frame Turkey's datas related with aircraft, passenger and Cargo traffic are given in Table 3.

Table 3. Statistics related with Aircraft, passenger and Cargo traffic of Turkey (2002-2013)												
	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013Unascertained
Passenger traffic(direct transfer included)	33.783.892	34.443.655	45.057.371	56.119.472	62.271.876	70.715.263	79.887.380	86.001.343	103.536.513	118.292.000	131.029.516	150.186.231
Passenger Traffic	33.783.892	34.443.655	45.057.371	55.572.426	61.655.659	70.296.532	79.438.289	85.508.508	102.800.392	117.620.469	130.351.620	149.531.729
- Domestic	8.729.279	9.147.439	14.460.864	20.529.469	28.774.857	31.949.341	35.832.776	41.226.959	50.575.426	58.258.324	64.721.316	76.138.315
- International	25.054.613	25.296.216	30.596.507	35.042.957	32.880.802	38.347.191	43.605.513	44.281.549	52.224.966	59.362.145	65.630.304	73.393.414
Direct Transfer Passenger				547.046	616.217	418.731	449.091	492.835	736.121	671.531	677.896	654.502
All Flights(included overflight)	532.531	529.205	640.549	757.983	852.175	935.567	1.010.937	1.066.053	1.213.125	1.335.185	1.376.486	1.503.015
Flight Traffic	376.579	374.987	449.493	551.980	627.401	688.468	741.765	788.469	919.411	1.042.369	1.093.047	1.221.346
- Domestic	157.953	156.582	196.207	265.113	341.262	365.177	385.764	419.422	497.862	579.488	600.818	680.525
- International	218.626	218.405	253.286	286.867	286.139	323.291	356.001	369.047	421.549	462.881	492.229	540.821
Overflight Flight Traffic	155.952	154.218	191.056	206.003	224.774	247.099	269.172	277.584	293.714	292.816	283.439	281.669
Cargo Traffic(Tonnes) (Cargo+Post + Baggage)	896.865	964.080	1.164.349	1.304.241	1.360.550	1.546.184	1.644.014	1.726.345	2.021.076	2.249.473	2.249.133	2.574.893
- Domestic	181.262	188.979	262.790	324.597	389.206	414.294	424.555	484.833	554.710	617.835	633.076	737.843
- International	715.603	775.101	901.559	979.644	971.344	1.131.890	1.219.459	1.241.512	1.466.366	1.631.639	1.616.057	1.837.050

In the light of these data passenger traffic (including direct transfer) increased by %344, 55 from 2002 to 2013 and considering the same period, increase in domestic passenger traffic was %772, 22 while international passenger traffic was %192, 93. Flight traffic in domestic flights rose by %330, 84 while flight traffic in international flights rose by %147, 37 between 2002-2013 period the rise in Cargo traffic in the same period was %187, 10.

Airline companies have turned towards strategic alliances and bilateral agreements in order to reduce costs and improve themselves in industrial aspect. In this frame Turkish Airlines first alliance trial was forging its frequent flyer programme with qualifyer group in the lead of Swiss Air in 1988 but Turkish Airlines left the alliance as it did not make expected outcomes. The second alliance trial of Turkish Airlines was the Star Alliance membership in the lead of Lufthansa of which Turkish Airlines became full member by joining to alliance on 1 April 2008. Star Alliance member Turkish Airlines now have flights to 243 destination in 105 countries with 202 international and 41 domestic destination. With this network Turkish Airlines is on the fourth place among the list of airlines which have the biggest network in the world. According to Skytrax's rewards in 2013 Turkish airlines chosen the best airline in Europe third times in a row and ninth best in entire world. (www.staralliance.com/en/about/airlines/turkish_airlines/ access: 20.05.2014).

Literature Review

There are number of academic studies exist which examine the effect of strategic alliances in different sectors. Within those studies (Rothaermel, 2001; Gottinger & Umali, 2008) in medical sector, (Clement et al., 1997) in health sector, (Ngugi vd,

2012) in banking sector, Bae & Gargiulo (2004) in telecommunication sector and (Isoraite, 2009) in computer and software sector can be given as example among many others

In Oum and Zhang (2001)'s study, alliances which are created by 22 international airline companies between 1986 and 1995 are evaluated with panel data methodology and it is found that issues such as productivity, profitability and price are all dependent on the size of alliance that they are involved. In the study, it is found that the large sized alliances have significant and positive effect on firms profitability, productivity and price while it is determined that small sized alliances have no significant effect on aforementioned factors.

According to the study of Morrish and Hamilton in 2002, it is observed that participation of airline firms in strategic alliance has made positive effect on productivity and occupancy ratio while there is no increase found on firms profitability.

Oum i.e. (2004) examined the effect of strategic alliances on firm performance through the productivity and profitability aspect with panel data methodology. In analyze, 10 years of financial and operational datas of the 22 international airline companies are used and after examination of these datas it is found that although the alliances increased the productivity of firms, there is no significant and positive effect found on firms profitability.

latrou & Alamdari (2005) performed questionnaire to 28 airline firms in order to determine the effect of strategic alliances on firm performance. Each participant answered the survey and determined that strategic alliance made increase on income, occupancy rate, an passenger traffic.

Fillon & Colonques (2007) found that strategic alliances haven't created positive effect on firms profitability through two-phased game theory methodology.

O'Neal i.e (2007) tried to measure the effect of Delta airways participation to Skyteam through optimization technique. After Examination it is found that this alliance created 50 million dollars increase in the operational income of Delta Airways.

Perezgonzalez & Lin (2010) analyzed the effects of alliances in avioation sector on firms net profitability. In this study, 15 airline firms' 11 years of financial datas are examined by non-parametric statistical tests. According to the analyze result there is no increase found in firms short term net profitability after joining to alliance. Similar study has been conducted by Perezgonzalez (2011), this time 21 airlines firms' 11 years of financial and operational datas are being examined and again it is found that strategic alliances in aviation sector, haven't created increase on firms profitability.

Methodology

Purpose

Civil aviation sector is the one of the most dynamic sector in the world. Increase in the quality and quantity of competition in todays world, removal of economic boundries in the worldwide, and liberalisation of eonomies and such other factors have been influencing companies. In order to take a stand against these macro factors, companies went into long term strategic alliances under the name of external growth. Concordantly, Turkish Airlines and Star Alliance signed engagement letter on 9 December 2006 for the purpose of joining to alliance. In this work it is aimed to find out whether europes fastest growing airline which is so called Turkish Airlines participation to Star Alliance has made any structural change on firms profitability or not.

Datas

Within the scope of analyze, datas collected through the financial statements and annual reports of Turkish Airlines between 1993-2013 period. Aforesaid statements and reports collected from Turkish Airlines official website and requested and received by post from Istanbul Stock Exchange. In the study dependent variable is return on equity (ROE= Net Profit/Equity) and independent variables are current ratio (CR= Current Asset/ Short term Liabilities) and Asset Turnover Ratio (AT= Net Sales/Total assets). Excel 2010 and EVIEWS8 SV programmes are used in calculations.

Method

There might be a structural change found within the relationship between dependent and independent variables when a regression model used which includes time series. It can be understood from structural change that parameter values aren't remaining constant during the period in the model. Structural change can be emerged from external factors such as

petroleum embargos of OPEC in 1973 and 1979, gulf war in 1990-91 or radical policy change from fixed exchange rate system to flexible exchange rate system in 1973 (Gujarati, 2004: 273). In other words coefficients in the model can be different before and after the vital macroeconomic changes. In such situations the change in coefficients of regression is described as a structural break (Verbeek, 2008: 66). In the application of time series subsample typically described based on specific time. Chow test can be used in finding whether there is any significant statistical change on data series around a certain time. In chow test sample divided into two or more groups, model is estimated separately for each period and then model estimated for entire period by bringing datas together. Accordingly three possible regression equation can be shown as follows.

$$\text{Sub Period 1} \quad Y_t = \lambda_1 + \lambda_2 X_t + \lambda_3 X_t + u_{1t} \quad (1)$$

$$\text{Sub Period 2} \quad Y_t = \gamma_1 + \gamma_2 X_t + \gamma_3 X_t + u_{2t} \quad (2)$$

$$\text{Entire Period} \quad Y_t = \alpha_1 + \alpha_2 X_t + \alpha_3 X_t + u_t \quad (3)$$

Regression(3) assumes coefficient of slope remains same and constant during the period in which case there is no structural change. Consequently $\alpha_1 = \lambda_1 = \gamma_1$, $\alpha_2 = \lambda_2 = \gamma_2$ and $\alpha_3 = \lambda_3 = \gamma_3$

Assumptions of this test are as follows.

1-) $u_{1t} \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$ ve $u_{2t} \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$. Namely regressions in subperiod's error terms distributes constantly with the same variance.

2-) Error terms u_{1t} and u_{2t} distribute independently (Gujarati, 2004: 274-276).

F test can be calculated as follows in order to decide whether structural change exist or not after assumptions provided.

$$F = \frac{(RSS_R - RSS_{UR}) / k}{(RSS_{UR}) / (n_1 + n_2 - 2k)} \sim F_{[k, (n_1 + n_2 - 2k)]}$$

Here: RSSR represents residual sum of squares of restricted model, RSSUR represents residual sum of squares of unrestricted model, k represents number of parameters and n represents number of observation. While RSSR is the residual sum of squares of regression (3), RSSUR is the residual sum of squares of regression 1 and regression 2. Nominately $RSSUR = RSS1 + RSS2$. Chow tests null hypothesis claims no structural change (H_0) and alternative hypothesis (H_1) claims the existance of structural change. If $F > F_{[k, (n_1 + n_2 - 2k)]}$ H_1 existance of structural change but if $F < F_{[k, (n_1 + n_2 - 2k)]}$ H_0 or no structural change will be accepted (Güriş et al., 2011: 420).

Analyse and Findings

Return on equity, current ratio, and asset turnover rate are shown in Appendix 1 between 1993-2013. As it is mentioned before, alliance talks between Turkish Airlines and Star Alliance initiated in 2006. Average return on equity of Turkish Airlines between 1993-2005 period is -%11, 59 while this average increased to %14, 94 between 2006-2013. Consequently it is obviously seen that return on equity of Turkish Airlines rose after joining to alliance.

In analyse where current ratio and asset turnover rate modelled on return on equity, estimation made considering the effect of Turkish Airlines participation to Star Alliance. Strategic Alliances may change the structure of relationship among variables. Structural change will cause a break on regression line. Because of this break, if model is estimated without considering the break, the functional shape of the model will be determined inaccurate and thereby there will be description mistake made. As a result of strategic alliance in the model, whether structural change exist or not can be examined with the Chow test (Sarıtaş and Uyar, 2012:80). 2006 is the year in which Turkish Airlines and Star Alliance started negotiations and signed engagement letter, thereby it is considered the refraction period in this research. In this frame calculated regressions for sub and entire periods are described in Table 4.

Table 4. Calculated regression model considering sub and entire periods

Dependent Variables: ROE	Coefficient	Standard Deviation	t- statistics	p-value
1993-2005 (T = 13)				
(Constant)	-0, 3418	0, 1312	-2, 6052	0, 0263*
CR	0, 9978	0, 1275	7, 8201	0, 0000*
AT	-0, 5200	0, 0827	-6, 2880	0, 0000*
$R^2 = 0,8687$				
$RSS_1 = 0,2621$				
D-W statistic = 1, 8217				
2006-2013 (T = 8)				
(Constant)	-0, 0362	0, 6019	-0, 0602	0, 9543
CR	0, 1012	0, 1066	0, 9493	0, 3860
AT	0, 0966	0, 7918	0, 1221	0, 9075
$R^2 = 0, 1874$				
$RSS_2 = 0,0707$				
D-W statistic = 2, 0029				
1993-2013 (T = 21)				
(Constant)	-0, 1733	0, 1447	-1, 1969	0, 2469
CR	0, 5759	0, 1240	4, 6428	0, 0002*
AT	-0.3521	0, 0820	-4, 2936	0, 0004*
$R^2 = 0, 6213$				
RSSR = 0, 9219				
D-W Statistic = 1, 1732				

* sign represents the statistics significance level is significant at %5

The model including entire period can be written as like this according to regression analysis result;

$$ROE = -0,1733 + 0,5759(CR) - 0,3521(AT)$$

Emergence of $R^2 = 0, 6213$ in analysis indicated that approximately %62, 1 of the change on dependent variable – Return on Equity- can be explained by the change on independent variables - Current Ratio and Asset Turnover Rate-. Coefficient concerning current ratio is 0, 5759. So that there is a significant and positive relationship exist between current ratio and return on equity. Hereunder a unit change on current ratio results 0, 5759 unit change on return on equity. Coefficient concerning asset turnover rate is -0, 3521. So that there is a significant and negative relationship exist between asset turnover rate and return on equity. Hereunder a unit change on asset turnover rate results -0, 3521 unit change on return on equity. Chow test can be applied if variances are equal and under the assumption of series parts of error terms are

normally distributed around zero average and independent from each other. Considering sub-periods the equality of variances is tested with F test. To address this established hypothesis are as follows:

$$H_0 = \sigma_1^2 = \sigma_2^2$$

$$H_1 = \sigma_1^2 \neq \sigma_2^2$$

$$F = \frac{\sigma_1^2}{\sigma_2^2}$$

In this situation F statistic is calculated as;

$$\sigma_1^2 = \frac{RSS_1}{n_1 - k} = \frac{0,2621}{13 - 3} = 0,02621$$

$$\sigma_2^2 = \frac{RSS_2}{n_2 - k} = \frac{0,0707}{8 - 3} = 0,0141$$

As

$$F = \frac{\sigma_1^2}{\sigma_2^2} = \frac{0,02621}{0,0141} = 1,8588$$

F Table value is found 4.74 according to 10 and 5 degree to freedom. Hereunder us $F < F_{table}$ H_0 hypothesis is acceptable. Nominately as calculated regressions variances of sub-periods accepted equal, chow test is applicable. The other prerequisite of Chow test is the assumption of error terms normal distribution. In this context according to the calculations made considering sub-periods in the frame of J-B test statistics, we can say that error terms are normally distributed. As J-B test statistics p value = 0, 5743 > $\alpha = 0, 05$ before breaking period, H_0 hypothesis is acceptable which states errors regarding the model are normally distributed. Moreover as J-B test statistics p value = 0, 8355 > $\alpha = 0, 05$ after breaking period H_0 hypothesis is acceptable which states errors regarding the model are normally distributed. Other prerequisite for the chow test is independent dispersion of error terms. In order to ensure this, Breusch-Godfrey LM test is made for each sub-period and it is found that error terms are distributed independently. Accordingly as LM statistics p value = 0, 8880 > $\alpha = 0, 05$ before breaking period, H_0 hypothesis is acceptable which states that errors are distributed independently. Likewise as LM statistics p value = 0, 97700 > $\alpha = 0, 05$ after breaking period, H_0 hypothesis is acceptable which states that errors are distributed independently. After providing aforesaid prerequisites, chow test can be applied. Hereunder chow test results are shown in table 5 which scopes the period between 1993-2013 and consider 2006 as a breaking point.

Table 5: Chow test Results

Chow test: 2006

Basic Hypothesis: no structural change in 2006

Sample Period: 1993-2013

F-statistic = 8, 8474

Prob. F(3, 15) = 0, 0013

According to the result of examined model as " $0, 05 > \text{Prob. F}(3, 15)$ " basic hypothesis is refused. According to this preliminary protocol signed in 2006, Turkish Airlines participation to Star Alliance caused structural change. Additionally in illustration 1 structural break showed with respect to CUSUM-SQ test.

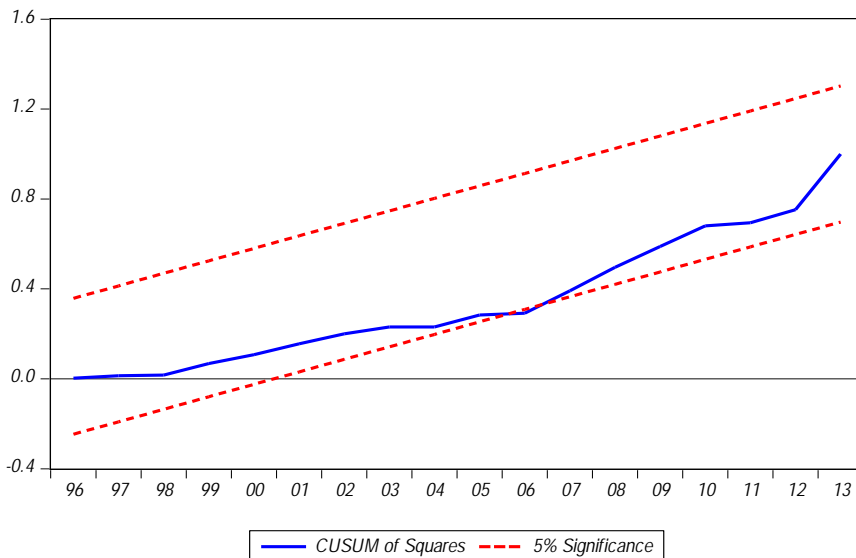


illustration 1. CUSUM-SQ Test graphic

Conclusion and Suggestions

Civil aviation sector which is one of the fundamental dynamics of modern life and at the same time is the one of the basic indicator of economic and social development of countries, has been adversely influenced by wars, economic crisis, high oil prices, globalisation of competition and such other macro factors. Airline firms head towards strategic alliances and cooperations in order to reduce costs and improve themselves in industrial content. Furthermore via alliances firms can operate in international markets without being challenged laws and restrictions and this provide firms to create synergy. Turkish Airlines signed strategic alliance contract with Star Alliance because of similar reasons. Chow test was applied with the idea that it may cause a structural break in econometric model in order to measure the effect of Turkish Airlines participation to Star Alliance with pre-protocol signed in 2006. To adress this in this study current ratio and asset turnover rate modelled on return on equity and datas used which are belong to 1993-2013 period. After the application of Chow test, it is found that this alliance caused structural change in the model. In other words this influenced return on equity of Turkish Airlines positively. Because while average return on equity of Turkish Airlines was -%11, 59 between 1993-2005, this rate went up to %14, 94 on average between the period of 2006-2013. Consequently we can say that Turkish Airlines return on equity is increased by joining to Star Alliance.

Chow test provide information about whether there is a break in the model or not but it doesn't provide information about the source of break whether from constant term or coefficient. Thus this can be the research topic of future scientific articles. The other suggestion is, beside financial ratios, operational datas such as occupancy rate, number of passenger carried etc. can be added to the model so that factors effecting return on equity can be viewed through different perspectives.

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Appendix 1. Datas used in Analyse

Years	ROE	CR	AT
1993	-0,334	0,560	0,738
1994	-0,264	0,565	1,111
1995	0,019	0,947	1,333
1996	0,126	1,194	1,572
1997	0,051	1,223	1,799
1998	0,055	1,229	1,831
1999	-1,060	0,592	1,942
2000	-0,833	0,790	2,598
2001	0,049	1,865	2,803
2002	0,274	1,885	2,214
2003	0,243	1,197	0,848
2004	0,056	0,930	0,948
2005	0,111	0,689	0,840
2006	0,115	0,798	0,829
2007	0,153	1,305	0,919
2008	0,380	1,599	0,778
2009	0,162	1,436	0,821
2010	0,076	1,374	0,791
2011	0,004	1,031	0,720
2012	0,210	0,860	0,794
2013	0,098	0,201	0,739

The Spatial Evolution of Skënderbegas Commune, Albania

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Abstract

The article presents an accurate scientific assessment of the physic-geographical, historical, socio economic and cultural assessment of Skënderbegas commune, Albania. The main purpose of this paper is to present these components in different time stages, by noting new qualitative elements. For the composition of this article we are based on a long observation and research work, across the geographical area of this commune, as well in terms of natural, demographic, cultural and economic aspect. An important role has had the numerous surveys have been conducted with the local residents, as well the use of an extensive literature related to subject of study. At first, it is provided a general assessment of the geographical position, landscape, geological construction, climate, hydrography, soils and vegetation. Further, it is made an analysis of the population of all the villages of the commune in question, highlighting the different rhythms the population from 1926 to 2013, and providing explanations for the decline in number of the reside each village. To demonstrate this performance, a chart is compiled, and respective analysis is done. An important place occupies the evaluation of patriotic and intellectual figures of this commune, their contribution to independence and freedom. Further it is made an assessment of the economy and lifestyle of these inhabitants, pointing out the problems that they have. At the end of the article are given the general conclusions and recommendations.

Key words: evolution, population, nature, economy, lifestyle

Introduction

The commune is located in the south district of Gramsh, in the central part of Albania. The total area of the commune is 80.1 km². Skenderbegas commune includes 13 villages which are: Skëndebebas, Bletëz, Ermenj, Fushëz, Harunas, Kotka, Kullollas, Lemnushë, Nartë, Siman, Shëmbërdhenj, Vidhan and Zenelas. It is situated on this geographical coordinates: northern latitude is 40°43'15" and 40°48'52" while eastern longitude is 20°12'19" and 20°17' 22". From archaeological evidence it results that in some villages of this commune, there have been early settlements, such as in Vidhan and Skenderbegas villages, where their tracks date the VII-VI century BC. The center of the commune is located 17 km from the city of Gramsh and 50 km from Çorovoda city.

According to local inhabitants the denomination of several villages result as follows: The name Skënderbegas is linked to the legend of passage of the "national hero Skanderbeg" with his army during the fifteenth century. The name of Bletëz relates with the presence of many bees in that village. The name of Shëmbërdhenji, according to the renowned archaeologist Neritan Ceka (Tirana), comes from St. Mbërdhirët, identified with 40 Saints, who died wrapped in a frozen lake of Sebasties (Ceka N). The name of Nartë is known even in other territories of the country. Referring to Siman name, it was formerly called Sqimar, even now it is still used by the elderly with that name. Similar denomination is found in Indonesia, Iran, Pakistan and Mali.

Method

During the drafting of this article, we are based on the method of direct observation in the geographical area of this commune, studying closely; its nature, geological construction, landscape, climatic conditions, soils and vegetation. Also an important attention is occupied by the research methods based on the documentary data of the past, as well as the current ones. To assess as more accurately the time stages of development for this municipality, many questionnaires have been compiled with the inhabitants of these villages, where

many important conclusions have been drawn. The basic resource materials are obtained from the archives of this municipality, the registrar's office, the district's archive, various editions such as; The monographic "The nature and people in Tomorrica province ", "Tomorri in front of us" etc.

Results

The geological construction of the territory is simple. The geological structures are Tomorricë-Devolli syncline (western side) with Paleogene flysch rocks) (Middle Oligocene). In Tomorrica's syncline there is a decrease, mainly, 10-150, whereas in Devolli's one up to 600. In southeast the flysches have tectonic contact with the covering structure of Koshnica Mountain. The geological construction is spoken more specifically in the monograph "The Natural Heritage of Tomorrica", which is written by Lireza. Q and Sala. S. The sandstone cliffs are widely used for the building and covering of the houses, walls, yard, etc, while clay-alevrolite rocks are used for handicraft production (a few) of tiling and bricks. A long time ago, it was even used for the preparation of crocks.

The geological construction and surface leaks have defined the morphological features and geomorphologic processes of the slope. The main forms of the landscape are hills and valleys. Their feature is the scalable morphology (peak, quaestor hills). Heights stagger is from 250-260 m (valley of Tomorrica) to 638 m (south of the village).

In the flichy territory there are limestone blocks (olistolite). Sandstones are used for the building and covering of the houses (slate), limestone for lime. They are both used in erosion mounds, wall buildings; etc. The landscape is hilly- pre-mountain. It is formed by flysch with morphological escalations (Lirëza & Sala, 2013).

The quaesto landscape (5-6 peaks) is best expressed in the sector toward the peak Bregu Maise (618.2 m) and the neighbourhood Shimër-Tomorricë valley (7 foothill- quaesto). Ridges are built by the sandstone-conglomerates. Subsequent pass between them (width about 250-300 m) in the clay-alevrolite packages are used for pedestrian and rural roads. The landscape has an average degree of horizontal fragmentation up to 3 km²/km² in northwest of Shimër while in the southeast; it goes up to 4-5 km²/km². In this area are formed some small foci of erosion. The reforestations around 30 years ago have limited their expansion. They are surrounded by arable land. In general, the slopes have a small average incline, therefore it is facilitated the expansion of arable land.

The valleys are represented a little from Tomorrica's one and its branches on this slope (Shtegu i Lerës, etc). Generally, in the slopes proceed natural vegetation and a few geomorphologic processes of the slope. Near and around the village, over 100 years ago, the natural vegetation began to be replaced by arable land. Sloping backs with small inclines are preferred and chosen for the construction of houses (the streams of Shkollas and Shimëri, Shtegu i Lerës).

The valley (2.5-3 km) in the east-west part is obsequent. It has almost symmetrical slopes and winding due to lithological causes. In the river bed, there are identified small rapids. On the northern slope, the vegetation decreases, the agriculture expands the erosion and slides increase. In the south of the valley (the branch of Kurajt: 2-2.5 km) are identified the same morphological characteristics, but differs on better storage of the vegetation in the basin. The black pine arrives near the valley of Tomorrica.

It is included in the Mediterranean- hilly climate area. (HIDMET Institute, 1984). The geographical position makes it open to the winds and a significant number of sunny hours radiates on it. However, Tomorri Mountain deprives of sunny time in late afternoon at winter. Small heights of landscape do not allow lower temperatures, excluding extraordinary meteorological events.

The hydrography in the commune of Skënderbegas is represented by the upper part of some left branches of Devolli, the right branches of Tomorricë (Shtegu Lerës, Shesë, Gurrës, Perroi i Thellë, Kostonisë Shpellës, Sekës) and some other resources. Those are short, but the ones that are discharged on Tomorrica are longer and not with a small bed incline. Lera's Path (3 km) starts near the Mais hill (618 m) and ends in Tomorrica (270 m). Near the village, the two main branches unite at 510 m altitude. These are temporary in the case when Lera's Path is fed by small resources.

The genetic types of lands are represented by: brown gray, brown and auburn forestry lands, but the most dominant is the first type (up to 600 m altitude). It has the largest agricultural uses that are liked for many agricultural crops. In the last 20 years olive is added too. The two other types have limited extent and only a few by brown lands are used in agriculture. The vegetation of shrubs are better preserved in northern of Shkollas, on the left of rural roads and on west of Shimër neighbourhood (small areal). It seems clear that the expansion of arable land has influenced a lot. The pine forest of Skënderbegas (32 ha) extends in the heights from 400 to 500 m up to 1500 m (Qiriazhi and Sala, 2007), it is well preserved, but the fire (August 2008) significantly damaged its surface (on right of the rural road)

The wild fauna is rich, relatively well (wolf, fox, rabbit, hedgehog, marten, badger, weasel, etc.). Brown bear and boar are visitors on winters with heavy snow, when they go down to the village; they harm the livestock and maize. There are plenty of birds (partridges, falcons, wild pigeon, jay, blackbirds, sparrows, nightingale, turtledove, owl, cuckoo horse, etc). However, inappropriate hunting of the last 15 years is damaging the wild fauna (hunters from the districts, and even foreigners). They shoot at any time by killing as much as they can without paying taxes at the commune. Illegal hunting damages the welfare of the inhabitants too.

Nature has been kind with this commune (climate, forest, fauna, landscape), but the commune and residents have to change the way of use, made so far in favour of nature and socio-economic opportunities. Skënderbegas is connected with rural roads as Gramsh, Bletëz, Ermenj, Vidhan, Fushëz, Zenelas, Siman etc. There is a daily transportation line Gramsh –Vidhas - Gramsh. There are 10-12 private cars (various types) and 2-3 tractors for agricultural work (higher cost). The electricity system is linked with those of Kodoviat and Kërpica and supports well the present loads, despite the increasing use of household electrical appliances (rural exodus). The power is used for showers and rarely for cooking. Residents like the wood warming (low cost). However, it is verified that inhabitants pay regularly the electricity that they consume.

Population in years

In 1926 there were 650 inhabitants in Skënderbegasi (Selenica, 1927) while in 2010 there were 439 inhabitants (217 males, 222 females) and over 100 economic immigrant males).

In 1926 the village of Narta had 127 inhabitants, in 1989 there were 400 inhabitants, in 2012 there were 333 inhabitants (163 males and 22-25 third ages). In 1926 there were 115 inhabitants Kotka village (Selenica, 1927). After 1990 many inhabitants have left their residence toward : Greece(8-10 people) Italy (6-7 people) and 3 people in England while referring to the families are identified: 17-20 families in Tirana, 3-4 in Durres and Elbasan, 4-5 is the number of families in Gramsh and 2-3 families in Fier and Vlora.

Harunas village had 164 inhabitants in 1989. After 1991 the population was involved in the emigration and migration. In 2008, there were 143 people (67 males, 76 females in 29 families); in 2012 it had only 80 inhabitants.

Lemnushë village had 45 inhabitants in 1926 (Selenica, 1927) while in 1989 there were 115 inhabitants and in 2012 there were 55 inhabitants (20 females and 12 males). High exodus in search of a better life has reflected the dominance of females. There are identified 25-30 inhabitants who are immigrated to Greece. (The Office of Statistics of Skenderbegas, 2014).

Kullollas village had 83 inhabitants in 1926, all muslims (Selenica, 1927); in 2008 it had 168 inhabitants (75 males, 93 females) and 49 families; in 2010 it had 164 inhabitants (74 males and 90 females, 48 families). Over 20 inhabitants followed the seasonal emigration helped by the visa's liberalization (The Office of Statistics, Skenderbegas, 2014).

Ermenj village had 172 inhabitants in 1926 (Muslims-Bektashi Selenica, 1926), in 1989 there were 486 inhabitants, in 2010 there were 210 inhabitants (110 males and 100 females, 45 families, 20 of them followed seasonal emigration; 2012 it had 140 inhabitants (85 males, 14 pensioners). (The Office of Statistics of Skenderbegas, 2014).

Fushëz village had 136 inhabitants in 2008 (according to gender, equal number) and 40 families; in 2010 it had 119 inhabitants (62 males and 57 females) and 36 families. 10-12 males follow seasonal emigration in Greece. Siman village had 150 inhabitants in 1989, while in 2008 resulted to be 129 inhabitants (47 males and 82 females, 30 families), and in 2012 there were approximately 100 inhabitants. (Basha , P. 2005, In front of us, Tomorri).

Vidhan village had 189 inhabitants, in 2008 there were 154 (81 males, 73 females and 39 families), in 2012 it had only 70 inhabitants (40 males and 30 females). After 1991 around 10 families emigrated to Greece and Italy, 5-6 to Tirana, 2-3 to Durres, Elbasan and Gramsh etc.

Zenelasi village had around 100 inhabitants in 1989, while in 2013 (after 1990 exodus) it remained 35-40 people (gender differences, 2-3 people), 26-30 people have emigrated to Greece, 5-6 families to Tirana and Gramsh, 2-3 to Durres, 2 Elbasan etc. Below is given the graphic that present the population of this commune.

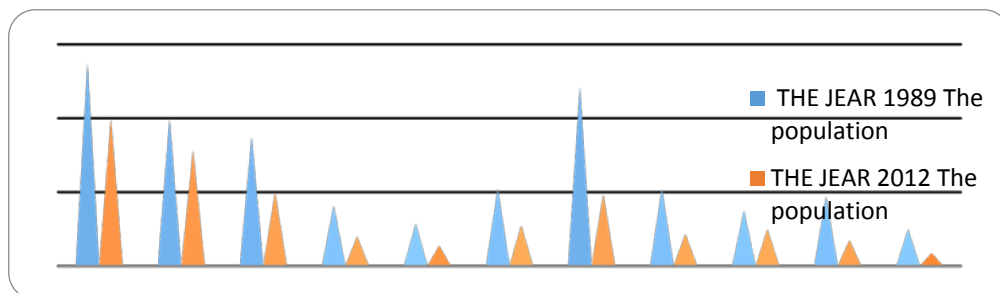


Chart 1. The Performance of the population in the villages of Skenderbegas commune

From the analysis of this chart, it results that from 2008 to 2012 the number of inhabitants in this commune has decreased. This is related to the evacuation from these rural areas toward the urban ones and in emigration.

From this commune have come up many well known figures in national rang. Xhile Liçi is one of the national figures. His name is given to the school and to a neighbourhood in Gramsh. He is relatively less known, so we are giving its main activity.

He was born on 2.01.1878. The economic difficulties forced him to emigrate (around 1895) in Follorine, Selanik, Manastir and other towns in the Balkans and Turkey.

In 1911 he joined with the call of the Great Powers for the independence of Albania and together with Asllan Shahini they represented Tomorrica and Gramsh at the Assembly of Vlora (28/12/1912); they authorized Ismail Qemali as representative for these regions.

Ermenj village is the place of birth of Abas Ermenji (1913-2003), one of the leading figures of the National Front. He made his secondary education in Shkodra. With a scholarship from the state, he went in Sorbon (France) for undergraduates. He worked as a professor at the Lice (1938). He was against the Italian occupation, therefore was arrested and deported (1940) in Veneto island (Italy). One year later, he came back and started organizing the National Front. The patriot Dervish Rizai published in Korca "Faith in homeland" (1933). He has written "We are here on this land since it can't be remembered, no homeland no religion," in "Faith in religion". He admired and had as an idol the great represent ant of the Albanian renaissance, Naim Frasheri, by calling him as "The heart of Albania, the

fountain of wisdom, torch of the childhood, and saint of humanity". (Albanian Encyclopedic Dictionary, 2010)

During the National-Liberation War, the partisan forces were increased, especially the tribes Çongo, Çela, Shimri, Zisko, etc. The martyrs are reminded by the monument at the centre of the village. The village was burned and robbed (1943-1944) by the Germans. In 'Qafa Kashtes' area was developed the battle between the German and partisan forces. The National-Liberation Anti-Fascist Council was set up in March 1943. It was liberated by the V-the offensive Brigade in July 1943.

Economy and lifestyle

It became a cooperative in 1957, and later it was united with Nartë, Bletëz, Kullollas and Fushëz villages. The first chairperson was Mete Koçi, followed by Bexhet Osuni, Perikli Mali, Fidai Sadiku, Belul Koçi and Misto Perja. In 1967 the village was proclaimed the center of the united cooperative Skenderbegas (Kullollas, Bletëz, Harunas, Nartë, Shëmbërdhenj (Upper), Fushas and Menkollar). The economic activity has always remained the agriculture associated with climatic-terrestrial conditions. There was cultivated mostly wheat (35-40 kv\ha), maize (100-140 kv\ha), beans (20-22 kv\ha), rye (15-18 kv\ha), tobacco, vine, fruit trees, etc. A major part of the work (plowing sowing, harvesting-threshing) were performed with agricultural engineering (old technology).The transport was made by animals, private cargo and the

cooperative truck. The storage, separation, etc. were made as elsewhere (typical communist, unfair). Livestock was represented by smaller livestock (350-400 head), cattle (70-80 Cows and animals of work). Vegetables and fodders were also produced. In the 70s the residents received 80 ALL/day/work, while 10 years after result to be 70 all. In 1989 it had an united Middle School (Agriculture), nursery and garden, museum, palace of culture, hospital, shops with mixed articles (Dictionary, 1986)

After 1990 some new houses have been built, but 30-40% has maintained the architectural tradition.

The funding is supported by the immigration's income, mainly from Greece. Buildings have many new architectural elements, more functional for the lives of the house wife such as drinking water: .

The main direction in the economic development has historically been the agriculture, vineyards and livestock. In this commune there have been major agricultural

damages (28 July 1978) from hail. The tobacco, vegetables, potatoes, corn, etc. were damaged more severely. In the '70-'80 it was in the centre of the united cooperative-village with the same name (1950 inhabitants). Today it is the centre of the commune (Upper Shëmbërdenj, Bletëz, Ermenj, Fushëz, Harunas, Kullollas, Kotka, Nartë, Lemnushë, Siman, Vidhan and Zenelas). In the '80s in wheat and potatoes were respectively taken 30-32 kv/ha and 140-145 kv/ha. The cooperative was among prominent in Gramsh, even in tobacco production, smaller livestock cattle in concentrated stalls (Nartë, etc.) It had 60 heads of cattle/ha in the stalls. A huge development had the beekeeping, which is renewed, relatively well. (Sala, S and Lireza, Q, 2014)

Residents plant what's convenient to them. The inhabitants have paid priority attention to cultivation of the vine, fruit trees, also the olive, which is defined by the market finding and fast profit. There are families who receive economic assistance. Residents produce (craft) brandy, dairy, pickles, figs, almonds and dried vegetables, etc. These products are extremely good, thanks to the sun and climatic-terrestrial conditions. The Production costs are high in comparison with other areas. Priority is still the household consumption. With lots of difficulties, inhabitants find little brandy, grapes, fruit and dairy market. The residents have in their tradition the metal and wood working, just for fun. It is saved just a little the working in handloom, while earlier they prepared clothing, carpets for domestic needs. It is still preserved the tradition of protecting the arable land from erosion. About 60% of the arable land area was opened in the years 1950-1985. (Archive, 2012)

About 90 % of households have land patent, but a significant area is abandoned and left barren. There are identified are as covered by landslides 4-5 ha and nearly double of them are facing high erosion. Ownership dispute are resolved by understanding with the local government. The commune's administration has 9 employees. The collected revenues are negligible compared with the salaries that they take. Funding from the state budget, that's not the right way!

For the future, the nature and human resources enable the development of agricultural activity: fruit trees, vine, livestock, beekeeping, potato, tobacco, etc. But politicians and decision- makers have to change many things. They have to consider as priority the local territorial organization and the state's assistance politics for the funding of agriculture. Now days, villagers require assistance to promote the incensement of production.

After the 90-s the number of socio-cultural objects is declined, due to mass dismissals of residents to cities like Gramsh, Elbasan, Tirana, Durres, etc. and in emigration. In all municipalities operate seven businesses, three kindergartens, eight elementary schools, three 9-year-old schools and one high school, located in the centre of the municipality.

Discussion

From what we have introduced above, it results that Skëndebeqas commune has a total area of 80.1 km² and a population of about 3, 000 inhabitants. It lies in the district of Gramshi, in central Albania, with generally hilly- mountainous landscape and with hilly- mountain Mediterranean climate.

The commune has 13 villages connected with rural roads between them, and also with the centre of the district, the city of Gramsh. Natural and climatic conditions are favourable for the development of agriculture, livestock and viticulture, but the lack of investment in agricultural mechanics; infrastructure has caused the decrease of crop yields. Likewise the trading of various products, due to damaged roads is inadequate. The population from year to year has decreased sharply, because residents seek for a better life. In these conditions we recommend that:

The research conducted by the Albanian State, to carry out a comprehensive administrative-territorial reform is imperative too. This commune, such as many others, cannot provide incomes; the administration of this commune is funded by the state. The aim of this reform is to reduce the number of communes, taking as basic criteria their geographical area and number of inhabitants.

The state has to encourage private initiative in the villages of this commune, by supporting them even with soft loans. Finally more caution should be taken to improve the road infrastructure, therefore more investment have to be done.

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Class teacher trainees' conceptions of their own learning, mentoring and tutoring in teaching

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Abstract

Class teacher education in Finland differs in several aspects from the training the future teachers get in other countries. First, the training takes place at universities. Second, it takes five years to finish the studies. Third, along the teacher's certificate the students get the master's degree. Fourth, the teaching training takes place mainly in the training schools connected to the universities. Fifth, the students entering the Finnish class teacher education are older than in many other countries. The teaching practice at the Department of Teacher Education in Rauma Unit is divided into four practice periods: basic teaching practice 1, basic teaching practice 2, thematic/research teaching practice, and subject specific teaching practice. The training is altogether 26 study credits out of 300 ECTS. The teaching practice is supervised by tutors who are teachers within the department of teacher education, in Finland they are usually lecturers of different subjects, and by mentors who are teachers working at the schools where student teachers are trained. This article focuses on how student teachers reflect their learning, and how they evaluate practical training and the role of a tutor and a mentor. The research instrument is an electronic questionnaire, which the trainees answered after each four training periods. The number of respondents was 239. The type of research is qualitative. The results of the study show that during the first training period some of the trainees started to think about teaching as a profession. In addition, they started to understand the role of a mentor. However, they claimed that some mentors had not found out the main idea of mentoring. According to the students, several mentors clung to their own ideas and did not enable the reflective thinking of trainees. During the second training period trainees started to see a teacher as a transformer of knowledge not just a deliverer of knowledge. In this practice, a tutor as well as a mentor had an important role in advising a trainee to take a more independent role. The third teaching practice included teaching of several different school subjects. Consequently, the roles of a mentor and a tutor were sometimes confusing for the trainee. The mentor was supposed to give theoretical advice and the latter practical advice. During the fourth practice student teachers could understand the children of different ages better as well as reflect their own behavior in the classroom more skillfully than in the first practice.

Keywords: Teaching Training, Mentoring, Tutoring

Introduction

While reading literature connected to this topic one can very easily notice that the teacher education, especially for those aiming to be class teachers, varies in different countries (e.g. the Netherlands, the UK, the US, Greece) as well as the teaching practice. According to Zanting, Verloop, and Vermunt (2001) teacher preparation has typically been situated in schools rather than in higher education institutions. Whereas in Finland teacher education has been a part of universities since 1974, which year was a turning point in the Finnish teacher preparation. The teacher education became more academic. Since then, there have been various changes in the class teacher education.

The Finnish class teacher education has been built according to the Bologna Process to consist of two academic degrees; a lower academic degree of 180 credits completed in three years and giving a student the Bachelor's degree (BA), and a higher academic degree of 120 credits completed in two years ending at the Master's degree (MA). To get the certificate for teaching a student has to attain MA. (Jakku-Sihvonen & Niemi 2006.)

By the time the students enter a university, they have been at school 12 to 13 years, at least, and they have observed the work of their teachers and usually have formed some expectations about the role of a teacher. They might have formed very deeply grounded beliefs and attitudes about teaching (Karavas & Drossou 2009). In Finland, it is very hard to enter

the teacher education. Consequently, most of the students have attended several times to the entrance exams, and some of them have experience about teaching that they have got by serving either as a school aid or a substitute teacher. This setting gives a challenge to the teacher education.

Definitions of the terms

Class teachers are teachers in comprehensive schools who are teaching mainly grades 1 to 6, but they are also qualified to teach grades 7 to 9 in certain subjects; the age of the pupils varying from 7 to 15.

Concepts such as a mentor and a tutor get different meanings in different contexts (Krull 2005). The term 'mentoring' is frequently used. It is also a term that has been used for a long time (Le Cornu 2005) in many connections and among different occupations. In many countries, the term 'mentoring' has been connected also to teaching. Lai (2005/2006) made a review of the mentoring literature and found that "there is no agreed conceptualization of mentoring among teacher educators and educational researchers" (p. 107). A similar conclusion can be read in the article of Levine (2011). Usually, mentoring includes the interaction between a new professional and a veteran professional (who has been chosen as a mentor). For this reason it is essential to determine how these concepts are understood in this study, and which concepts are used in parallel meaning.

Mentors are teachers working at the school where student teachers are trained. Since the system of the teacher training in Finland compared with other countries is different, class teachers (in Finnish *luokanlehtorit*) of the Finnish training schools (in Finnish *normaalikoulut*) are called mentors. They can also be teachers at the local schools, who are assigned for the training of the university, as the custom is in many other countries (Zanting et al. 2001; Taylor 2008). Tutors are lecturers, who supervise prospective teachers within a department of teacher education. In the recent literature, one can find a concept the university tutor (see Taylor 2008). In Finland, they are usually lecturers of different subjects (mother tongue, mathematics, history etc.), who are called in Finnish *didaktikot* (the concept stems from the word *didactic*). They could also be named as university teacher educators (Taylor 2008) or university supervisors (Zanting et al. 2001). Teacher trainees are student teachers, who practice teaching at the university training school (also called lab schools) and are supervised by mentors and tutors. They are also called in this article as prospective teachers.

The qualification requirements for all teachers (mentors) working at a Finnish training school may also differ from the ones, who are acting as mentors in other countries. The Finnish teachers have to have at least a Master's degree including so called pedagogical studies (60 ECTS credits). In addition, before appointed to this position they have to have a minimum of two years of full-time teaching experience, they have to obtain good teaching skills that they prove by giving a demonstration lesson when applying for a vacancy. Furthermore, the teachers of teacher training schools have to be experiment and research oriented, since one of the aims in teaching practice is to create an innovative and analytical attitude among the prospective teachers. (Jakku-Sihvonen & Niemi 2006.) The qualification requirements for tutors are minimum of a Master's degree for university teachers and a Doctor's degree for university lecturers.

Teaching practice in Finland

Teaching practice is an essential part of a teacher education, as are the roles of a mentor and a tutor in creating a harmonious and productive working environment. A mentor and a tutor must therefore encourage open and clear communication, encourage everyone to contribute to discussion, make everyone feel valued, and ensure that the training has clear objectives and they are achieved. A good mentor and a tutor who encourages trainees to be creative in thinking must also be able to appreciate their answers and solutions. This means that the interaction between a mentor or a tutor and a trainee should be positive, open and encouraging. The atmosphere in tuition should generate critical thinking, but also openness. A prospective teacher should feel that his or her thoughts and perspectives are being appreciated and valued. (Soininen 2004.)

The teaching practice at the Department of Teacher Education, Rauma Unit, in the University of Turku, Finland, is constructed according to two stage structure. During BA studies the students are obliged to take part in two training periods, which are a part of intermediate studies and called the Basic Teaching Practice 1 (BTP 1; 5 credits) and BTP 2 (7 credits). The objectives for BTP 1 are: to support trainees' development into professional teachers by giving them an opportunity to become familiar with the tasks a teacher is responsible for, by allowing them to practice their communication and interaction skills in classrooms, and by applying theoretical studies in practice. Another objective is that they learn teaching and learning methods; teaching, planning, practice, observation, and teaching assistance and participation in general class

work. The objectives for BTP 2 are: to enhance trainees' knowledge in planning, teaching and assessment, and to strengthen teaching and learning methods; teaching, observation, planning, teaching assistance, tutoring other school activities. These two teaching practice periods are done in pairs in certain school subjects. After BA degree a student can continue to advanced studies that include the Thematic Teaching Practice (TTP; 7 credits) and the Subject Specific Teaching Practice (SSTP; 7 credits). The objectives for TTP are in short: to develop the skills required to enhance personal teaching style, and to learn to analyze and evaluate students' as well as one's own work, and to get acquainted with home and school partnership. The objectives for SSTP are in brief: to plan, to carry out, and evaluate larger teaching sessions in connection with curricula, and to practice in taking more individual responsibility of teaching. These two training periods are individual training periods, which means that a trainee is responsible for all that takes place at school during one week. The practice is more compact than BTP 1 and BTP 2. One credit is approximately 27 hours of workload. Practice periods are not graded with numbers, only pass – fail.

Theoretical frameworks

The literature provides several models of mentoring, but in this article only three of them are specified. The first one is called the apprenticeship model or the master-apprentice model, where mentors usually have the role of a model. In this model teacher trainees observe experienced teachers in their work and form ideas about the process of teaching. The second model is the competency model or the clinical supervision model, in which novice teachers learn to teach by practicing different teaching strategies and techniques under the observation of mentors as well as tutors. The third model is called the reflective model. In it, the students are required to evaluate critically different ways of teaching in order to extend their teaching repertoire and develop their deeper understanding of the process of teaching. (Franke & Dahlgren, 1996; Zanting, Verloop & Vermunt, 2001). The change from the apprenticeship model to the reflective model of teaching should be seen during the teaching practice periods. Lai (2005/2006) sees mentoring as a process of skill acquisition, which is connected with technical activities: 'the mentor passing on a "bag of tricks" to the mentee' (see also Jaku-Sihvonen & Niemi, 2006) or as a process of enculturation to the school world. Mentoring seen as a process of skill acquisition is a narrower definition than mentoring as an enculturation process.

The teacher trainees themselves should have a cognitive psychological view on learning and teaching. This means that learners (here student teachers) should be active, constructive and self-directed, and they should construct their personal knowledge and understanding, their own philosophy to teach. What is a role of a mentor in this process? Zanting et al. (2001) have mentioned several roles they have found from the literature. They point out that this role can be much more than a role of being a model or an instructor; it can be an information source for tips and advice during training. A mentor can be called a challenger, a coach, a supporter or an evaluator. Mentors use much more time with the trainees than university supervisors (tutors). Zanting, Verloop and Vermunt (2003) argue that mentors' practical knowledge is crucial in teaching practice. The literature shows that student teachers are focusing more on their own teaching than on the mentor's teaching skills. Mentors should provide possibilities for trainees to explore mentor's knowledge and beliefs about teaching (see also Crasborn, Hennissen, Brouwer, Korthagen & Bergen 2011).

It is obvious that the practical studies are one of the most important parts of the teacher education, which according to Jyrhämä (2006) plays a key role in how teacher trainees see their profession in the future. All teacher education programmes include so called theoretical studies and teaching practice. The most often asked question is how to combine these two elements most efficiently? Students do not seem to understand the connection between theory and practice or the ability to apply theory to practice develops slowly. In this, the role of a university supervisor (tutor) comes up. Usually, tutors represent one of the school subjects (e.g. mathematics, history, mother tongue) and they teach students the theoretical structures and teaching strategies of their subjects. Also other studies, such as educational psychology, social psychology, educational philosophy, special education, should be connected to practice. Mentors and tutors should have a common agreement about how and what to teach to student teachers. It is important because a tutor supervises a trainee and observes his or her teaching only couple of hours during the training period, but a mentor spends the whole training period with a prospective teacher. Everyone should be able to adjust his or her attitudes, values, and beliefs, which he or she should adjust to meet the others' attitudes, values and beliefs.

The physical learning environment, the context, which is a combination of cognitive and emotional structures where mentoring and tutoring take place, should be safe, harmonious and pleasant. There should be a good understanding between the three parties shown in Figure 1.

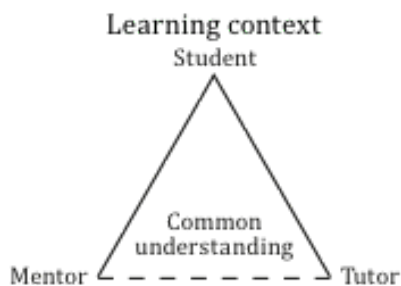


Fig.1 The connection between the three parties during a teaching practice

As shown in Figure 1, there are always three actors involved more or less actively in teaching practice. The learning context is either the university and its teacher education curriculum or the teaching training school and its curriculum. Both curricula should be active for each of the three parties. A common model is that during his or her academic studies, the trainee is aware of the tutor's (a subject didactics lecturer) curriculum, and during the teaching practice he or she is aware of the mentor's (a class teacher) curriculum. The important fact is that also mentors and tutors should be familiar with these two curricula. Figure 1 also implicates that tutors, mentors and student teachers should work in triads (see also Taylor 2008). This means "that student teachers' work is done in complex settings where an array of people with varied histories, understandings, beliefs, and perspectives on instruction and curriculum interact" (Valencia, Martin, Place & Grossman 2009, 304). Several studies (e.g. Bullough & Draper 2004; Veal & Rikard 1998) also show that triads are hierarchical; in most cases university supervisors are regarded as those being on the top. However, in Figure 1 a tutor (university supervisor) and a mentor (class teacher) are on the parallel level, because their roles can be considered equal in the process of teaching practice in certain aspects.

Student teachers learn from experts who are their mentors and tutors. For this reason, one should be aware that always when having a conversation either between a mentor (tutor) and a trainee, or between these three parties, attention should be paid to the quality of the professional dialogue (Harrison, Lawson & Wortley 2005). One should teach by one's own example of how to bring critical reflection on practice. For this reason, among other things, it is important for mentors to be methodical not only for tutors. Harrison et al. (2005) found out in their intervention that there is a proportion of prospective teachers' whose capacity and/or willingness to reflect become a significant feature in their professional development" (p. 288). Their working definition for critical reflection on practice is that it is about the exploration of 'why' and 'how' something is (or might be) done. It is important to notice also that the act of describing something (in this study one's own learning) is an individual interpretation, where one stresses some particular features and may leave some very important ones outside.

Method

Aims and research questions

The aims of the study are: first, to see how student teachers reflect their own learning during different teaching practice periods, second, to find out what the trainees' perceptions and views of mentoring and tutoring were after each teaching practiced period, and third, to reflect the teacher trainees' comments on the aims of the practice periods in order to change the practice towards more open and sensitive training. The specific research questions are: What the trainees have learned during the teaching practice periods? Does a trainee or a mentee see her or his mentor as an authoritarian instructor or as a supportive facilitator? Does the role of a mentor change during the four training periods?

Research instrument and data

After every training period, the trainees have to fill an electronic questionnaire including four questions: 1) What have you learned during your practice period? 2) What was good in the practice period? 3) What would you change within the practice period? 4) Do you have something else to comment? In this article, the answers are used as a database and the intention is not to answer the questions mentioned above but to see the texts as a whole. The main intention is to see how

the roles of a mentor and a tutor raise from the students' answers during the different training periods. The second intention is to give the reader an example of how a supervising process is constructed in the Finnish teaching practice.

The first training period (BTP 1) takes place during the spring semester of the second year of the studies. The second training (BTP 2) is during the fall semester of the third year of the studies. The third training (TTP) takes place during the fall semester of the first year of the Master's degree. The last training period (SSTP) is at the beginning of the spring semester of the second year of MA. The database of this article includes the answers of the students who filled the questionnaire after their first training period, BTP1 (n=68), after their second training period, BTP 2 (n= 52), after their third training period, TTP (n= 65), and after their last training period, SSTP (n=54). The data was given anonymously; consequently the gender of the tutors, the mentors or the student teachers is not available.

Though the data is large in numbers quantitative methods are not used when analyzing it, instead the qualitative answers of the student teachers' beliefs of their own learning were read using case study methodology and the grounded theory approach. The data analysis was guided by the first question mentioned above. At the first stage, the data was read several times to get the overall view of the answers. The second stage was to color-code certain words and sentences to find out, which were the main themes that could be raised from the text connected to every four practicing period. The numbers after every example show on the one hand to which training period (I – IV) it is connected, and the other hand the number of the answer (1 – 68). Since the answers were written in Finnish, the examples were translated into English as identical in meaning as possible, and in the way the trainees had written them.

Results

The answers varied considerably in content; there were answers from two words to 212 words; from no more than some concepts to specific concepts; from surface learning to deep learning. This implicates that there were huge differences among the students' conceptions about their learning. Some of them had really concentrated in reflecting, what he or she had learned, but from some answers could immediately be seen that the respondent had not paid any attention to the question.

During the first training period (BTP 1) the trainees learned technical, concrete and practical things. In addition, they had already learned to reflect their own learning. The role of a mentor was also important during this practice period.

"One has to put effort on lesson planning and pay attention to all possible things. (Also those that you cannot even memorize.) At first we did the lesson plans much too inaccurate. Fortunately, our mentor told us right away that we need to include all possible, also pupils' probable reactions / comments related to the topic that is taught. The concept "lesson" got a new meaning. We noticed that 45-minute-long lesson is often after all too short. With good planning one can use it most effectively." (I/14).

"I learned all kinds of things that I don't bother to begin to list. Most important were practical things that make teaching easier. I got guidance in every (4) subject, and it helped a lot. From the teacher (mentor) I got plenty of new ideas, for example, of teaching religion. I learned to act with the second graders, before this I have mainly worked with 5 – 6 graders." (I/31)

Next quotations show the problem that was demonstrated in Figure 1. It seems that the mentor and the tutor do not cooperate, and the trainee uses this situation; "learns to please them". Some of the mentors seem to keep tightly to their own ideas and do not enable student teachers' reflective thinking. The trainees learn very easily to please the mentors and the tutors, and they act as they are wanted to. This leaves no space for trainees to act according to their own strategies or use new teaching methods.

"I learned to please the tutor and the mentor. The problem in this training period is that there exists no co-operation, and it is bad for a trainee. We have to make the plans so that the both shall sign the paper, and they won't do it unless the plan is exactly how they want it to be. Of course, there are exceptions, but some of the teachers (mentors) are such who do not accept one's own new ideas to their classes. I imagine that during the first training period the main goal is to learn, for instance, by doing mistakes. It is better that I will see through my own performance the problems than that the mentor says that it is not possible to do it like that "because we have this kind of habit in this classroom" or "because I have been as a teacher already for so long that I know that it does not work". Maybe the mentor knows what he or she is talking about, but it does not help a trainee." (I/68)

"Didactics lecturers (tutors) often stress that trainees should try different things. In practice class teachers (mentors) have quite often a clear "vision" about teaching. As a trainee I feel sometimes that I am between 'the tree and the bark', on the one hand I am encouraged to try and on the other hand I should do it in a way it has always been done. It is often very frustrating! To this I need coherence". (I/20)

These examples reveal that cooperation between the tutors and the mentors who are working in the same triad does not always function. There is a great need for tutors and mentors to enhance their own supervising. The result is similar to the one Veal and Rikard (1998) reported.

The second basic training (BTP 2) was very similar to the first one, but now the four subjects that the trainees practiced in pairs were different. However, the training took place in the same classes in most of the cases under the same mentor, although the tutors changed due to the different school subjects. While students' reflections were very similar to the first ones there was one significant change: now a child or children were mentioned in most of the answers.

"I learned to pay more attention to pupils' own experiences as a base of my teaching. Our mentor supervised us (like at the first training) giving advice, how to get children to become active knowledge processors. I also learned to give more space to conversational teaching style; a teacher does not need to explain everything, so pupils' own thoughts became now more out. Thank you for the mentor, who is really an expert!" (II/9)

"The best were the new challenges and possibilities in teaching. The other good thing was the feedback discussions with the class teacher (mentor). She (he) gave constructive feedback about my teaching and gave good hints to different situations. She (he) made me also to think my own teaching and (made me) to reflect, what I myself thought about it, and what went well and what went wrong in my teaching. The teaching environments as well as the teaching facilities were good." (II/15)

"I learned a lot, thanks to my XX supervisor. I got new views to my teaching, like how to use (different) concepts in teaching. XX gave a lot of good advices before, during and after the lessons. I tried to learn from XX as much as I could in order to get new views to my teaching for my future teaching career. Methods were new to me, but I noticed that there is a lot of good in them. I will use them also later. In music teaching I got support that I also needed. I found out how a music lesson has to be constructed and from what strings to pull to get children to become stimulated. Thanks to XX!" (II/21)

The student teachers also learned how to work with pupils of different ages. Maybe during the first training period there was so much new to be learned that the children's age did not show up in the same meaning as during this second training.

"I learned to work with the first graders (in Finland they are approx. 7 years old), I learned to manage the class. I also learned more about the subjects. I learned to be more persistent with the other trainees in the same class and to take up feedback." (II/32)

When reading the students' comments after the two training periods, it was found that the mentor's role was similar to the one in the competency model explained before. The students do not any more regard them as role models in a way they did during the first training period. It is also worth mentioning that now the students' comments included only a few mentions about the tutors.

The third teaching practice (TTP) differed from the two previous ones. Now student teachers taught in their practice class all the lessons during a whole school week. Their practice covered not only teaching different subjects, but also all the other work a class teacher has to do during a week, such as keeping an eye on pupils during the lunch hour and the breaks between lessons, consulting with parents and so on.

"I learned a lot for example, when for the first time my lesson was video recorded in the studio class. It was really instructive to see the video! In top of all I got acquainted with a pupil with learning disabilities. That was the first time I was in an elementary class, and in fact it was good to see how much time is needed there." (III/21)

"I was also satisfied that I got feedback of every lesson I taught. Good was also that the teacher (mentor) did not interrupt my teaching but gave the feedback after the lesson. This strengthened my authority and affected the controlling of the class." (III/24)

The quotations above show that also video recordings of the lessons were found to be very educative. Watching the recordings with mentors and tutors is an excellent way to reflect one's action in the classroom. In didactic seminars, student teachers can share their opinions and ideas about teaching practice. These seminars were found very educative and important.

The fourth and last practice period (SSTP) took place at the beginning of the spring semester. The students' comments showed, among other things, that they had learned how to assess pupils in various ways. Since they had already some knowledge about different school subjects, which are taught at the primary level, they were able to get deeper to a subject and use new methods.

"I learned a lot of new things. Actually, I can say that during this training period I got out most for my future career. This was mainly due to my mentor who was supportive, encouraging and gave constructive feedback. I learned a lot since I was for the first time at this grade level. Teaching one subject ten hours makes you learn. I am not good at the subject I taught, so I had to work hard. (IV/2)

"This was the best practice of all! The class teacher, pupils and the environment supported my own teacher hood. I learned that having a good supervisor has a great meaning. I got support, help and possibility to carry out my own ideas. From several other trainees I heard that some class teachers who are so fixed to their own ideas do not allow student teachers to try anything new." (IV/8)

Altogether the training periods were found to be very good among most of the trainees. As mentioned earlier, teaching training is a very interactive process in which mentors (tutors), trainees and pupils are interacting. Class teachers (mentors) are always in charge of the class where a trainee is practicing. However, as the examples below show, the trainees also mentioned things that needed to be improved:

"Practice needed really a lot of work, and the days stretched nearly around the clock in planning the lessons. Group /personal guidance in different subjects were more effective if there were exact times when a teacher is present in order to give topics. Now a lot of extra time was spent "running after teachers" when I was trying to meet the teacher to get his or her topics. One could have used this time in planning the lessons. This happened again at the end of the practice period, when I needed the teacher's signature in my practicum card. I also found problematic the subjects in which there was only one lesson to teach. During one lesson there is not enough time to get acquainted with the topic and teaching is just touching the surface." (I/15)

"It seems that the training school does not have common rules of how the aims of training are mastered or how feedback is given to a trainee. For instance, while some teachers (mentors) want to have an hour-long feedback session every day, the others have them hardly ever. In TTP training one topic was the co-operation between home and school. Some, including yours truly, had to come to the parents evening and give a "presentation" about one's own training week, when the other trainees did not have this kind of obligation. Due to this the workloads differed greatly, and one cannot talk about equity...." (III/ 38)

"Students are not necessarily paid attention to. It would be polite to respect also trainees even if one is a class teacher. Also trainees have a very tight time schedule. Sometimes one has really to be resilient no matter how hungry and tired one is. Supervising teachers should also be flexible in some amount. 'I have to be then at coffee break'. I think this is an improper comment when we were trying to make an agreement of the time schedule. It should be left unsaid. The teachers get their salary, too. The supervising teacher sits at the end of the classroom, goes through his /her calendar and chews bubble gum mouth open. – A good example for us trainees. Sometimes it makes you wonder if the supervising teachers have got any training at all. How to give feedback? This is, however, the most important part of training." (IV/7)

"I don't know how teachers are instructed to supervise, but at least my motivation to study dropped during this practice because all the feedback I got was negative. The substitute teacher was the only one from whom I got concrete hints for teaching and positive feedback. At the department, they always emphasize to use in feedback the so called hamburger model, both positive and critic. I understand that the meaning of practice is not to make a student to wonder one's own teacher hood or in general turning to the field, instead one should be encouraged and supported in building of one's teacher hood. I wish that also supervisors concentrated on this in the future." (IV/13)

The last examples include several good advises for supervisors. It is of great importance how the trainees are spoken to. All teacher educators, no matter in which role they act, should remember that they serve as role models for future teachers. Prospective teachers learn to interact and use different dialogue models during their education. One should not take it for granted that one is ready for supervising that instant one gets a position as a teacher educator. For this reason, it is also important to educate the supervisors.

Discussion

In different teacher education departments in Finland, there are great differences in the amount of teaching practice. There has been long lasting debate of how much practice a teacher trainee should have. The truth is that no one can tell the quantity or the quality of training which would be optimal. The results of this study are similar to the results of Franke and Dahlgren (1996); the student teachers consider that the practical part of their education is the most important one. Another question that needs to be answered is; how much supervision or advice the mentors and tutors should give to trainees during the teaching practice. As the results of the study show, the trainees find the advice of the mentors to be more useful than the ones given by the tutors. In future, more attention should be paid to the role of a tutor in the teaching practice process. Nevertheless it is essential that tutors and mentors have the same goals concerning the training. Sometimes, as can be seen from the examples above, it is very confusing for a trainee to work in a classroom with different instructions given by the two parties.

The pivotal question is; what kind of roles a tutor (a university educator) and a mentor (a class teacher) take in the process of teaching practice? Do they give instructional support or psychological support to trainees (see Krull 2005) or are they preparing trainees for classroom management (see Clement 2010)? It is obvious that, as Jokinen and Välijärvi (2006) state "new teacher professionalism means more collegial collaboration, more sharing of different practices and more mutual support than before" (p.99).

Teacher education enhances all the time. When the new fall semester 2014 starts, the curriculum of the teacher education at the department of teacher education, Rauma unit, in the University of Turku, Finland, is already different than the one explained here, and hopefully it is also more effective. When planning the new curriculum, the aim was to keep in mind as well the feedback that had been received from the trainees as the statement by Järvinen, Kohonen, Niemi, and Ojanen (1995) "those involved in designing and putting into practice pre-service teacher education curricula need to be aware of the kinds of seeds they provide, both personally and as an institution" (p. 132).

We should also take in consideration the idea Le Cornu (2005) mentioned in her article: "There is a shift away from the mentor as expert, hierarchical one-way view to a more reciprocal relationship." (p. 356) She also refers to previous literature and terms such as co-mentoring, mutual mentoring, collaborative mentoring and critical constructivist mentoring which she says are reflecting the changes. Though Le Cornu is adapting this change to peer mentoring, we would like to see this change also among university tutors and mentors (see Figure 1). If cooperation between these two works well, it serves as a model for a student teacher, how people who might have different views to a topic can appreciate each other's views. This also needs open dialogue.

The interaction between the key triad members has been found to be complex (Valencia et al. 2009), but we should understand that it is a "collective" activity also involving many other actors than the key members of a triad: the pupils of those classes student teachers are teaching as well as other members of the school and the university community. This was also found in the answers of the trainees.

Although the results are not transferable to another teacher education, we found similarities with earlier studies, as we pointed out above. One of the major problems that emerged from the student teachers' answers was that most of the studies have concentrated on dyads; other important problems were related to the cooperation between tutors (university supervisors) and student teachers or mentors (cooperating teachers) and student teachers. It is obvious that more studies are needed about triads. Another interesting research question would be; how the gender affects the supervising process? Taylor (2008) argues that there are still very few studies done in the context of professional university programs like in the area of initial teacher education concerning learning of student teachers. As she states "these studies are important in that the findings are of consequence in the improvement of university teaching and student learning " (p. 68).

In teaching practice, mentors' role is to enhance trainees' professional skills, promote student-teachers' reflection on their practice, such as the lesson planning and lesson delivery as well as provide assistance and support. Altogether, their role is to facilitate prospective teachers' induction into the world of teaching and the school environment (Lai 2005/2006). The role of a mentor is more practical in comparison with the role of a tutor, which is a liaison between theory and practice. As Lai pointed out, mentoring can be seen taking place in a formal and informal manner. By the formal level of mentoring Lai means pre-lesson conferences, where a mentor and a trainee discuss about the planning of lessons and delivering them, the observations of a trainee's lessons, and post-lesson conferences where these two parties discuss the performance during the observed lessons. The informal level of mentoring is everything informal or unplanned supervision that takes place during the day. According to this definition, we could see the work of tutors to be more formal, since they observe the lessons of a trainee only some hours not being present the whole day.

While reading the reflections of the students who attended to the four teaching practice periods, there was no clear evidence how the students processed their learning in teaching. During the first two periods, working with peer students and different subjects were in the center. One could say that the objectives for these two training periods were mastered, but students could not express exactly what they had learned, in most of the cases they only wrote what they had done during the training. There seemed to be so much to learn during the first basic practice that students could not see a pupil who came to the picture during the second basic training. The whole "picture" of teaching and a teacher's world opened for trainees during the third teaching practice period when they could teach a whole week. The fourth and last teaching practice strengthened and deepened their skills and knowledge in learning and assessment.

There is still much to be improved in teaching practice though the objectives of the training periods were mastered. The students should learn how to critically reflect their own practices (Harrison et. al. 2005) and social skills in teaching and learning situations. The co-operation between tutors, mentors and student teachers needs to be improve as well as the timing of the different training periods (among other things).

One can also question how reliable these answers were? Usually, when filling the questionnaire for the first time it is done properly, but already when doing it for the second time it seems to be for some students an obligatory task and this reaction could also be seen in the third and fourth time. One of the main questions to be negotiated in the near future is, for what reason is this kind of feedback data collected from the student teachers; is it only for the teacher education department, or for the training school, or is it for the students themselves, or to all these participants? What is the advantage of the feedback? It is obvious that more research on this field is needed, but which is the best form of collecting the data; is it a portfolio where students write their learning diaries, is it an interview, or is it an observation, or something else? The modern technology (see Grove, Strudler & Odell 2004) provides new learning platforms, which should be used in teaching practice. In-service training for mentors and tutors should also be provided. Teacher educators should see the importance of these two roles, and not take it for granted that everyone who is appointed to be a mentor or tutor is right away qualified for supervising prospective teachers.

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MULTICULTURALISM IN INDONESIAN NOVELS AS A CULTURE-UNITING DEVICE

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Abstract

This study aims to describe multiculturalism in Indonesian novels in the post-independence era. The sources are eight novels written from 1970s to 1990s. Multiculturalism is analyzed using social theories on the basis of cultural pluralistic mosaic. The findings show that multiculturalism in Indonesian novels is manifested in the use of a variety of languages in the works, understanding of social classes, citizens' devotion, inter-religion understanding, expressions of affection, and inter-nation marriages. Multicultural novels can serve as a culture-uniting device.

Keywords: multiculturalism, pluralism, culture-uniting device

Introduction

Indonesia has more than 13,000 islands and the people speak in more than 500 languages, have a variety of beliefs and religions, and consist of several ethnic groups, resulting in the difficulty appreciating multicultural facts. Frictions appear among people with different beliefs and religions due to radicalism and a show-off of ethnic characteristics resulting from the regional autonomy policy necessitating that a leader must be an indigenous person and the existence of envy of particular ethnic groups because of economic inequality. All of these affect multiculturalism in Indonesia.

Besides, the understanding of multiculturalism may vary because of the infiltration of foreign cultures in their variety of forms such as fashion and lifestyle, the economic and cultural penetration, the information access, and the communication and transportation, making multicultural adaptation easy. The cultural penetration due to globalism is unavoidable in society. As a result, local values have to compete with global values parallel to advancement in education, science, and technology, resulting in penetration that can explain the relationship of individuals in society with a variety of religions, ethnic groups, languages, and cultures.

Indonesian novels that reflect multiculturalism can be used as one of the media for understanding multiculturalism because novels contain ideas, views, and enlightenment for issues related to ethnic relationship, religions, social classes, and communities with a variety of problems. Understanding and appreciation of multiculturalism will eventually be able to create understanding of cultural differences, which are unavoidable.

Through characters, settings, atmospheres, and issues presented in novels with a variety of ethnic groups and cultures in Indonesia, people can use them to contribute to strengthening a culture-uniting device to avoid conflicts related to religions, ethnic groups, and social classes in order to appreciate multiculturalism.

A novel as a literary work genre presents a variety of problems in human life, including relationship among human beings, interaction between human beings and their environments, interaction between a human being and the self, and interaction between a human being and God. A novel as a literary work contains the author's dialogs about life and environment. It is an imaginative work based on the author's consciousness to offer life model that s/he idealizes in dealing with problems in society and to express multicultural discourses.

The novels discussed in this paper are those related to multiculturalism in terms of issues related to religions, ethnic groups, and social classes and those written during the post-independence era in a variety of contexts. They are already criticized by literary critics and have a lot of readers. Therefore, such novels are assumed to influence the readers, moving in a parallel way to Indonesian multicultural society.

The novels under discussion are *Bekisar Merah* (2005) and *Kubah* (2011) by Ahmad Tohari, *Burung-burung Banyak* (1993) by Y. B. Mangunwijaya, *Keluarga Permana* (1978) by Ramadhan Karta Miharja, *Laskar Pelangi* (2006) by Andrea Hirata, *Para Priyayi* (2003) by Umar Kayam, *Pengakuan Pariyem* (2008) by Linus Suryadi AG, *Canting* (2007) by Arswendo Atmowiloto, and *Tarian Bumi* (2003) by Oka Rusmini.

Multicultural Politics in Several Eras

Indonesia has diversity in terms of ethnic groups, religions, races, social classes, customs, and traditions. Such a reality is attributable to the geographical factor; there are thousands of islands and people live in separate islands. In Indonesia there are different levels in terms of culture and civilization; among communities, there are wide cultural disparities or gaps. Most people still live in the agricultural world with their local cultures and few people have entered the world of information and technology with global culture (Azra, 2007).

With such geographical and cultural conditions, since the independence the Indonesian government has formulated a cultural political strategy to accommodate a variety of existing cultures in accordance with Constitution 1945 Article 34 regarding attempts to develop culture. Indonesia's cultural strategy was influenced by the Dutch and Japanese colonialism during the colonial periods and this continued in the old order era during the administration of President Soekarno as the first president of Indonesia (1945-1966), in the new order era during the administration of President Soeharto as the second president who was an army general (1966-1998), and in the reform order during the administration of President BJ Habibie as the third president who was a doctor of airplanes.

During the colonial period, the Dutch applied the ethical policy to compensate colonialism in the fields of irrigation, immigration, and education. The traces of the Dutch ethical policy are still left today. The agricultural system in Indonesia still adopts the irrigation system made by the colonial government in the form of river dams and irrigation channels. In addition, there are still architectural traces in buildings which were formerly Dutch buildings in several big cities in Indonesia. The distribution of people to several islands during the Dutch occupation was made to fulfill the needs for workers in the agricultural sector to process agricultural crops such as tobacco, clove, nutmeg, pepper, quinine, and other agricultural commodities. Besides, the distribution of people was also made to satisfy the needs for workers in lead, oil, gold, and other mineral mining.

The traces of the Dutch ethical policy in education were apparent in the establishment of schools with the Western style for indigenous people who were employed as lower-class employees for the benefit of the Dutch colonial government. Meanwhile, for higher education for the Dutch people or indigenous aristocrats, STOVIA was established. Through such higher education, national movement figures came up. However, the Dutch colonial government still applied social classes for citizenship. The Dutch divided Indonesian people into groups of White Skin (European and Indo-European people), Foreign East (Chinese, Arabic, and Indian people), and Indigenous (native inhabitants). The differentiation of citizens had implications in relation to laws and treatments. The White Skin and Foreign East people conformed to the Dutch laws and the Indigenous people conformed to the custom laws. As a result, the former was able to obtain the Dutch higher education and the latter was able to obtain only lower education.

During the Japanese colonial era, there was an opposition against the hegemony of western values and cultures. However, at that time there were reforms among young intellectuals pioneered by Sutan Takdir Alisyahbana. They invited literary authors to come back to eastern values. The eastern values, however, were not those existing in kingdoms of Sriwijaya, Majapahit, and Mataram, but those in the Indonesian culture free of the pre-Indonesian cultures and oriented to the western culture. The westernization of the pre-Indonesian cultures got an opposition. Those who were against the western culture were of the opinion that they could select what was good in both values to develop the Indonesian culture. The Japanese colonialism which lasted only 3.5 years did not have much effect on the color of the Indonesian culture. During this era, there were physical destructions resulting from the *romusha* (forced labor) and forced cultivation policies.

During President Soekarno's administration, the government formulated the national identity in Pancasila (five principles) and Constitution 1945. The government also embraced all groups in NASAKOM (Nasionalisme, Agama, dan Komunis = Nationalism, Religion, and Communism). The birth of NASAKOM was a manifestation of Soekarno's appreciation of pluralism. During this era, nationalist parties such as PNI (Partai Nasional Indonesia = Indonesian National Party) and religion-based parties such as PSII (Partai Syarikat Islam Indonesia = Indonesian Islamic Union Party), NU (Nahdatul Ulama = Muslim Clergy Awakening Party), Indonesian Christian Party, Indonesian Catholic Party, and PKI (Partai Komunis Indonesia = Indonesian Communist Party) flourished. However, Soekarno's closeness to PKI and the enforcement of the

Guided Democracy through the Decree of 5 July 1959 gave authority to LEKRA (Lembaga Kebudayaan Rakyat = People's Cultural Institution), an organization under Indonesian Communist Party, which triggered a cultural polemic between LEKRA and MANIKEBU (Manifes Kebudayaan = Cultural Manifestation), coloring the course of Indonesian literature.

The birth of LEKRA was opposed by young intellectuals led by Goenawan Mohamad with MANIKEBU refusing the statement of politics as commander social realism. MANIKEBU proposed a concept underlying arts on the basis of universal humanism in viewing the national culture. The conflict between LEKRA and MANIKEBU indicated that in that era proponents of each group appreciated differences.

During President Soeharto's administration, the government tried to deal with pluralism issues in the jargon *Bhinneka Tunggal Ika* (Unity in Diversity) although it remained a jargon. The government enforced cultural uniformity politics in order to maintain power. The government's jargon accommodated plurality but in reality the cultural practices were mono-cultural, dictatorial, and authoritarian. If a thing threatened the power maintenance, the government was ready to carry out repressive and discriminative actions and even violence was legally conducted by the government. The most outstanding action was that done to ex-prisoners of G30S/PKI. The mono-cultural politics on behalf of development stability destroyed the local genius culture. All organizations had to use the single foundation, namely Pancasila.

During BJ Habibie's administration, known as the reform era, the government annulled Pancasila as the single foundation and introduced other ideologies, especially religion-based ideologies. The government also introduced decentralization or local autonomy. During this era, the press freedom developed, marked by the issuance of Act Number 40 Year 1999 regarding press that gave freedom to the press industry management not under the government's control like what happened during Soeharto's regime. The traces of freedom in the government at that time were left in multicultural practices, especially in the freedom of expressing opinions, embracing religions, and being involved in politics. Literary people nowadays can express ideas on political, social, and cultural matters without the government's censorship. A political survey which was prohibited during Soeharto's administration could be freely conducted during BJ Habibie's administration.

Multiculturalism in Indonesian Novels

Multiculturalism is related to groups of people with different cultures and characteristics living and residing in a particular place and they can be differentiated from one group to another. Each society has its own culture and it becomes the society's characteristic. Multiculturalism is related to the idea and attitude to view cultural diversity as a fundamental reality in society's life. A person's open attitude towards shared life will accept plurality as a must which is unavoidable.

According to a social theory proposed by Gracia (1982), there are three types of multiculturalism. The first is the Anglo Conformity, in which individuals with different backgrounds in terms of religions, ethnic groups, and cultures are united in a dominant union. The second is the Ethnic Synthesis, in which individuals with different backgrounds are united in a new identity union, and former religions, ethnic groups, languages, and cultures mix and become a new identity. The third is the Cultural Pluralism Mosaic Analogy, in which individuals with different backgrounds in terms of religions, ethnic groups, and cultures have rights to express their cultural identities democratically without marginalizing the minority group's cultural identity. For example, when individuals in society have Javanese cultural background, national background, or international background, they have rights to express their cultural identities and to develop their cultures without disturbing each other. These three are able to develop pluralistic society.

Indonesian novels reflecting multiculturalism can be used as of the media to improve understanding multiculturalism because novels contain ideas, views, and enlightenment for issues concerning relationships among ethnic groups, religions, social classes, and communities with a variety of problems. Understanding and appreciation of multiculturalism through novels will eventually be capable of creating understanding of cultural differences which are unavoidable. Understanding of multicultural novels will in the end strengthen the cultural bond among cultures, including national and international cultures. Therefore, there is no dichotomy anymore concerning the national culture and the local culture, and even every individual or community is a culture creator (Dewanto, 1992).

Multicultural Novels as a Culture-Uniting Device

Understanding of multicultural literature cannot be separated from the idea of contextual literature and postmodernism. Contextual literature develops new realistic ideas by placing literature as a factual historical product to understand real problems in society (Heryanto, 1985). Such a historical process, as Faruk HT (2001) states, is a struggle of political interests among society members. Therefore, the center of the literary world totality is political interests. Historical novels by Pramudya Ananta Tur, YB Mangunwijaya, and Mochtar Lubis show these.

In addition to representing political perspectives, literature presents a cultural political perspective in deconstructing the mainstream of the patriarchal view. Saman (1998), a novel by Ayu Utami, and *Tarian Bumi* (2000) by Oka Rusmini provide answers that literature is capable of positioning problems of women's bodies which have so far been exploited by men. Saman, besides exploring women's rights of their own bodies, also explores conflicts of economic interests between local society and national, or even global, society. In *Tarian Bumi*, women are able to set their own goal although they have to oppose the strict division regarding social stratification on the basis of castes in Balinese cultures.

Multicultural issues are also presented in YB Mangunwijaya's novels *Burung-burung Manyar* (1981), *Roro Mendut* (1983), and *Burung-burung Rantau* (1993), Linus Suryadi AG's *Pengakuan Pariyem* (2008), and Umar Kayam's *Para Priyayi* (2003). The atmospheres in these novels stimulate pluralism in Bahasa Indonesia (Indonesian language) because the characters use the Indonesian, Javanese, English, and Dutch languages. The characters in these novels also refer to social classes in Javanese society with their affection, humility, sincerity, and wholeheartedness as shown by the following quotations:

"Sedang Kang Lantip, dialah guru saya. Bukan dia banyak mengajari saya, tapi karena kerendahan hatinya, ketulusan dan keikhlasan hatinya. Sejak semula saya mengenalnya di Wanagalih dan Wanalawas saya sudah langsung menyayangnya. Kemelaratan dan kemiskinan asal usulnya sebagai anak pungut di Setenan Wanagalih, tidak pernah membuatnya kecil hati, terlalu rendah diri, minder. Sifatnya yang prasaja, sederhana, apa adanya dan biasa itu sering membuat saya panik di dalam hati" (Kayam, 1992: 283).

("Meanwhile, Kang Lantip is my teacher, not because he teaches me much, but because of his humility, sincerity, and wholeheartedness. Since I knew him for the first time in Wanagalih and Wanalawas, I directly had affection for him. The poverty due to his origin and position as an adopted child in Setenan Wanagalih has never made him annoyed and inferior. His plainness, modesty, and being realistic and ordinary often make me in a panic heartily.")

The quotation shows a humble attitude making Hari have affection for Lantip although Lantip is not his own elder brother. Lantip, who was born in a poor family, respects people who help him so that he can survive.

Issues of the relationship between aristocrats and common people and masters and servants are presented in the novel *Pengakuan Pariyem* (2008). When it is revealed that RM Cokro Sentono's son, Raden Bagus Ario Atmojo, makes the servant, Maria Magdalena Pariyem, pregnant, he is willing to take care of the baby in her womb without embarrassment. The principles of harmony, mutual help, affection, and joy which become part of multiculturalism are narrated in the novel, which has been translated into English and Dutch. In a similar manner, a harmonious social relationship is depicted in *Canting* (2007), a novel by Arswendo Atmowiloto. The novel presents the smartness of a woman to survive as a business woman. Through her business she can support 112 batik employee families, although she was formerly a servant before getting married to Raden Ngabehi Setrokusumo. The novel shows that women can be autonomous in running businesses in society (Wiyatmi, 2012: 228).

Issues of devotion, social relationship, affection, and perseverance in carrying out professional demands are depicted in the novel *Laskar Pelangi* (2006). The novel has been translated into German and English, the title of the English edition being *Rainbow Troops*. It tells about ten elementary school children in Belitung struggling for obtaining primary education. The exemplar deeds in the novel are the devotions of Bapak Harfan and Ibu Muslimah, who teach in a remote area with poor educational infrastructure facilities. However, as teachers they are capable of educating elementary school children to develop noble characters that respect others without looking at ethnic, social, and economic backgrounds. The novel becomes a bestseller in Indonesia and is filmed with the same title. One of the effects is that the setting of the novel becomes a tourist destination.

An inter-religion marriage issue is presented in *Keluarga Permana* (1978), a novel by Ramadhan Karta Hadimaja. It presents a perspective concerning consequences of a marriage with different religious backgrounds. It is about a Moslem family that educates their daughter strictly without giving her chances for socialization. Permana, after his resignation, builds a boarding house. FX Soemarto, a young man who is a Catholic, is a tenant who falls in love with the girl, Farida, who has so far been confined in isolation. Then, Farida is pregnant, making all family members who are Moslems angry. After getting married and converting into a Catholic, Farida finally dies when she is hospitalized. Before she dies, the nurse treating her whispers *syahadat* (Moslem confession of faith) and she dies as a Moslem. From the novel it can be learned that to manage a family well it is necessary to respect women and one's religion or belief in order to live happily. The understanding of the author, who is a Moslem, and its readers leads to inter-religion faith understanding.

Forgiveness in the Islamic perspective is presented in Kubah (2011), a novel by Ahmad Tohari. Karman, as a Moslem, converts himself into a communist and an atheist because he is provoked by revenge. However, because of Haji Bakir's exemplary deeds, affection, attention, and forgiveness, eventually Karman realizes his mistakes in embracing communist ideology and becomes a Moslem again and has an opportunity of making a mosque dome without payment. Karman tries to find his way back to God.

Issues of inter-nation marriage are depicted in the novels Saman (1998) by Ayu Utami, Burung-burung Manyar (1981) by YB Mangunwijaya, and Bekisar Merah (1997) by Ahmad Tohari. The character Mbok Wiraji, who is raped by a Japanese soldier, gives birth to a baby daughter called Lasiah or Lasi, who is very beautiful as an Indo-Japanese girl. However, because she is from a lower social class, Lasi cannot have an option on the basis of her conscience, although actually she can have it.

Understanding of issues of social, political, religious, and ethnic interactions in multicultural novels will eventually be capable of providing strong insights into multiculturalism as a culture-uniting device. Understanding and appreciation of differences in the end will strengthen pluralistic principles which are unavoidable in Indonesia with its slogan Unity in Diversity leading to true multicultural society.

Closing Remarks

To end the discussion, it can be concluded that multicultural novels can play a role as a culture-uniting device in global society which tends to be pluralistic and multicultural. However, the multicultural nature does not mean value-free. Multicultural novels containing local, national, and global cultures can express cultural identities without neglecting unique characteristics through the principle of appreciating new cultures.

Multicultural novels that can be used as a culture-uniting device are those the authors write as media of communication among nations to present multicultural values without confinement of identities, ethnic groups, religions, and social classes. Multicultural novels can serve as an alternative for expressing multiculturalism in modern society.

In the midst of the nation's low interest in reading and the increasing inclusive spirit, multicultural novels are necessary as a reading alternative providing enlightenment at school and higher education. The socialization of multicultural values can be done in literature learning at school, multicultural novel discussions, and seminars on multicultural values carried out in both academic forums and co-curricular activities.

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Social and religious values to create a peaceful atmosphere in Albania and in this regard, its continuing contribution

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Abstract

Human being is created to live in dignity in an appropriate disposition of society. This way of life brings many necessities. Because human beings are different from other living things, they build cities, they get married, they build organizations and they set up various professional organizations. According to their own rules, these organizations have their obligations. All human beings are obliged to comply with it. It's not a surprise if sometimes they can't comply because they are facing serious problems. During 1997 Albania experienced bankers' crisis, the state authority has been shaken in a very serious way. During this period, in certain parts the country suffered the security weakness and the administration has passed into the hands of mafia embodiments. In this study, a comparative study was used to figure out social problems within various social ethnic structure in order to solve existing conflicts in the society. Also, the secondary data were utilized to clarify the whole theme. This study focused on the causes that why some cities didn't experienced social crisis during 1997, the same ethnic structure, and also we are trying to focus on the tolerance between religious and sectarian groups in this country which are an example to the world media that influence the formation of the social and religious values. We suggest that tolerance appears a good option to overcome social problems when there is a conflict within the society.

Keywords: Values, Peace, Crisis, Albania.

1. Introduction

The biggest feature that separates man from the other creatures was that it was created as a social being and lives his/her life in society according to certain rules. This is a mandatory situation for the man & woman as being homo-sapience. Because it is not possible to speak about peace in a society where people do not live through complying the rules. In the course of time, this situation has not changed. Even though we had developed societies in terms of technology and richness, but for civilized societies; social respect, peace, and values became more important in order to protect the particular nations. Therefore, the societies are ready to gain these lost values and made great sacrifices in this endeavor.

The last years, many societies in the west encountered serious social problems as the side effects of industrial revolution. Most nations face the main problems such as; immorality, family problems, drugs that have serious impacts on the structure of society, even though protecting groups have been established in some countries after World War II. Despite numerous measures were taken, these problem are growing, and in some states they are reaching worrying situations.

One of the main problems of the 21st century is the provision or failure for providing social atmosphere of peace. Wars, rebellion of the people against the authorities and errors that are made are as old as the history of humankind because of natural part human. The duties to prevent possible problem rest on nations and societies. Especially some of the problems that adversely affect the structure of society arise from the man himself. We must prevent the prevailing and potential factor that is known as "man" has it, and also we should made preventive arrangements accordingly.

As mentioned above, making faults, fault itself and extensive violation of the rules are found in human nature. The most important point is to reduce the maximum of these and to organize activities to deter people in these works. Also we believe that universal human values as well as different forms of life that belong to many societies play a very important role in shaping the consciousness of responsibility, duty and virtue of individuals and also society.

Man was created in such a way that has the ability to do evil and he also tends to do well. It is formed as a result of education received by society and family as well as systematic education that is provided in educational institutions. For this reason, We know that education of generations with the religious and social values is one of the solutions that can

prevent these problems. Because when we confront people who are problematic adults anyway we observe that how they are grown up far away from moral and human values. We take in to account that in the essence of problems, the followings appear as domestic violence, divorce, etc. and also the negligence of spiritual and human values.

The purpose of this research is to analyze the importance and benefit of religious and social values in Albania, it is a state and close in the strategic and geographical position in the Balkans. More than that, it plays a major role in the formation of an atmosphere through peace and dialog.

2. Literature Review

Society can be defined as a union with people who collaborate on some common goals. This set of people in fact is a set of binding. Man is programmed to live in society. Man is a social creature. Because companies are congregations gathered around a particular rule. One of the main conditions of living together is rule and regulations and harmony. People have difficulty living in the community because of being created by different natures, dispositions and also in various families.

Because of living by certain rules, societies have formed the culture of living together. We can call the culture of living together as social peace. Peace is one of the main conditions for the formation of a highly relaxed and happy society where its individuals have confidence in each other. The terms of primary cultures are: mutual respect, acceptance of people in the position they are, and being aware of the behavior of individual responsibility, and also respect for rules and laws in order to live in peace. Establishment of social peace is the most important condition for the formation of healthy and balanced societies.

Ergil D.(1998) relates the establishment of healthy relationships with the development of the pitfalls screening, and an understanding of the anthropological and also cultural changes, but not only in political or ideological terms. The most irreplaceable condition of a good-liveable life is being away from wars and strife.

While Seyyar A. (2010) says that if it does not ensure social peace in society then there will be a transformation which brings serious problem in society. But, security of social peace is possible by developing the awareness that is necessary for supporting each other, and also the process of social dialogue and communication.

Kılıç R.(2005) makes it known that in the foundation of coexistence are some important elements. With the foremost is respecting their laws and regulations. On the other hand, the social and religious values are considered important. Social values are those that we call habits, tradition etc.. At the same time, the religious values are related to religious commands and temples of worship. Prohibitions such as "sin", "shame" or "forbidden" are prohibited by religion, morality and jurisprudence as well as they are thought as obstacles that put limits to human freedom. From this aspect, we can say that living in peace and security is possible with the limits that put forward morality, religion and jurisprudence.

Sancaklı S.(2009) has emphasized the place that religious and moral values are available in society. According to him, religious and moral values are very important for the formation of a healthy individual and society. In his viewpoint, religion is the guarantee of living healthy and safely in society. The loss of these values gives way to spiritual decay and destruction of society. Consequently, it also brings its demolition.

For this reason, these values should be given proper importance and should follow policies that protect these values and ensure passage of their posterity. So educational institutions play important roles for the transmission of values to future generations, also the media is important in their transmission to different age groups. In addition to, sins and errors are the main factors of moral decay. The rules of morality are elements that inhibit individual regardless of age. With the loss of these spiritual elements, starts the period of faults and mistakes. (Altıntaş H. 1989)

In Albania, religious and social values serve for the formation of a more peaceful atmosphere. In general, the Balkan and especially Albania is a region that has recently become very delicate at this point. The fight which took place some time ago in Kosovo, that fight is an indication that this region is founded on more delicate balances. In Macedonia, Greece, Italy there considerable amount of Albanian population and besides creating balanced policy on this region, it is essential the preparation of educational programs for citizens to proceed and protect the culture of coexistence. Now in some key points, we will try to analyze religious and social values that have influence in the construction of peace.

3. Discussions

1. Galleries, an example for interfaith dialogue activities. Albania is a country where most of the population is Muslim. Furthermore, in different parts of the country people are also Orthodox and Catholic. Despite the fact that the population has the same ethnicity, they practice different religions, as an example for Europe as well as for world-wide. For many centuries, there was no clash in religious aspects. Nowadays even more marriages are available between citizens of different religions. Families are tolerant about the religions of their children's choice. This ensures the continuity of a peaceful atmosphere.

Another value which contributes in the religious peace in Albania are also the religious celebrations. Muslims as well as Christians celebrate these holidays in a brotherly atmosphere. In all cities, the greatest representatives of the state visit the respective representative and congratulate them. For example, in Ramadan when E id-ul-adha starts, the president, prime minister, ministers, ambassadors, etc. they all congratulate the Muslim Community in Albania. In addition, the representatives of other religions act in the same manner by sharing the values of the beautiful state.

2. Cooperation in times of crisis. In 1997, Albania passed through a banking crisis and had rebellion in all cities of the country. At a certain period, in these cities there was not provided state authority while the direction of the city was taken by the militant groups. One of these cities is Shkodra. In this city Muslims live with the Christians. In this difficult time, there was widespread news which upset both the Muslims and the Christians.

According to news, there was a rumor that Muslims would burn Catholic church and the Christians would burn the mosque. Even the banking crisis had reached its peaks. This statement shocked the residents of Shkodra. But, thanks to the tolerant atmosphere of living together in Albania for centuries, it became clear that the goal was to enter the conflict between Christians and Muslims. Therefore Muslims went to defend the church while the Christians were going to defend the mosque. In this way the problem was solved and it was such a solution that changed the progress of history. Albanians even in the biggest crises, have shown tolerance to protect other values besides their values.

3. Acting according to the values in times of crisis. As already stated above, Albania had experienced a crisis in 1997 where the direction of the city was taken by various illegal groups and events were not pleasant. The most important point of this topic is that while in some cities many events were occurring in the religious aspects in some other such events were superficial. In cities where these events were numerous people came and were collected from different locations. In countries where values such as kingship, neighborhood, friendship, and society had greater importance, these problems occurred less, while in other cities where this values had little importance, these negative phenomena were encountered more. For example, While in a small town like Cerrik, there were policeman killed, in a town like Kavaja where nothing happened like this.

4. Example about Neighbory Relations: Albania has been an example to the world in terms of neighbory relations. Albanian Muslims and Christians live in the same neighborhood, in the same street together; even marriages with members of these religions are founded. This way of life has also created its own challenges and requirements. But with these requirements exceed Albanian people has exceeded the sample application in the world. In Albania there are no separate living areas for Muslims and Christians.

People from different religions live in peace together in the same floor, in the same building and in the same neighborhood. Individuals' behavior has contributed significantly this revealed atmosphere of peace. I would like to give an example of this behavior. There are of course some responsibility neighbory relations. Visits on special occasions made at each other are some of them. Sensitive point here, which is forbidden for Muslims to defeat Christians, is the use of pork. Christians are aware of this situation and they use to have different pots and pans in their homes. When Christians cook something for Muslims they use these pots and pans. Even in the 90s in Shkoder was organized a meal for Muslims in the village but they couldn't find other meat except of pork meat, so they bought the meat from other villages. Such a sensitive thought among Muslims and Christians can be an example to the world and this has led to an atmosphere of peace. Even a simple pot or pan in creating the social order of society is seriously effectible.

5. Respect for Religious Values: In the early 1990s, after the end of communism, Muslims and Christians have helped each other to organize ancestral graves. On the other hand, after the end of communism they used to participate at each others special days, Friday and Sunday worship will be an example to the world and an image of peace in the religion.

4. Conclusions and findings

Peace and tranquility are among the key needs of the societies. Providing such an atmosphere depends on individual basis and on the sacrifices of their worldview. Societies that have a higher outlooks on values to ensure peace and tranquility

make great sacrifices. In times of crisis these features have influence and a double importance. Societies that pay attention to values and that tend to respect them in difficult times, find easier to solve even the most difficult problems. For this reason, in the name of the values that run these societies, there should be made the appropriate programs in the institutions of formal and informal education in order to edify due values for the protection of society in difficult situations.

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PSYCHOLOGICAL FACTORS OF ETHNIC EXTREMISM IN MUSLIM YOUTH

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Abstract

The aim of the research was to reveal the correlations between the extreme forms of ethnic identity and some personal traits involved in intercultural communication. Also the task of the research was to analyze cultural specificity in ethnic extremism manifestations at Muslim youth. 420 young people from 6 regions of the world (Russia, China, South America, Africa, the Middle East and Central Asia) took part in the research; among them 81 people from the Middle East countries and 60 – from the former soviet Central Asian countries. 14 psychodiagnostic techniques were used to measure various personal features associated with cross-cultural communication. The technique "Types of ethnic identity" (G.U.Soldatova, S.V.Ryzhova) was applied for diagnosing the types of identity with different degrees of ethnic tolerance that were marked on a wide range of ethnocentrism scale. We used statistical techniques: Kruskal Wallis test, Multiple range tests, multifactorial dispersive analysis, Spearman's rank correlation coefficient. The comparative analysis of young people, who responded high scores in extreme form of ethnic identity (ethnic bigotry or fanaticism) (147) and those who showed low levels of ethnic bigotry (134), revealed that persons inclined to ethnic bigotry were less tolerant not only for other ethnic group, but to any manifestations of individuality and to other social groups: they were more egocentric, not able to adjust themselves to different situations and people. They couldn't control their negative emotions and were less able to recognize the other's emotions by facial expression (especially fear, disgust and contempt). Also they were not sure in the world controllability; are less flexible in their activity control. Correlation analysis on general sample showed that ethnic bigotry inversely correlated with the life purposes awareness, internal locus of control, positive self – image, social and emotional intelligence, flexibility in the activity regulation. Positive correlation of ethnic extremism with disbelief in the world controllability, egocentrism and apartness in interpersonal relations were revealed. Correlation analysis in Arab and Central Asian two subsamples showed some specific relations of ethnic bigotry and personal features. So, we can conclude that generally ethnic extremism correlates with rather controversial and conflict styles of self-realization and communication. Young people with extreme attitude toward other nations clearly realize their life goals, but they don't believe in their approachability and don't have enough abilities to interact with other people feeling the apartness in their personal interaction. The styles of interethnic communication of young representatives of different Muslim nations have some common features with the representatives of other nations, and have some specific features as well. Arab youth ethnic extremism correlates mostly with social stereotypes and hostility to other social groups, and Central Asian youth extremism correlates with intolerance to the other people individuality manifestation. Personal resources for the ethnic extremism reduction could be - for Arab people - their self - control in emotions and activity; and for the Central Asian people - concentration on their life goals. The research was supported by the Russian Humanitarian Science Foundation, project № 13-06-00673.

Keywords: Ethnic Identity, Ethnic Extremism, Ethnic Bigotry, Fanaticism, Intercultural Communication, Ethnic Tolerance, Ethnocentrism.

Introduction

Globalization processes taking place in the modern world, in addition to a large number of positive effects have some negative trends. In particular, the blurring of ethnic boundaries leads to the growth of national consciousness among the population up to its extreme manifestations. Intensification of intercultural contacts not only enriches the interacting cultures mutually, but also leads to an intensification of ethnic conflicts, to the growing of ethnic fanaticism manifestations and interethnic conflicts fomenting.

Ethnic extremism and fanaticism are often discussed in close conjunction with religious fanaticism; it is assumed that differences in religious persuasions are the main factors of the ethnic conflicts. This has led some to the conclusion that ethnic conflicts may be an inevitable result of intensive intercultural interaction.

In the modern world terrorism has become associated primarily with the Muslim religion. (Franz, 2007). The attacks committed by a tiny number of young Muslims cause the stigmatization of young Muslims around the world (Franz, 2007;

Mythen, G., Walklate, S. & Khan, F., 2009; McDonald, 2011). "The West has stereotyped Islam as a strange religion, completely different from Christianity or Judaism" (Cesari, 2002). Young Muslims have been the object of ideological struggle between the security, developing methods terrorism combating and terrorist recruiters. Also in recent times appears the information on the involvement of representatives of other religions in Muslim terrorist organizations.

In this regard, for psychologists the personal characteristics of young people who are prone to ethnic extremism are of particular importance. It is also important to research into the role of personality factors, religion, and social situation in the radicalization of ethnic attitudes of young people.

Extremism in interethnic relations we consider in the context of John Berry's theory of intercultural strategies. Berry understood the strategy of intercultural interaction as the link between attitudes and actual behavior (Berry, 1997). Numerous empirical studies have shown a relationship between acculturation strategies and styles of ethnic identity (Sumner, 1906). Berry allocated the types of ethnic identity with different quality and degree of ethnic tolerance on the basis of a wide range of ethnocentrism scale, ranging from identity denial when negativity and intolerance towards one's own ethnic group are fixed, and ending national fanaticism - the apotheosis of intolerance and a higher degree of negativity towards other ethnic groups.

Berry (1997) considered integration, wherein minority representatives harmoniously combine positive attitudes toward their own culture and dominant community. The assimilation (abandoning of the traditional cultures to strengthen ties with the dominant culture) and the separation (avoidance of the ties with larger society) are considered less positive strategies. The most destructive strategy, according Berry, is the marginalization (lack of adherence to any culture). The extreme forms of ethnocentrism is associated with religious fanaticism and racism and lead to violence and aggression (Saessalo, 1977).

On the basis of Berry's theory G.U. Soldatova and S.V. Ryzhova developed the typology and technique for assessing the ethnic identity types. They allocated the following types: Ethnic nihilism – removing from one's own ethnic groups and looking for social ties not on ethnic criteria; Ethnic indifference - ethnic identity blurring, irrelevance of the ethnicity; Positive ethnic identity - optimal balance of tolerance towards one's own and other ethnic groups; Ethnic egoism - recognition of own nation's right to solve problems for the "foreign" account; Ethnic isolationism - belief in one's nation superiority and xenophobia; Ethnic bigotry (fanaticism) suggesting the willingness to go all lengths for the sake of ethnic interests, denying the other nations rights to use any resources and social privileges, recognition of the priority of ethnic rights over human rights, excuse of any sacrifice in the struggle for own nation well-being.

Thus, psychology already formed certain ideas about the nature of ethnic extremism and fanaticism. But to optimize cross-cultural contacts and reduce ethnic conflict it is necessary to identify cross-cultural features of ethnic extremism manifestations, as well as to reveal their personal and social factors.

Method

Participants

The sample included 420 students of different Russian universities from 5 regions of the world: Russia (69) South East Asia (80), Africa (60), South America (69), The Middle East (81), Central Asia (60) from 50 countries. The ages of the participants were 18 -25 years old, the mean age - 21.3 years old. Among the participants were 188 boys and 162 girls. Religious affiliation of the subjects: 123 - Christians, 152 Muslims, 75 Buddhists, 70 persons didn't report their religious affiliation.

Materials

Personal Information Form: This form was consisted of questions about gender, age, country of origin, university, religion.

The technique "Types of ethnic identity" (G.U.Soldatova, S.V.Ryzhova). This technique allows the diagnosis of ethnic identity and its transformation in the context of the ethnic interaction. The questionnaire contains six scales that correspond to the types of ethnic identity, described above. (Soldatova & Shaygerova (Ed.), 2008)

For investigating personal factors of ethnic identity types we used the techniques for diagnosing different personal qualities involved in intercultural communication (Chebotareva, 2012-2014, Novikova & Ibadova, 2009, Novikova, 2010)

"Indicator of Stress Overcoming Strategies" (D. Amirhan) measures the severity of strategies: problem solving, searching for social support, avoiding problems (ignoring them). (Yaltonsky & Sirota, 1996).

"Test of the Life Meanings Orientations" (D.A.Leontev) is an adapted version of " Purpose-in-Life Test" (PIL) (Crumbaugh, Maholick). The test assesses the overall meaningfulness of life, and also contains five subscales, reflecting the components of it. The subscales conditionally are divided into two groups. The first group reveal proper life meaning orientations: the goals in life (the future), the richness of life (the present) and satisfaction with self-realization (the past). The second group of scales is devoted to internal locus of control: one is about general philosophical belief that control is possible, and the second is about the belief in the person's own ability to exercise such a control (self-image). (Leontiev, 2000).

"Scale of base convictions" (R. Janov-Bulman) The technique was developed in the framework of the cognitive concept of the base beliefs. In accordance with it one of the basic sensations of a normal person is a healthy sense of security. For R. Janov-Bulman, it is based on three categories of base beliefs that make up the core of our subjective world: belief that the world is good rather than evil; belief that the world is full of meaning; belief in the value of one's own "I". This method identifies eight categories of beliefs: benevolence of world, benevolence of people, justice of the world, control over the world, randomness of life events, self-worth, self-control, luckiness. (Soldatova & Shaygerova (Ed.), 2003)

"Scale of social distance" (E. Bogardus) in modification of V.N. Pavlenko and S.A. Taglin. In this modification, the subjects were asked to choose from the list of all possible social roles, which they agreed to provide the typical representatives of particular ethnic groups. We offered to the students to estimate their desired distance with representatives of all the studied regions. (Stefanenko, 2006).

"Who am I ?" – Twenty Statements Attitude Test (M. Kun, T. Macpartlend) we used for investigating the qualitative characteristics of personal identity. It is non-standardized self-report version. The respondents had within 12 minutes to give twenty different answers to the question: "Who am I?". The responses received were processed using content analysis. (Burlarchuk & Morozov, 1999).

" Measurement of social intelligence" (J. Guilford) diagnoses four abilities, namely the ability to foresee the consequences of the behavior; understanding non-verbal communication; understanding verbal expression; holistic understanding of the interpersonal situations dynamics.

"Questionnaire of emotional intelligence" (D.V. Ljusin) measures the emotional intelligence (EI) which is interpreted as the ability to understand own and other people's emotions and to regulate own and other people's emotions. (Lusin & Ushakov (Ed.), 2004).

"Gnosis Facialis Foto" (J. Merten, J. Spang) consists of 28 pictures, which show the following emotional states: joy, fear, disgust, surprise, anger, sadness / grief, contempt. The photos show the male (14) and female (14) Caucasians. Each emotion was represented by 4 photos (2 male, 2 female photos). (Bezmenov & Belovol, 2007).

"Style of self-control" (V.I. Morosanova). The statements of the questionnaire are included in the six scales allocated in accordance with the basic regulatory processes: planning, modeling, programming, the results assessment, and personal regulatory traits: flexibility and independence. (Morosanova, 2004).

Adaptation (A.I. Krupnov) Five scales of the test reflect certain problems and difficulties in the foreign students adaptation (associated with the implementation of sociability, confidence; severity asthenic emotions, inability to regulate them, the strength of feelings of nostalgia and alienation). In general, these scales reflect the degree of disadaptation. Last scale - adaptability - reflects a person's willingness to interact constructively with the new environment. (Chebotareva, 2012)

Person's adaptation to the New Social and Cultural environment (L.V. Yankovsky , T.G.Stefanenko, M.S.Panova) The technique includes six scales: the first three of which (Satisfaction, Interactivity, Conformity) show quite "positive" indicators of intercultural adaptation, the following three (Depressiveness, Nostalgia, Alienation) - certain problems in adapting (Sonin V.A., 2004).

Tolerance Index (G.U.Soldatova, O.A.Kravtsova, O.E. Hukhlaev) helps to determine the overall level of tolerance and the degree of ethnic, social tolerance and the tolerance as personality trait (Pochebut, 2005).

"Diagnostics of the General Communicative Tolerance" (V.V. Bojko). The questionnaire items are grouped into nine scales: Rejection or misunderstanding of other persons' identity; Using oneself as a standard when assessing the behavior and way of thinking of other people; Categoricity or conservatism in the estimates of other people; Inability to hide or smooth over bad feelings when faced with some uncommunicative characteristics of the partners; Desire to change, reeducate the partners; Desire to fit partners for themselves, to make them "convenient"; Inability to forgive the others' mistakes, clumsiness, unintentionally caused trouble; Intolerance to physical or mental discomfort caused by the other people; Inability to adapt to the character, habits and desires of others. (Soldatova & Shaygerova (Ed.), 2008).

We used statistical techniques: Mann — Whitney U-test, Spearman's rank correlation coefficient.

Procedure

The procedure of the research was approved by the Department of Social and Differential Psychology of Peoples' Friendship University of Russia (PFUR). All the questionnaires were translated into English, French, Spanish, Arabic and Chinese, the translated versions were pre-tested. Each subject was offered questionnaires in their native language (or in the language, which he/she use since their childhood). The survey was conducted personally by PFUR psychology students among their compatriots studying in various Russian universities. Each test was performed during 3-5 meetings, 30 minutes each.

Results

At the first stage of the data analysis the entire sample was divided into three groups based on the level of diagnosed ethnic fanaticism. The group with high levels of ethnic fanaticism included 134 students, a group with medium level -- 138, and with low level - 148. Next, we conducted a comparative analysis of students with high and low level of ethnic fanaticism ($p = 0.000000\dots$).

Finding of differences between students with high and low levels of ethnic fanaticism

We have found statistically significant differences in severity of all types of cross-cultural interaction. Students with low fanaticism showed higher level of positive ethnic identity ($p = 0, 02$). Students with higher level of ethnic fanaticism showed higher levels of all studied deviations in ethnic identity: ethnic nihilism ($p = 0, 03$), ethnic indifference ($p = 0, 05$), ethnic egoism ($p = 0, 000000\dots$), ethnic isolation ($p = 0, 000000\dots$).

Students with high fanaticism showed less willingness to cooperate with other ethnic groups representatives ($p = 0, 05$), especially great distance they felt with the representatives of Africa ($p = 0, 001$) and Central Asia ($p = 0, 001$).

Significant differences were found between these groups in the general level of communicative tolerance, as well as in many individual scales of the test. Persons with high level of fanaticism showed significantly higher level of communicative intolerance ($p = 0, 003$). They also more often use themselves as a standard when assessing the behavior and way of thinking of other people ($p = 0, 0004$), try to change, reeducate their partners ($p = 0, 05$), try to fit their partners for themselves, to make them "convenient" ($p = 0, 0007$), not able to hide or smooth over their bad feelings when faced with some uncommunicative characteristics of their partners ($p = 0, 03$), not able to adapt to the character, habits and desires of others ($p = 0, 002$); intolerant to physical or mental discomfort caused by the other people ($0, 02$).

In the sphere of the base convictions the only statistically significant difference between two studied groups was discovered in variable of belief in randomness of events in the world. Persons with high fanaticism to a greater extent share this conviction ($p = 0, 007$). People with low fanaticism mostly believe that some predefined order of world events exists.

We found that students with different levels of fanaticism differed in their ability to recognize facial expressions of emotion. Students with high fanaticism in general recognized mimetic emotional expression worse than people with low fanaticism ($p = 0, 04$), in particular, significant differences were found in the recognition of fear ($p = 0, 01$), disgust ($p = 0, 01$), anger ($p = 0, 05$), contempt ($p = 0, 04$).

In the sphere of self-regulation the only statistically significant difference between two studied groups was discovered in variable of flexibility. Persons with high fanaticism were much less flexible in their activity than persons with low fanaticism ($p = 0, 003$).

There were no statistically significant differences between two studied groups in intercultural adaptation, stress overcoming strategies, life meanings orientations, social and emotional intelligence and general tolerance (diagnosing with «Tolerance Index» test).

Finding of correlation analysis

The types of ethnic identity displayed statistically significant correlations with almost all the studied personality characteristics that define the nature of intercultural interaction, except stress overcoming strategies and intercultural

adaptation (Yankovsky test). Totally 304 statistically significant correlations were found at the significance level $p \leq 0,05$. Therefore, in this paper we are presenting only correlations of ethnic fanaticism. It should be noted that the variable of ethnic fanaticism found the smallest number of links to personal characteristics, as well as variable of ethnic indifference. All the other ethnic identity types found much more significant correlation with personal characteristics.

High level of fanaticism in interethnic relations demonstrates significant direct correlation with the general level of communicative tolerance, as well as with the same variables, in which significant differences between the groups were found: perceiving themselves as a standard when assessing the behavior and way of thinking of other people ($p=0,0004$), try to change, reeducate their partners ($p=0,05$), try to fit their partners for themselves, to make them "convenient" ($p=0,0007$), not able to hide or smooth over their bad feelings when faced with some uncommunicative characteristics of their partners ($p=0,03$), not able to adapt to the character, habits and desires of others ($p=0,002$); intolerant to physical or mental discomfort caused by the other people (0,02).

Also the inverse significant correlation of ethnic fanaticism with ethnic tolerance level was found.

Among the indicators of foreign students intercultural adaptation the sense of alienation showed a direct significant relationship with their fanaticism in intercultural relations. The high level of ethnic bigotry is inversely correlated with the number of social roles provided by representatives of almost all considered ethnic groups except South-East Asia and South America.

In the field of life meaning orientations ethnic fanaticism found significant correlations with the general level of life meaningfulness, with clear understanding of one's goals in life and with internal locus of self-control.

In base convictions ethnic fanaticism found direct correlation with the conviction in random character of the world events in, which once again confirms the above described Mann-Whitney test data. And also correlation of fanaticism with awareness of their own "I" values was discovered.

Although significant correlations of fanaticism with overall levels of social and emotional intelligence have not been identified, there were links to their individual scales. In particular, ethnic bigotry inversely related to the non-verbal expression understanding and understanding of emotions (especially the emotions of others). Correlation analysis also confirmed and supplemented Mann-Whitney test data, finding significant correlations of ethnic bigotry with the general ability to understand the emotions of facial expressions and with abilities to understand almost all emotions, checked by the test, but emotion of joy.

In self-regulation styles U-test data also have been confirmed, significant inverse association of behavior flexibility with fanaticism was detected.

Finding of differences in ethnic identity styles between students belonging to different religions

The aim of the next stage of our study was to compare the styles of ethnic identity of students belonging to different religions. We conducted a comparative analysis of three groups: Christians, Muslims and Buddhists. Every religious group included students from different regions of the world. Statistically significant differences between the groups for any variables of ethnic identity were not revealed. Only the trend can be noted that Muslims had somewhat less pronounced positive ethnic identity than the other, and a bit higher level of ethnic isolationism. In levels of ethnic fanaticism these three groups did not differ significantly: average levels in all three groups were similar.

Finding of cross-cultural analysis of ethnic identity styles of Muslim students

At the next step, we conducted the comparative analysis of ethnic identity of Muslims young persons from two different regions of the world: the Middle East and Central Asia.

The overall ethnic identity profiles of in both groups were similar. In ethnic identity of the students from the Middle East and from Central Asia prevailed positive ethnic identity (12.9 / 15.4 respectively, max = 20), all deviations from this type were much less expressed. Among other types most strongly expressed were ethnic indifference (9.6 / 10.5), followed by ethnic bigotry (9,2 / 7,9), then ethnic isolation (8,7 / 6,2) and, ethnic egoism (8,3 / 5.9). Least of all in both groups went ethnic nihilism (7.0 / 4.8). For all of the variables the differences were statistically significant. The most significant differences were in the levels of positive ethnic identity ($p = 0,00002$), ethnic nihilism ($p = 0,00007$) and ethnic fanaticism (bigotry) ($p = 0.020$). For the remaining scales differences were at the level $p = 0.05$.

To better understand the differences in the two groups' ethnic extremism manifestations, we conducted a correlation analysis of all variables of interest for each of the subsamples.

In the group of students from the Middle East, as well as in the total sample were found significant direct links of ethnic bigotry with general communicative intolerance, especially with rejection or misunderstanding of other persons' identity, using oneself as a standard when assessing the behavior and way of thinking of other people, categoricity or conservatism in the estimates of other people; inability to hide or smooth over bad feelings when faced with some uncommunicative characteristics of the partners; desire to fit partners for themselves, to make them "convenient". Here as well as in the total sample fanaticism was associated with a sense of alienation in interpersonal relationships in situations of intercultural communication, and with conviction in randomness of the world events.

In the total sample ethnic bigotry was inversely related to ethnic tolerance, but in this group it was associated with intolerance to different social groups, somehow different from the dominant culture in the society.

Fanaticism's inverse correlation with behavior flexibility revealed in the general sample, in this group didn't reach the level of significance. But here specific for this group inverse correlation of ethnic fanaticism with the ability to simulate future results of activities was detected.

Among the life meaning orientations, as well as in the total group, ethnic bigotry was inversely associated with the clearly perceived goals in life. In the area of basic convictions the correlations differed from general trends. For students from the Middle East ethnic bigotry was inversely related to the belief that life events may be controlled, and it was directly linked with the belief in the people benevolence.

The significant correlations of ethnic bigotry with variables of social intelligence in this group were not found. But there were more than the in the total sample significant inverse links with the various parameters of emotional intelligence, in particular, with interpersonal and intrapersonal emotional intelligence, understanding emotions (primarily of the others) and regulation of emotions (especially one's own).

It is interesting that among the variables of emotions recognition in facial expressions were found only one significant correlation of ethnic bigotry - with the recognition of fear.

In the group of the Central Asian students we discovered less correlations of ethnic fanaticism with communicative intolerance than in total sample. Here it is linked only with using oneself as a standard when assessing the behavior and way of thinking of other people, categoricity or conservatism in the estimates of other people and desire try to change, reeducate their partners.

At the Central Asian students ethnic bigotry inversely correlated with all types of tolerance under consideration (ethnic, social and personal), but mostly - with ethnic one.

In the field of cross-cultural adaptation the level of ethnic fanaticism not only directly correlated with the sense of alienation, as in the total sample and in the Middle East students group, but also inversely correlated with the satisfaction with one's adaptation. But what is particularly interesting in this group high level of ethnic bigotry directly linked to the adaptability, willingness to make an effort to interact with the new culture.

In the regulatory sphere of the Central Asian students ethnic fanaticism was inversely related to the ability to program their own actions. In contrast to the total sample and to the group of Middle East students, at the Central Asian students significant direct connections of ethnic fanaticism with such solving problems styles as searching for social support and avoidance were detected.

In the total sample we saw ethnic fanaticism's inverse correlation with life meaningfulness, and in both above described groups - with the clearly perceived life goals, but in the group of Central Asian students we could see the opposite trend. Here ethnic bigotry was directly linked to the general level of life meaning, and with its individual indicators, such as clearly perceived goals, confidence in one's ability to control own life, focus on the life process, ie desire to enjoy the moment.

Also, along with the common for all the considered groups correlation of fanaticism with conviction in the randomness of the life events, in the group of Central Asian students were found significant direct connections of fanaticism with conviction in the world controllability and one's own luck.

In social intelligence in this group also specific connection of ethnic fanaticism with the capacity for non-verbal expressions evaluation were noted. In emotional intelligence in this group the only significant inverse association of fanaticism with ability to emotions regulation were noted. And, as in the total group, here ethnic fanaticism inversely related to both the general ability to recognize emotions, and in particular - to the ability to recognize almost all the emotion, but joy.

Discussion

According to the research data, students with extreme attitude toward other nations more often have deviations in their ethnic identity types, both toward hypoidentity (neglecting ethnicity problems) and toward hyperidentity (increased importance of ethnicity problems). Thus in general their styles of ethnic identity and accordingly styles of intercultural interaction may be determined as controversial. In any case such people prefer to keep a great distance with other nations' representatives. Not surprising that such people feel alienation in a new cultural environment.

These students display intolerance not only in interethnic communication, but as well in interpersonal interaction with representatives of their own nation. They don't accept other people's individuality; have not enough competences for constructive interaction with different people. In relations they take mainly sociocentric position.

Propensity to extremism in relations associated with a number of personality characteristics. Their world view is characterized by the belief in random nature of the world events, by the conviction that man cannot control these events and affect them in any way. Young people with extremist ethnic sets have lower levels of their life meaningfulness. They not so clearly aware their life goals and do not take responsibility for their own lives and personal development.

Young persons with high fanaticism have certain difficulties in communication, in particular, they hardly recognize other people's emotional expression, especially negative emotions, such as fear, disgust, anger, contempt. Also such persons have difficulties with flexible changing their behavior in accordance with the changing circumstances.

Thus, it can be argued that not only ethnic identity style of young people with high ethnic fanaticism is controversial, but their overall style of self-realization in different spheres of life. Important factors of such attitudes are the low level of skills for effective communication and regulation of their own activities, as well as egocentric position in conjunction with the conviction in unpredictability and uncontrollability of the world.

We carried out comparative analyzes of religious and ethnic groups. These analysis showed no statistically significant differences in the styles of ethnic identity among religions, but found significant differences in the severity of all types of ethnic identity. This suggests that the factor of ethnicity plays more important role than the factor of religion. That is, people of different countries belonging to the same religion differ in their styles of intercultural interaction more than the representatives of one religion, living in one country.

The comparative analysis of ethnic identity of Muslims young persons from two different regions of the world (the Middle East and Central Asia) helped us to reveal not only differences in their levels of ethnic fanaticism, but also ethnic peculiarities in possible mechanisms of ethnic extremism formation.

These comparative analysis showed that students from the Middle East had much more pronounced ethnic bigotry and various deviations of ethnic identity. And students from Central Asia had more pronounced positive ethnic identity. Ethnic fanaticism in these two ethnic groups showed specific ties with personal characteristics.

At the students from the Middle East ethnic bigotry was connected not as much with ethnic intolerance as with social tolerance, ie rejection characteristics of different social groups. Also fanaticism of these students was associated with low ability for modeling future outcomes of one's activities, with difficulty in understanding the others' emotions and in regulating one's own emotions. In addition, their ethnic bigotry is directly related to conviction in the people benevolence. Summarizing these data, we can assume that extremism in interethnic relations of Middle Eastern students associated with difficulties in achieving their goals in their activity and communication, with their tendency to rely on other people. In other cultures surrounding, naturally, it is not so easy to find people they can rely on (considering the communication difficulties), all that apparently cause some tension and the desire to oppose their own and others' ethnic groups.

At the Central Asian students' group ethnic bigotry to a lesser extent related to the general communicative intolerance, but it is more related to the general ethnic intolerance. That is, possibly, ethnic bigotry of Central Asia representatives has less to do with the general attitude of the people, but and only applies to situations of interethnic interaction. This is confirmed by the inverse correlation of fanaticism with cross-cultural adaptation satisfaction. That is, perhaps, ethnic bigotry in this group can be regarded as a consequence of unsuccessful intercultural adaptation.

In addition, our findings suggest that the lack of success in adaptation in this group, in turn, is associated with poor ability to program its activities, with a tendency to avoid problems or to seek help of others. Apparently, the Central Asian students who are prone to extremism in interethnic relations, in contrast to other, are well aware of their goals in life, confident in their abilities, but have difficulties in deliberate and systematic activities aimed at achieving these goals, as more focused

on the process than the outcome. This is confirmed by detected inverse correlations of fanaticism with ability to control their own emotions.

Thus, we can draw the following conclusions:

Generally ethnic extremism correlates with rather controversial and conflict styles of self-realization.

Young people with extreme attitude toward other nations clearly realize their life goals, but they don't believe in the goals approachability, don't have enough abilities to interact with other people, feel certain level of apartness in personal interaction.

Interethnic communication styles of representatives of different Muslim nations have some common features with the other nations, and - some specific features:

Central Asian young people more often show acceptance of their own and other people ethnicity and individuality.

The Arab youth ethnic extremism correlates mostly with social stereotypes and hostility to other social groups. Central Asian youth extremism correlates with intolerance to the other people individuality manifestation.

Psychological factors of Arab young people extremism are low life meaningfulness, absence of clear life goals, conviction in unpredictable and uncontrollable world, in the people's benevolence and the desire to rely on others in setting and achieving their life goals. For Central Asian young people psychological factors of extremism are contradictions between clear understanding of their life goals and their low ability for systematic efforts to achieve these goals. For both groups important factor of ethnic extremism is low communicative competences, especially understanding the other people's emotions and regulation of their own emotions.

Personal resources for the ethnic extremism reduction could be: for Arab people - their self - control in emotions and activity; for the Central Asian people - concentration on their life goals. Positive and strong social support may help all to feel important and valued, to understand their life goals and values better, to feel less lonely and isolated, to have higher self confidence and self-esteem, to understand other people better, to develop their social competences.

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Laboratory of Development and Evaluation of Transversal Skills - LaDETS: a pilot project in the Bachelor of Education of the University of Minho (Portugal)

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Abstract

This paper presents the research project: "Creation of a pedagogical laboratory (Laboratory of Development and Evaluation of Transversal Skills - LaDETS): a pilot project in the Bachelor of Education of the University of Minho". The University of Minho (UM) is an institution of Higher Education located in Braga (Portugal) and, from the diversity of areas that compose its curriculum, this study focuses on the Bachelor of Education. Established in 1991 and restructured in 2006 as a result of the need to adapt to the Bologna process, the Bachelor of Education does not aim to prepare students for teaching functions in the formal education system, but seeks to answer the needs of a wide and varied field of educational and training activities, in a dynamic of development and update of diverse and complex skills in the area of Lifelong Learning. Accordingly, the institutions with educational purposes - both in formal and non-formal contexts - and the social and cultural activities where the educational and training dimensions are crucial to the qualification and empowerment of people, stand out as potential spheres of work for those who graduate in Education. Therefore, the Education Professionals exert their activity inside and outside the education system and, increasingly, in emerging contexts, using various types of intervention, such as training, sociocultural animation and mediation. In this sense, the technical skills that students should develop along the Bachelor of Education are of a diverse nature. Nevertheless, the investment in the development of transversal skills (including communication, conflict management, teamwork, critical thinking, creativity, problem solving) are increasingly valued by employers in a logic of adaptability to new situations and it is in this context that this research and the creation of the LaDETS emerge as a complement to the Curricular Plan. The activities carried out in the LaDETS are supported by both constructivist paradigm and experiential learning theories and are based on active methodologies such as Problem-Based Learning and simulation environments. The purpose is to confront the students of the Bachelor of Education with problems based on real contexts and situations, in order to enhance their awareness of the transversal skills they already have and promote the development of others, in a setting where those same skills can be evaluated. Hence, the intention is to contribute, on one hand, to bring students closer to the reality of the labor market, their constraints and requirements and, on the other hand, to design a framework of evaluation in this field, pointing towards pedagogical innovation in Education in Higher Education. Regarding the methodology, the project is based on an action-research approach. This article aims to present the study, making a brief reference to the state of the art, the methodological choices that were made and the different stages of the research, ending with a brief reflection on the expectations in terms of results.

Keywords: Education, Transversal Skills, Evaluation, Higher Education

Introduction

The pedagogical innovation in Higher Education has been the object of analysis (Vieira et al, 2004; Vieira et al, 2002), especially since the accession to the Bologna Process and considering the current context, where mobility and transferability of skills have become key concepts in political and educational discourses, as well as in those of the employers (Kishore, 2013; Silver & Harris, 2009; Markert, 2002).

To deal with the rising unemployment and the shrinking of the economic growth, it is necessary to mobilize Higher Education students to participate in learning experiences that, being new or complementary opportunities to their training, may contribute to improve their competitiveness, progress and adaptability to new situations and new jobs and also increase productivity and economic growth. The development of ever more skills, contextualized, on one hand, but transversal, on

the other, in a logic of Lifelong Learning, becomes a priority to respond to the constant economic and technological changes we face in contemporary society.

The investment in the development and transferability of transversal skills (including communication, conflict management, teamwork, critical thinking, creativity, problem solving), increasingly valued by employers (Kishore, 2013; Silver & Harris, 2009), can facilitate the mobility of individuals in professional terms, broadening their employability horizons, once they become more competitive and able to deal with unforeseen situations.

But one of the issues that many authors question (Alves & Machado, 2011; De Ketele 2011, 2008; Tardif & Dubois, 2011; Alves, 2006) is related to the process that involves the evaluation of skills, namely, the transversal ones. Zarifian (1999) defines skill as the practical intelligence headed to situations that are based on the knowledge already acquired, transforming it. It is a "know how to act" (Le Boterf, 2005) that implies knowing how to mobilize capabilities, knowledge and abilities in a given context. In this sense, to evaluate skills, it becomes essential to observe knowledge in action.

Thus, in order to promote optimal and innovative conditions for learning that facilitate skills' training and evaluation, several institutions of Higher Education have already invested in labs and projects that aim the development and evaluation of technical and transversal skills, using active methodologies such as Problem-based Learning (PBL) and simulation environments (Liu & Olson, 2011; Annerstedt, Garza, Huang-DeVoss, Lindh & Rydmark, 2010; Oliveira, 2009; Varga et al., 2009; Santos & Infante-Malachias, 2008; Filho & Romano, 2007).

Grounded on a constructivist perspective, the PBL methodology is based on problem situations, from which students reflect, mobilizing different disciplinary knowledge. As a result, this approach stimulates the development, amongst others, of critical thinking, cooperative and independent learning and improves the capacity of decision-making, promoting an overview of the real problems that occur in professional contexts.

The objectives of PBL methodology are, therefore, to prepare students for professional practice, through strategies that enhance motivation, teamwork and the development of self-regulatory skills (Biggs, 2003) and, accordingly, the students, working in small groups, are in the center of the process, which is facilitated by a tutor (Fernandes, 2011; Barrows, 1996).

In short, PBL is founded on the premises of "learning by doing" and "learning how to learn", in a multi and interdisciplinary way and contributes to the empowerment of students, by assisting in their preparation to deal with the challenges of contemporary societies (Esteves & Leite, 2005; Savin-Baden, 2000).

In fact, given its potential, PBL methodology and simulation environments have been capturing the attention of Higher Education institutions for decades. Having emerged in North America in the 60s, associated to the Health Sciences field, these methodologies have been extended, gradually, to other areas (Barrett & Moore, 2011; Peters, Lazzara & Johnson, 1981; Burke, Benner, Maier & Lewis, 1973; Koeninger & Ward, 1972).

Considering, specifically, the object of this study, the University of Minho has been doing an important work in this area, especially in the fields of Health Sciences and Engineering, presenting very positive results (Costa et al, 2013; Fernandes, 2011; Salgueira, Cerqueira, Sousa & Costa, 2009). However, in the Educational Sciences domain, these practices have not been given prominence (Leite & Esteves, 2005; Leite, 2005), except in contexts related to Teacher Education (Leite, Dourado & Morgado, 2011; Esteves & Leite, 2005; Leite, 2005; Leite & Afonso, 2001).

With regard, particularly, to the Bachelor of Education, privileged object of analysis in this research, although the development and evaluation of transversal skills are implicitly present in the Curricular Plan itself, these skills are not always perceived and applied by the students in a dialectical relationship between the theory and the practices/professional contexts. In turn, it is not also simple for teachers to evaluate the same skills in action (De Ketele, 2011; Alves, 2006; Rey, Carette, Defrance & Kahn, 2006; Roegiers, 2004).

The Bachelor of Education tries to respond to the educational and training needs of the knowledge societies, in a logic of Lifelong Learning and, consequently, the activities of these Professionals are in direct conjunction with the growing complexity of social, cultural and economic life, in its formal, non-formal and informal strands.

It is, for that reason, a Course that does not qualify "for teaching functions in the formal education system, but prior to the upgrade of diverse and complex skills in the area of education and training throughout life, which extend well beyond the boundaries of the school system and institutionalized education. It trains, for this reason, professionals or technicians of education oriented to work inside and outside the education system, at all levels and comprising various forms of intervention (education, training, training management, mediation, etc.)." (Curso de Licenciatura em Educação. Proposta de Reestruturação, 2006, p. 8)

This breadth and complexity of functions require not only technical preparation, but the development of transversal skills (based on the multidisciplinary and teamwork that underlie the profession) that stimulate creative and effective problem solving, critical thinking, the efficient management of conflicts, the ability to improvise and to open constructive communication channels, in a cooperative and collaborative dynamic that promotes a praxis related to theory, so that the quality of the professional practices can be strengthened.

In this context, this Project is founded on the following research question: "Will the training of transversal skills in a pedagogical and laboratorial environment have a material impact on the articulation between theory and practice in the learning process and on the professional practices of the students of the Bachelor of Education of the University of Minho?"

The research has, thus, two general objectives: to promote pedagogical innovation in the field of Education in Higher Education and to build a Laboratory of Development and Evaluation of Transversal Skills (LaDETS) that operates based on simulated environments and Problem-based Learning (PBL) methodologies.

Finally, the specific objectives include: to stimulate the development of transversal skills among the students of the Bachelor of Education of the University of Minho, using the PBL methodology and simulated environments; to evaluate the transversal skills developed in LaDETS, through the creation and validation of appropriate instruments to that end; to evaluate the impact of the work accomplished in LaDETS in the learning process of the students or in their professional practices.

Method

Procedures

This research is grounded on a qualitative methodological approach, supported by a constructivist paradigm, centered on the interpretation of the meanings produced by the social actors involved; therefore, the reality is assumed as "a set of socially constructed and negotiated meanings" (Bogdan & Biklen, 1994, p. 54).

This relates to the fact that qualitative methodologies emphasize the interpretive understanding of events, as well as the importance of the subjective component of social behavior revealed by the personal experience of the actors who are part of a specific investigation. Another main reason of this prerogative is the search of meaning for the actions constructed by individuals to understand how they behave before a certain movement, fact or social situation, as this is a dimension full of significances.

In this sense, the Project seeks to analyze/interpret the reality according to the perspective of the actors and this methodological aspect enables the researchers to develop a privileged interaction with the participants, facilitating the sharing of experiences, meanings and perceptions between themselves and the social actors, within a symbolic interactionism (Albarello et al., 2005; Lessard-Hébert, Goyette & Boutin, 2005; Bogdan & Biklen, 1994; Haguette, 1995; Erasmie & Lima, 1989).

The study focuses on an action-research approach, since it allows an active and critical participation of the actors in the construction of their own action, facilitating the real implication and commitment of the participants and culminating in social contracts that offer a collective contribution within the objectives, affiliations, subjectivities, aspirations and identities of each individual in himself (Lessard-Hébert et al, 2005; Haguette, 1995; Erasmie & Lima, 1989).

In this context, action-research is considered the most appropriate approach inasmuch as it promotes the partaking of the participants in the analysis and in the pursuit of answers to the problems posed, constituting a means of investigating social and professional situations, aiming the awareness to all the procedures and responses considered important to act in those same situations.

Adopting the perspective of Silva and Pinto (2009), action-research is characterized by its complex nature (it has objectives of research, innovation and skills development) and collective (it is based on a collective structure that involves a team of researchers in the process of investigation and intervention).

Thus, this approach implies an interaction between research and intervention, as they occur simultaneously; in this sense, the knowledge of the reality leads to its transformation, which translates into a cyclical process. Accordingly, it is essential the real implication of the social actors at all stages of the project and the commitment of the researchers regarding the reality being studied and the object of intervention.

Explicitly, this Project consists of a set of phases. The first one (May-July 2014) comprises the continuation of the literature review and will also engage all the logistic arrangements concerning the establishment of LaDETS, particularly, regarding the organization of the workplace where the simulation activities will be held.

The second phase (August and September 2014) will focus on the design and construction of the pedagogical materials, problem-situations and simulation stations, so the third phase refers to the practical beginning of LaDETS, which will take place between October 2014 and July 2015. On this stage, nine groups of students (volunteers) from the Bachelor of Education (three groups from each year) will be formed and it is expected that they commit themselves to dedicate one morning/afternoon per month to perform activities at the Laboratory, during 36 weeks. The LaDETS will be divided into different stations and in each one a problem-situation will be given to students to resolve. Therefore, using PBL and simulated environments, it is expected the development of transversal skills and the subsequent evaluation of the practice. In this sense, evaluation will be continuous, formative and integrated. In turn, the instruments for the first impact evaluation, after the 36 weeks, will also be created in this phase.

The fourth period will take place six months after the end of the activities, i.e., the second impact evaluation will be held, in order to understand exactly what kind of impact the work carried out in LaDETS had on the learning process of the students that remain at the University (new academic year) and on the professional practices of the participants that will graduate in 2015 and will come into the labor market. The Project is expected to be concluded in June 2016.

Expected Results

Once the Project presented is still in its initial stage, it is not possible to report concrete results, but the ones expected, considering the question and the objectives of the research.

Taking as a reference the prerogatives of Barrett and Moore (2011, p. 7) when they point out that "in addition to knowledge development, PBL explicitly aims to develop the student's capabilities in terms of key transferable skills needed for the workplace" and, following this, they add that "employers regularly highlight the importance of key skills, which include: communications, teamwork, information literacy, critical and creative thinking, and problem solving, together with self-awareness, self-assessment, ethical behaviour, reflection, and responsibility for continuous development" (Barrett & Moore, 2011, p. 7), it is possible to realize the importance of designing projects whose aims include the development of these transversal skills.

Regarding the Professionals of Education, their profile comprises technical skills such as:

- of diagnosis of problems and of the analysis of contexts of educational action, as well as cultural, economic and social situations in which the education and intervention components are relevant, specifically by reference to the paradigm of lifelong education;
- of intervention, as educator, trainer and socio-educational inciter, based on scientific and methodological knowledge, and of techniques and resources adapted to the contexts and problems
- of execution of the guidelines of the politics of education and training, in their different levels of formulation, planning and educational objectives, through organizational and administrative, scientific and pedagogical actions, enabling the students to operationalize programs and projects of education and training;
- of interpretation and operationalization of terms of reference and objectives concerned with the execution, under supervision, of activities of description and characterization, of assessment and guidance of prospective studies and consultancy work;
- of participation, under adequate supervision, in multiple tasks of support: direction of programs, projects and actions, conception of intervention models, plans, processes and methods of education and training, definition of educational strategies, definition of needs, objectives and plans of training, understanding of problems and situations, research and action-research, as well as the development of specialized areas of intervention, acting as an assistant;
- in the personal and social field, namely of creativity and critical mind, of autonomy and responsibility, of observation and analysis, of dialogue and cooperation, of educational recreation and intervention". (Curso de Licenciatura em Educação. Proposta de Reestruturação, 2006, pp. 14-15)

The analysis of the scope and complexity of these functions easily substantiates the relevance of establishing an active and fruitful relationship between the technical expertise required to these Professionals and the transversal skills that are needed to respond effectively to the potential and diverse contexts of intervention where they can operate.

Thus, in terms of results, it is expected:

- that students of 1st and 2nd Years succeed, through the methodologies used, in developing and/or improving transversal skills that can contribute to their academic success, by promoting an actual articulation between the situations addressed in LaDETS and the theoretical and technical contents of the Curricular Plan of the Degree.
- that the skills developed by the students of the 3rd Year meet what is required, in general terms, by the employers and that the process as a whole contributes to their integration into the labor market.
- that the instruments created to evaluate the transversal skills in LaDETS can be validated and, potentially, be used in similar contexts, stimulating pedagogical innovation in Education in Higher Education.

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Discourse and/as Social Practice – the Analysis of the Problem of Resistance and Hegemony

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Abstract

The aim of this paper is to discuss how approaches to discourse can face the charges for discursive idealism, and to show it empirically through the analysis of gender discourse in the mapping and reception of the life and work of Marija Jurić Zagorka, the first Croatian woman journalist, proto-feminist and the writer of popular fiction. The method is critical discourse analysis, which follows Foucault's concept of discourse, but attempts to overcome the criticism Foucault received for overemphasizing the potential of discourse to manipulate people. This is the reason motivating many revisions of Foucault's method mainly by attempting to introduce a theory of action in order to make a socially active subject link discourse and reality. CDA authored by Norman Fairclough introduces a three-dimensional concept of discourse (as text, discursive practice and social practice) and uses the Gramscian concept of hegemony (rather than ideology) to strategically try and surpass the charge for discourse determinism. Seeing discourse as social practice enables us to combine the perspectives of structure and action, because practice is at the same time determined by its position in the structured network of practices and a lived performance, a domain of social action and interaction that both reproduces structures and has the potential to transform them. Gramsci's concept of hegemony sees cultural production as a tool that maintains domination by securing the spontaneous consent of the subordinated. The results suggest a possible (subversive) intervention into the sphere of discursive practices (hegemonic struggle of different voices for supremacy in the order of discourse defining the reception of Zagorka) and indicate that detailed empirical research on discursive effects in a series of domains is a method of research on political investment of the order of discourse into social change.

Keywords: discourse, gender, popular culture, hegemony, social practice

1. Introduction

The research attention paid to discourse in humanities and social sciences in the last several decades presents a ramification of the so called linguistic turn, which has directed the mainstream research interests towards the questions of meaning-production, subjectivity, social construction of identity etc. Although discourse was originally studied predominantly within the framework of linguistics, the influence of deconstruction, poststructuralism and the performative turn have widened the meaning of the term discourse. Consequently, there are today quite a few definitions of and approaches to discourse analysis, such as that of Fairclough (1995), Wodak (2001), van Dijk (1990) etc. Sociologically relevant conceptualizations of discourse are particularly the ones influenced by Foucault's method, because, among other reasons, Foucault sees social power as discursive. There is almost an overload of interpretations and (mis)uses of Foucault's approach, although there is no one Foucault's method. Our task is therefore to firstly give an overview of the history and (disciplinary) versions of discourse analyses and then to move towards outlining Foucault's notion of discourse. We will discuss some criticism Foucault received, particularly the charges for discursive idealism, and try to show how a critical discourse approach, specifically the one authored by Norman Fairclough, works to overcome the criticism Foucault received for overemphasizing the potential of discourse to manipulate people, and offer a view of the potentially subversive social action. There are two main foci Fairclough complements the method with to achieve this objective: he conceptualizes discourse as consisting of the three dimensions (text, discursive practice and social practice), and he introduces the concept of hegemony over that of ideology to provide for the struggle between tactically polyvalent voices for supremacy in the order of discourse.

Having leaned the methodological framework of critical discourse analysis against a background, the paper proceeds to empirically apply the method through the analysis of gender discourse in the mapping and reception of the life and work of Marija Jurić Zagorka (born 1873, died 1957), the first Croatian woman journalist, proto-feminist and the writer of popular fiction. Zagorka was on the one hand adored by her readers, immensely popular, and due to that in the position to mobilise action towards feminist goals. On the other, however, she was severely criticized and even treated with utter disgust by the established critics. This duality is also evident in her invisibility in the overviews of the history of Croatian literature and journalism, critical treatises, encyclopaedias, or scientific debates; and on the contrary her immense visibility and presence in the popular cultural imaginary. Our analysis in this paper specifically focusses on the gender discourse that spans past the borders of science and literature and can be, as the results suggest, considered as their confluence. Informing the critical analysis of gender discourse with the analysis of context and paying heavy attention to the critique of ideology, the paper reveals power-imbued strategies of the certain historical mapping and reception of Zagorka's life and work. Increased academic interest in popular culture enabled this new visibility of previously absent objects from the scientific study, although new investments into the power regime must not be disregarded. We will in this paper, accordingly, analyse the status and (in)visibility of Zagorka as an instantiation of popular culture in the Croatian context. As this is also a contribution to feminist epistemology and the critiques of androcentric theories of modernization, special awareness of reflexivity regarding positionality will be pursued throughout.

2. Methodological framework – on analysing language, culture, and society

2.1. On discourse and discourse analyses

The last several decades have been marked by the appearance and development of various interdisciplinary fields, including systems theory, cognitive science, and discourse analysis, which presents a refreshing contrast compared to self-isolating tendencies of scientific disciplines on the one hand (cf. Beaugrande, 1996) and the ambitions to create a unified science on the other (Beaugrande, 2006: 29). Discourse analysis as a qualitative methodological approach in social sciences and humanities presents an umbrella term (Cameron, 2001: 1) and includes various research approaches, like ethnography of speaking, conversation analysis, interactional sociolinguistics and critical discourse analysis (Wetherell, 2001).

Discourse analysis is the ramification of the so called linguistic turn in social sciences and humanities, and although there is a multitude of approaches, they all share the attitude that what makes the social world, including our identities, can partly be found in discourse. What is it then that we analyse in discourse analysis? Discourse is primarily a term from linguistics, where it denotes language beyond sentence-level and includes a series of texts. Litosseliti & Sunderland (2002) add the interpersonal focus to this definition, stressing that discourse is not only a supra-sentential element, but that it is functional in terms of language use, which means that it communicates meanings in a certain context. Also, discourse is used to refer to the language particular to certain social situations (e.g. classroom discourse). Various authors have defined it in different ways: as the real practice of speaking and writing (Woodilla, 1998), or, more specifically, as an interconnected set of texts and the practices of their production, distribution, and reception (Phillips & Hardy, 2002: 3). Social reality is constructed and made real through discourses, and social interactions cannot be understood without reference to discourses that give them meaning (Phillips & Hardy, 2002: 3).

Text should be distinguished from discourse, which is text in context (van Dijk, 1990: 164), although it cannot be separated from discursive and social practice (Fairclough, 1992). Texts can be considered discursive units and material manifestations of discourse (Chalaby, 1996). The notion of text includes many different forms, from written texts to pictures, symbols, artefacts etc. (Grant, Keenoy, and Oswick, 1998). Texts are places in which the complexes of social meanings are produced in a certain historical situation of their production, which in a partial way notes the history of participants in the production of texts and the institutions involved – thus, a partial history of language and social system. Discourse analysis is thus aimed at establishing the constructionist effects of discourse through the structured and systematic analysis of texts. However, discourse does not possess meanings immanently, it is shared and social, and emanates from interaction between groups and institutions. Accordingly, if we aim to understand discourses, we must understand the contexts in which they appear (van Dijk, 1997).

The Dictionary of sociology (Abercrombie et al., 2008: 50) defines discourse as the corpus of language use unified by some common assumptions, which implies that discourse allows us to think, speak and do one thing, and exclude the thinking, speaking and doing of the other, directing the attention of sociology to the social effects of that exclusion. This interest in studying the processes of social construction of the invisible reality, reality that is taken for granted, with focus on the

connection between the power regime and knowledge is strongly influenced by the work of Michel Foucault. Our task is therefore to look more closely into this intellectual heritage.

2.2. Foucault's heritage and influence

Foucault's decision to focus on discursive practices is an attempt to avoid structuralism and hermeneutics (Dreyfus & Rabinow, 1982: xiii-xxiii). Foucault dealt with discourses of human sciences (medicine, psychiatry, economics, grammar), but his method is in principle generalizable to all discourses (Fairclough, 1992: 38). He does not put accent on the analysis of texts, but on the conditions of possibility of discourse and the rules of formation that define the possible objects of knowledge, subjects, concepts etc. (Robin 1973: 83, as found in Fairclough, 1992: 38).

Foucault differentiates between discourse and language. He is less interested in the formal possibilities offered by the language system, and more in the fact that certain words have been uttered. Discourse is thus for Foucault not only the form of knowledge about the way of thinking and acting in a given culture, but also an event. Also, discourse is historical, but with a lasting relevance, as archive, which denotes the accumulated existence of discourses (Foucault, 1989: 25). Discourses exist in a net-like relationship with other discourses, and that relationship is hierarchical (the order of discourse).

The idea of discourse developed by Foucault has been accepted by a number of analysts interested in the relationship between society and language. Foucault's method is according to Kendall and Wickham (1999) an important contribution to qualitative research in social sciences for several reasons: it deeply problematizes simplified categories, it has no assumption of progress, speaks of the history of the present, disturbs the assumed and the taken for granted, looks for contingencies instead of causes and exposes oppositions.

Although qualitative social science research seems much indebted to Foucault, there is no one or strictly defined Foucauldian method of discourse analysis. There are various models developed on the basis of Foucault's contribution (cf. Bannister, 1995; Fairclough, 1995; Parker, 1992; Potter & Wetherall, 1987), and many of them differ according to how they position themselves regarding the criticism addressed to Foucault on several accounts. Two most widespread critiques revolve around the potentially present discursive idealism and the problematic status of the possibility of subversive action, or in other words, the relationship between power and resistance.

The criticism stresses that although Foucault discusses (1982) various forms of fight and resistance, he leaves us with the dominant impression that people are entirely subject to the systems of power, which are impossible or almost impossible to subvert and resist. Also, Foucault does not speak so much of the real practice of writing and speaking, but of the discursive practice as a system of anonymous historical rules (1989), which is a move that reduces the notion of practice to its customary opposite, structure.

Some scholars of Foucault (Hooks, 2001) have, however, warned that Foucault emphasizes the political utility and critical capacity of analysing discourse as a powerful means of enabling forms of critique and resistance, even when his method is read in a 'descriptivist' manner and turned into a kind of diagnosis of culture and society, enabling only a characterization of a variety of historical phenomena (like for example in case of McHoul and Grace, 1997). The often confusing and criticism-inspiring moments in Foucault's writing revolve around his conceptualization of the relationship between discursive and non-discursive, knowledge and power, especially when Foucault stresses the effects of discursive practices that make it virtually impossible to think outside of them (Hook, 2001). To be outside of discourse is to be mad, by definition, to be beyond comprehension and reason (Young, 1981). Discourse is so tightly associated with the regime of power, it ensures the reproduction of the social system through forms of selection, exclusion and domination (Young, 1981). Foucault's theorization of truth and authorship as the functions of discourse particularly fuelled the criticism in this direction, because by demonstrating how certain understanding re-circulate, Foucault seems to suggest that we "have dangerously over-estimated the creative and resourceful abilities of discourse" (Hooks, 2001: 11).

We agree that Foucault's position should be read as going against a deterministic discursive idealism in the sense that not everything can be analysed as a text or a language only, and towards the re-acclamation of the material forms of power. However, we feel that to analytically show the social practice quality of discourse, we need to include direct analyses of real examples of that practice, including texts, without which it is hard to imagine the possibility to extrapolate from structure to practice. This effort is, close to Foucault's concept of discourse, undertaken by Norman Fairclough, who has developed a model of critical discourse analysis that takes text and context into account in analysing discourse, and that has been reviewed as usable in social sciences. Fairclough's two important strategies in that effort are his three-dimensional concept

of discourse and the inclusion of the theory of hegemony, along Gramsci's (1971) lines. We therefore proceed to give an outline of his method.

2.3. Critical discourse analysis

Critical discourse analysis (CDA), heavily informed by the work of Michel Foucault, is the method of research into the place of language-in-use in the construction and regulation of the social world. It presents an attempt to overcome the accusations for discursive idealism and the passivation of social actors by analysing discursive building blocks of the processes of social construction of reality. CDA offers the theory of the connection between social practice and discourse structures, as well as a wide range of tools and strategies for analysing concrete contextualized uses of language/performances of meanings. The critical approach to analysing discourse should be positioned between theory, methodology and politics (Meyer, 2001: 15), with the procedure that reduces rather than extends the textual in its analysis (Meyer, 2001: 16).

The "critical" dimension of this method refers to the practical linking of the social and political engagement with the sociologically informed construction of society, with the recognition that the interconnectedness of things and the cause-and-effect chain are deformed *inter alia* discursively; and that the task of critique is to make this interconnectedness visible (Wodak, 2001: 2). Fairclough (1995: 50) defines the critical task as commitment to the dialectical method. Consequently, CDA demands of us to distance ourselves from the data, to embed them into the social, to explicitly take a political stand and to be self-reflexive in the course of research (Wodak, 2001: 9).

CDA is for Fairclough both theory and method, in a transdisciplinary dialogue with other theories and methods (2001: 121). Relevantly, it is a view of semiosis as an element or 'moment' of material social processes, which enables a new way of analysing semiosis within wider analyses of social processes (Fairclough, 2001: 121). The motivation to focus on the social practice perspective lies in the possibility to combine the perspectives of structure and agency, because practice is at the same time determined by its position in the structured network of practices and a lived performance, a domain of social action and interaction that both reproduces structures and has the potential to transform them (Fairclough, 2001: 122).

According to Meyer (2001: 22), Fairclough takes a specific position of the middle-range theory and focusses on the social conflict in the neo-Marxist tradition, with special emphasis on the elements of domination and resistance as manifested in discourse. Economic activity, social relationships, identities, values, consciousness and semiosis are dialectically connected elements of practice, never completely separable. Social practices connected in a certain way constitute a social order, and the order of discourse is its semiotic aspect (Fairclough, 2001: 124). The order of discourse is thus the social structuring of a semiotic difference – a certain social ordering of relationships between different ways of giving meaning, or different discourses and genres.

As indicated earlier, Fairclough (1992) develops a three-dimensional framework for analysing discourse. The first dimension is discourse as text - it refers to linguistic features like the choice of vocabulary (expression, metaphors), grammar (transitivity, modality), cohesion (conjunctions) and text structure. The second dimension is discourse as discursive practice – it refers to the production, circulation and consumption of texts. This means that in analysing the grammar, vocabulary or structure of texts, the attention is paid to speech acts, coherence and intertextuality – the aspects of text that connect it with context (Blommaert & Bulcaen, 2000: 449). The third dimension is discourse as social practice, which implies ideological effects and hegemonic processes in which discourse participates.

These three dimensions help Fairclough operationalize the Foucault-informed statement about the socially constitutive properties of discourse. Such conceptualizing of discourse accentuates the mutual determination and connection of the part and the whole, the micro and macro levels, which helps frame this model within the theory of ideological processes, because discourse is seen in terms of hegemonic processes and changes in hegemony.

The notion of hegemony is very important here as a certain social structuring of semiotic difference may become hegemonic i.e. a part of the legitimizing common sense that supports the relationships of domination. However, contrary to the dominant ideology thesis, hegemony can be to a greater or lesser extent challenged, implying that the order of discourse is not a closed and rigid system but subject to risks springing from real interaction (Fairclough, 2001: 124).

When considering the relationship between language, power, and ideology, Fairclough speaks of ideological-discursive formations (IDFs), which is a direct influence of Althusser (1971). IDF is an ideological position that strives to affiliate with different forces in institutions. The way a subject speaks is normatively connected with the position they occupy, because it is from this position that they acquire a way of seeing underlying a certain way of talking, always shaped by ideological norms. Ideology can, thus, be understood as the representation of the imaginary relationship of individuals towards the

conditions of their existence. It interpellates individuals as subjects or, in other words, places them in a position within the ideological frame. Patriarchal ideology, for instance, interpellates individuals as more powerful men and less powerful women, and some claim that popular culture interpellates readers as consumers (cf. Strinati, 2004: 142). However, we wish to distance ourselves here from the dominant ideology thesis and the determinism of class, and so introduce Gramsci's concept of hegemony into the perspective, because the notion of hegemony tries to overcome the assumption of the ultimate primacy of the production mode. Also, Gramsci (1971) makes a difference between coercive and consensual control, defining hegemony as a cultural and ideological means of perpetuating domination by securing the spontaneous consent of the subordinated.

Here is where the potential to theorize subversion appears. Namely, the naturalized discursive conventions are the most efficient way of reproducing cultural and ideological dimensions of hegemony (Fairclough, 1995: 94), which makes the effort to denaturalize existing conventions an important goal of challenging the hegemonic struggle. In other words, the hegemony of one group over the other partly consists of the possibility to intervene into and form discursive practices. This intervention is also called the technologization of discourse, and Fairclough (1995: 102-104) describes it as the process of possible intervention into the sphere of discursive practices with the aim to construe a new hegemony in the order of discourses of a certain institution. Also, Foucault (1981) sees the technologization of discourse as a powerful connection between social sciences and the structures of power in constituting modern biopower. Discourse can in this context be seen as one of the forces in what Rose and Miller (1990) call the "technologies of governance", which include strategies, techniques and procedures that different forces use to try and make their programs feasible.

Technologization of discourse brings changes to the hegemonic struggle. It is for our analysis important to stress once again that people can react to it in different ways: accept the demands for change, tactically act they accept them, reject them etc. Such view of the hegemonic struggle of discourses for supremacy is extremely relevant in this approach, as it provides for a less violent reading of the role and place of Marija Jurić Zagorka and her popular fiction in the Croatian cultural history. In the following chapter we analyse the discourse surrounding the interpretation of her work and producing the dynamics of her visibility/presence/adoration and invisibility/absence/detestation. We retain the awareness about qualitative shifts in the social functioning of discourse in different historical moments or in the cultural dominant of an epoch (Williams, 1981), as well as of the multifunctionality of discourse and inherent polysemy of language. Zagorka was a producer of texts for massive audience at times of big social, economic and political changes – when discourse technologization is particularly visible – and she had to work with different constructions of social identities. All texts express the social identity of their producers and address the supposed identities of their readers, and texts for massive audience, especially when they have explicit politics and purpose in mind (as Zagorka's do) actively construct imagined identities for their consumers, creating for them positions they may or may not occupy (Fairclough, 1995: 123). Thus, detailed empirical research of discursive effects in a series of domains is a method of research into progressive political and ideological investment of the order of discourse into social change (Fairclough, 1995: 123), along the lines of what Spivak (1988) calls strategic essentialism.

3. The case of Marija Jurić Zagorka – critical discourse analysis of her life, work and reception

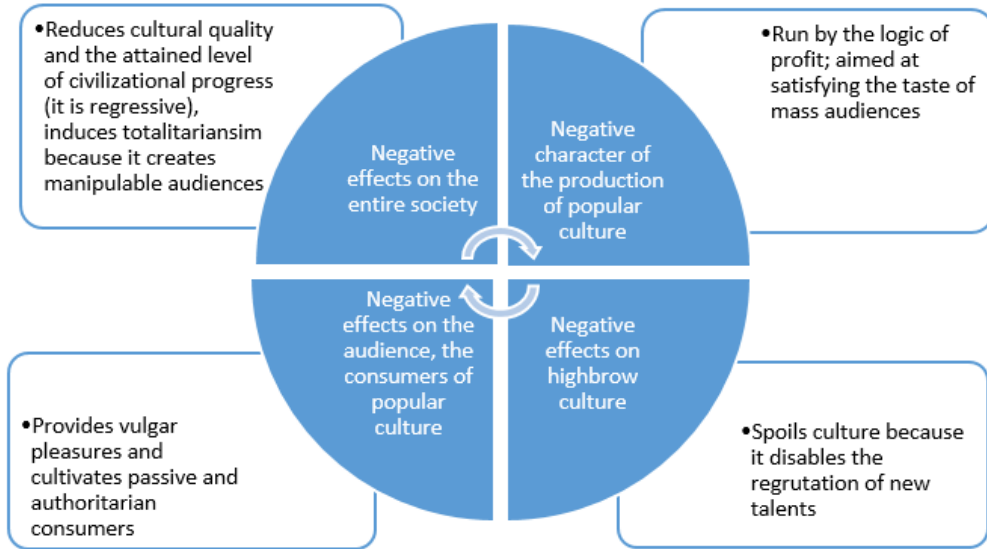
3.1. The problematic status of popular culture or on the politics of exclusion

Here we will attempt to show on a concrete contextualized example that detailed empirical research of specific discursive effects is a means of research on the investment of the order of discourse into social change (Fairclough, 1995: 123). On the analysis of the critical reception of popular culture, we will show that the effects Zagorka's popular cultural production exerted cannot be adequately grasped without taking the mentioned complementary perspectives of discourse as live social practice and hegemony as the struggle of voices for supremacy (always in negotiation with the dominant discourse) into account.

Popular culture is here revealed as the exemplary place of hegemonic negotiation of different discourses. There are different approaches to define popular cultural practices and their social functions. Popular culture was frequently associated with the rise of national consciousness from the late 18th century on (e.g. Burke, 1978), but its meaning is not that strictly defined. Williams (1976) states that popular can mean from the point of view of the people, but also from the point of view of those who want to govern the people, usefully noticing that it is not the people who talk about popular culture. He also mentions the definition of popular culture as inferior, the culture produced so as to appeal to the recipient, to mass audiences. Generally, there has been a strong trend of viewing popular cultural production in pejorative terms (in neo-Marxist theories of cultural industry, theories of mass society, the Frankfurt School, and even some feminist theories),

especially the one primarily written for women and with extra-literary political objectives in mind. Various negative effects of producing and consuming popular culture have been emphasized (Lewis, 1978: 9): the negative character of the production of popular culture, negative effects on highbrow culture, the consumers of popular culture, and the entire society (see table 1).

Table 1. Overview of pejorative critiques of popular culture



At first view, Zagorka may seem to yield to such criticism. On the level of narrative structure, Zagorka's novels are schematic, simplified, and episodic (which is also conditioned by the modes of production and distribution of texts), and on the level of narrative strategies they stimulate empathy, identification, and intensive physical sensation caused by the experience of reading (the novels are interesting, full of intrigues, cliff-hangers, and suspense; characters are mostly flat, and a happy ending is a generic must). Also, Zagorka produced texts in lucrative quantities, for massive audiences and with political objectives in mind. Zagorka depended on and adjusted to the audience and the market, but at the same time never gave up her political aims. Her heroines use discursive strategies in order to appropriate the male perspective and so make a change regarding the rights of women. The end of the story establishes what we would call a strong patriarchal discursive formation, because the heroines find happiness in marital union. This has been the main reason for even some feminists (Modleski, 2008; Snitow, 1996) to accentuate the passivizing effects of this type of literature, because it locks women in traditional roles.

However, there have recently appeared alternative analyses of popular culture as a potential source of or resource for the mobilization of social change; its diffuse character has been seen as opening up the space for subversion parallel with the discourse of decadence in mapping the effects of popular culture. The differences in the interpretation of popular culture ranged from those that see it as a social problem that needs to be dealt with to those that contrarily see it as a social asset in a plural society. The field of the study of popular culture includes consequently the question of whether social structure holds primacy over culture in the processes of social change or of whether culture may potentially be the space for the creation of new political identities and movements (Lewis, 1978: 12). It is therefore necessary to move away from one-sided views of the relationship between culture and society and to start from the analysis of interdiscursivity and the socio-historically contingent negotiations between ideological forces contained in performing discourse.

The effects of Zagorka's writing can it seems be far better understood along these lines, especially if we take the perspective of communication with readers into account. Namely, although the romances she wrote confirmed the patriarchal matrix on the ideational level, they were the first widespread literature actually read by a great number of women. In pursuing what Janice Radway termed in her analysis of reading the romance (1991) an ethnographic turn to the reader, we separate the novel as a market product and its textuality from the very act of reading. Contrary to some mentioned androcentric readings of harmful effects of romances and popular culture for women in general, we claim that the act of reading is more subversive

than what is read, whereby the spread of the market can play an important liberating function. Zagorka started writing engaged historical novels, with the aim to squeeze out German popular fiction¹ and educate the readership in Croatian. Feuilletones, novels published in series, are the offspring of daily press intended for massive consumption (Nemec, 2006: 143).² An important contextual assumption of this type of novel publication is the changed readership structure, because of obligatory schooling and the rise of literacy, which brought wider reception horizon, market democratization, and the fast growth of all types of language communication (Nemec, 2006: 143). The intended consumers were women, still prevailing out of the public sphere and the labour market at the time (Watt, 1972). This is why the diversification in the production and consumption of culture had a liberating potential for women. Popular culture produced by Zagorka it seems then helped destabilise the boundary between the private and the public sphere, because it offered to women the possibility of the experience of being modern (together with fashion, magazines, department stores, romance novels etc.), and thus went hand in hand with the general democratization regarding the freedom of movement and the spread of literacy, which brought certain advancements to the positions of women.

The results of the analysis of Zagorka's place in Croatian cultural history show that the case of Zagorka and her popular literature cannot be adequately grasped from the perspective of the binary distinctions (male/female, highbrow/lowbrow, fact/fiction, public/private) that helped organize the discourse of social theory on modernization processes. The mainstream criticism of popular romances in the context of early 20th century modernization is thereby particularly revealing, and the analysis has shown that a different, female-oriented reading of modernization is needed as a complement.

3.2. The cultural politics of exclusion – on the dynamics of (in)visibility and the discourse of modernization

Similarly to the position of popular culture which has until recently held the position of low visibility in sociological research, the problem of writing women into the cultural history and of their writing³ are also the problems of (in)visibility, although both are and have been extremely present phenomena in the social life. The status of popular culture and of women's writing in the official cultural history are the symptoms of invisibility, which is in critical analysis of discourse an important factor of the processes of social exclusion and thus power. We have shown that from the perspective of live communication with readers, Zagorka's popular romances can be read alternatively to the customary pejorative criticism as potentially subversive and mobilizing social action. The reading of romances can thus be seen as a stake in the processes of democratization and modernization.

As a woman in the profession traditionally granting access to men only, Marija Jurić Zagorka was frequently faced with heavy insults and even disgust. Having a woman in the newspaper was a shame, but Zagorka's texts and feuilletones sold newspapers, so Zagorka was kept hidden as a madwoman in the attic of *Obzor*, the newspaper of her first employment.⁴ The ideological interests behind this degradation are to maintain the boundary between male and female spheres, to mystify the imagined essence of good journalism and literature, and exclude the threats to the positions of superiority and power. The reception of Zagorka and her work from the official critical establishment is well-illustrated by the labels attached to her: of a person who attacks everything that is elegant and cultured in Croatian society, because she is a writer of trash for peasants (cf. Lasić, 1986); a hermaphroditic type of woman who is out of her prescribed roles (in the kitchen, with children and in the church); the writer of pulp fiction courting the most vulgar taste (cf. Nemec, 2004: 651); literary weed and rubbish (cf. Kolanović, 2006: 327) etc. The mention of her is accordingly absent from the overviews of the history of Croatian literature and journalism; she is not even mentioned in the *Obzor's* Tribute Book published in 1936 although she was the editor in chief for a while. The Encyclopedia of the Yugoslav Institute of Lexicography gives only a circular entry on her: volume 4 (Zagreb, 1959: 55) directs from "Jurić, Marija" to "Zagorka"; and volume 7 (Zagreb, 1964: 737) directs from "Zagorka" to "Jurić, Marija".

On the contrary, Zagorka was visible and adored; her jubillaeums were celebrated, she received many letters from her readers, people waited in queues for her novels. She organized typographic workers into a union (*Kolo radnih žena*), conducted the first women's demonstrations in Croatia (especially during the regime of Kluen Hédeváry), held hundreds of public lectures on women and politics, stepped out of traditional roles of women (which was interpreted as a sure sign of

¹ The publication of German novels decreased by at least 70% (Zagorka, 1953: 74).

² The first such novel was Robinson Crusoe by Daniel Defoe, which unlike Zagorka's novels is free of similar pejorative criticism and is a classic.

³ We are aware of Foucault's recommendation that one should pursue a different ethos of academic reading, read and do research on everything (1996: 14), avoid the "possession" of the material, and forget about the author, but this is not the topic here.

⁴ See Gubar and Gilbert (2000).

insanity), proclaimed the necessity to reveal the role of women in history by publishing a series of women's portraits, discussed on the position of modern women, emancipation and gender equality, created pictures of active women etc. (Sklevicky, 1996). She was the editor-in-chief of the first Croatian magazines for women (*Zenski list*, 1925 to 1938, and *Hrvatica*, 1939 to 1940). She produced the largest opus in Croatian literature and was the most widely read Croatian writer probably throughout the twentieth century (Nemec, 2004: 651). Zagorka dedicated her life to making women visible in public and created the possibility to articulate female experience, especially the experience of modernity. This is a contextual reason for reading her popular romances as possibly empowering, and not in line with the pejorative effects discussed above.

Critical denigration of Zagorka on the one hand and wide popularity on the other reveal the oppressiveness of critical labels given to Zagorka and her work and expose the discursive aspect of the ideological matrix with a gendered subtext. It is therefore methodologically and epistemologically important to reveal this part of female cultural production, together with the politics of concealment that has haunted it. It turns out that Zagorka was never actually absent, but only made invisible in the circles symbolically designated as belonging to high culture. She can therefore be called a public secret according to Tatjana Jukić (2012: 355, highlights in the original), because she is, as public, the knowledge of the community, not an individual, and thus political knowledge par excellence. As a secret, however, she is the knowledge that the community wishes to keep away from its legitimizing processes, but precisely because of that the knowledge that discloses the very conditions of the legitimizing processes in the community, and is thus political knowledge par excellence.

This dynamics of visibility, presence, and adoration of Zagorka on the one hand, and her invisibility, absence, and detestation on the other are mapped by the gender discourse, which is underwritten by the division of male and female spheres, the private and the public, work and home, culture and nature. The analysis of Zagorka's case reveals gender discourse as the one that maps the distinctions according to which we analyse for instance the differences in tastes (Bourdieu, 1984) or modes of cultural production and reception. Gender discourse is thus the confluence of scientific and literary writing, especially regarding the way in which the discourse of modernization has established itself, primarily by fundamentally relying on the exclusion of woman.

Woman is dominantly constructed through the discourse of non-alienated nature (and past), which is longed for, or the nature that needs to be put under control and civilised. Within the boundaries of the regime of power, as we shall see, Zagorka uses various strategies to try and mobilise feminist action, find a female political subject, and all that not by claiming any essence or nature of some imagined woman, but by occupying typically male domains and discourses – which is a strategically essentialist effort (Spivak, 1988) aware of the inability to find an authentic female voice, but not giving up political action on that account. Zagorka's position, the critiques that characterize her reception, the narrative techniques she used, and the conditions of distribution and publication of her work (serial publication) are treated here as contextual elements of discourse.

To autoreflect, this sociological investigation must not forget its own discursive presuppositions. Tönnies, Weber, and Simmel (Lichtblau, 1989) in their narratives on the modernization process for instance treat woman as the natural Other of culture (Sydie, 1987). The critique of classical sociological tradition warns against exclusive positioning of the modernizing process into the public sphere of work, bureaucracy, and market (Wolff, 1990), because such approach directly results in implicit or explicit exclusion of woman from it, putting her outside of the basic dynamics of social change (Sydie, 1987).

Riggs (1988), Radway (1986) and Bersani (1976) have accentuated that the critics of popular culture reduced female cultural practices by equating the consumption of lowbrow fiction with "swallowing" as a mechanistic and vulgar, and thereby perpetuated the ideology of aesthetic distinction which has a clear gender subtext. Consequently, consumerist society gets to be symbolically equated with the female principle: consumption is seductive, it gives pleasures and passivizes the consumer by capturing it within its reproductive strategies (Felski, 1995). The derogatory institutional critiques addressed to Zagorka as the writer of pulp have been analysed in this context. Still, the implications of the connections between women and consumption are not that simple. The dominant conceptualizations of the modernization process in social theory is founded on the aspect of production, not consumption. However, to look at modernization also from the point of view of consumption would unmask the narrative of rationalization as a less convincing narrative of modernization, because

¹ A simple ethnography of reading done during a walk through the library reveals Zagorka's novels as very popular and read: contrary to for example canonical Krleža, whose books are mostly neat and tidy. To illustrate Zagorka's popularity: her *Grička vještica* was published in 1963 in ten thousand copies, and then in 1964 in another ten. Collected works follow in 1972 in another ten to fifteen thousand (Hergešić, 1983: 398-401). In the preface to her works fifteen years after her death, Hergešić states that Zagorka is still in fashion (1983: 399), and Nemec in the afterward written about fifty years after her death (2004: 651) that Zagorka is becoming more visible in the discourse of academic disciplines. Her popularity persists: Zagorka's novels are being republished in both luxury (*Školska knjiga*) and paperback (*EPH*) editions, both with major interest of the reading audience.

consumption is not only a reflection of the economic interest; it is at the same time a desire reflecting gender and ideological interests. Not only goods, but also the very act of consumption are sold – which is trace Radway (1991) follows in her analytical separation of the novel as merchandise from the act of reading. Even if the dominant influence of the profit logic dominantly lurks from the background, the fact remains that romances, similar to fashion or department stores, influenced the sublimation of desire and the changes in the relationships of intimacy, as well as the changes in the patriarchal family, social and sexual identities.

To conclude, although woman may have been excluded (or sometimes despised) as a part of the natural pole that needs to be civilised and put under control at the early stage of modernization, she can become excluded also as a part of culture which is full of artificial glow and spectacle. This analysis thus does not aim to glorify the perspective of the consumer as subversive in itself, but only serves to challenge the distinctions that produced an over-simplified picture of female cultural practices and the female experience of and role in the modernization process. Although the act of reading romances could have had a relatively empowering effect for women, it simultaneously meant the appearance of new forms of control and discipline (especially over gender).

The less visible control means the more effective discipline. The question of the final outcome of the hegemonic struggle therefore remains. To conclude in an autoreflective tone, Zagorka is today more visible both in academic circles¹ and outside of them, ² warning us that there is a cultural politics to it, because new visibilities produce some other invisibilities against which they establish themselves.

4. Conclusion

This paper offered an attempt to deconstruct the discursive construction of some myths that conceal the cultural politics helping shape our social and cultural imaginary. We applied the qualitative method of critical discourse analysis to look into the processes that produced the dual position of Marija Jurić Zagorka and her writing, aimed primarily at providing the ideology critique. To avoid the dangers of discursive determinism and the consequent view of social actors as impotent and passive, the aspect of discourse as social practice was particularly stressed and the theory of hegemony was offered, as the one better suited than the dominant ideology approaches, for the analysis of the struggle between different voices for a certain positioning in the order of discourse (Zagorka's feminist political goals in the patriarchal matrix). The heritage of Foucault's method was discussed with the perspective of introducing a theory of action and of discovering possible subversive strategies at disposal to social actors.

The discursive approach interested in analysing power helped reveal the coupling of popular culture and women, here through the analysis of contextualized meanings and negotiations with a certain audience and through ideological interdiscursive forces that constitute dominant meanings. The exclusion of Zagorka from serious literary discussions and overviews of the history of Croatian culture and literature is shown to be an effect of gendered distinctions that organize the social space. The position of Marija Jurić Zagorka as a woman and the writer of popular fiction in the Croatian cultural history is exposed to be relevantly determined by the distinctions that also help establish a certain view of the processes of (cultural) modernization and that strategically work to preserve the dominant status of man as producer of culture.

Zagorka was viewed pejoratively primarily on two accounts: for following the simplified narrative framework in her romances that keep spoiling the readership and 'doing harm' to young women, and for pursuing the logic of market and profit in the discursive practice of her writings (serially published novels, which are enormously long). The results of our critical analysis of gender discourse reveal the ideological burden of such criticism and its patriarchal and androcentric subtext. The analysis deals with a very specific and concrete example to show that rather than distinction-and-quality-reducing (dangerous) and stupefying, Zagorka's novels are, from the perspective of live communication with her audience, actually empowering for women, because the act of reading is seen as more important than what was read (cf. the ethnographic turn to the reader, Radway, 1991). Zagorka's popular romances thus provided the experience of modernity for that half of the population which was still predominantly locked in the private sphere in the first half of the 20th century. In this sense, this analysis is the contribution to the critiques of the theories of modernization in social theory, bringing the perspective that takes account of the female experience, the private sphere, and the logic of consumption (and not only of the public sphere of work, politics,

¹ This very paper is a contribution to that visibility. Also, there is an international scientific conference dedicated to Zagorka going on since 2007, with the fifth proceedings published.

² There is a film *Zagorka* directed by Biljana Čakić Veselić (FADE IN, HRT, Zagreb film, 2008); a play *Zagorka* by Ivica Boban; a millennium photograph was taken in 2012 by photographer Sime Strikoman of the people named after Zagorka's characters; the press room in the Croatian parliament is named "Marija Jurić Zagorka"; an annual award for written journalism is called after her...

rationalization) in the formation of what we call modernity. Although Zagorka leans against a dominant discourse and follows the market logic, the results show a possible (subversive) intervention into the sphere of discursive practices (hegemonic struggle of different voices for supremacy in the order of discourse defining the reception of Zagorka) and indicate that detailed empirical research on discursive effects in a series of domains is a method of research on political investment of the order of discourse into social change. The problems of the final outcome of the hegemonic struggle, new forms of discipline silently introduced by Zagorka's new visibility, and a possibly different interpretation remain.

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TPACK Confidence of Pre-service Teachers in Universiti Utara Malaysia

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Abstract

The role of technology in education is undeniable (Niess, 2005). Teachers as moulders of human beings need to be skillful in integrating technology in education to deliver what they teach effectively. According to Malaysian Education Blueprint (2012) pre-service service teachers of Universiti Utara Malaysia are expected to master Information and Communication Technology (ICT) integration in the teaching and learning process (MOE, 2013). This study measures the level of Technological Pedagogical Content Knowledge (TPACK) outlined by Mishra and Koehler (2006). It includes seven knowledge dimensions, namely Content Knowledge (CK), Pedagogical Knowledge (PK), Technological Knowledge (TK), Pedagogical Content Knowledge (PCK), Technological Pedagogical Knowledge (TPK), Technological Content Knowledge (TCK), Pedagogical Content Knowledge (PCK) and Technological Pedagogical Content Knowledge (TPACK). This study involved 154 pre-service teachers from various programs such as a Bachelor's Degree in Education Majoring in Information Technology, Moral Education, Accounting and Business Management. Questionnaire forms were sent through a 'Google Form' to their respective emails and responses were analyzed using SPSS software. The findings showed that the pre-service teachers have a high level of competency, confidence and lastly TPACK. The test results have also shown that there is a significant difference between the male and female pre-service teachers regarding the confidence level in using ICT in teaching and learning as revealed by MANOVA analysis.

Keywords: Pre-service Teacher, Confidence, Competency, Gender, Information and Communication Technology (ICT), Technological Pedagogical Content Knowledge (TPACK).

Introduction

Universiti Utara Malaysia consists of three main colleges which are College of Business (COB-UUM), College of Arts and Science (CAS-UUM), and College of Law, Government and International Studies (COLGIS-UUM). College of Arts and Science consists of five (5) schools namely School of Computing, School of Education and Modern Languages, School of Multimedia Technology and Communication, School of Quantitative Science and School of Social Development. The School of Education and Modern Languages offers Bachelor in Education (B.Ed.) degrees specializing in Accounting, Business Management, Guidance and Counseling, Information Technology and Moral Education. The students' intake is monitored and sponsored by Ministry of Education. Upon completion, the pre-service teachers are posted in the government sponsored schools. While studying in the University, students are exposed to various technology based courses such as the multimedia software development course for education, animation and graphics in education, audio and video in education and education technology. All of these courses enable the graduates to apply technology when the teaching and learning process is implemented in the classrooms.

According to Malaysian Education Blueprint (2012) the ministry will ensure that all teachers meet a minimum level of Information and Communication Technology (ICT) literacy by the end of 2015. The system's standard for ICT literacy is based on an established rubric for ICT competency developed by the International Society for Technology in Education (ISTE, 2009); but ISTE is not designed to measure the ICT confidence for pre-service teachers. Therefore the management of the university should assess these pre-service teachers' TPACK to ensure that they are really ready to face the real world of education. Therefore, the Technological Pedagoical Content Knowledge (TPACK) framework is used to measure the level of confidence of pre-service teachers through the seven domains suggested by Mishra and Koehler (2006) as most suitable for pre-service teachers (Moersch, 2002; Albion, 2003; Schmidt et al, 2009). The researchers also measured the confidence and competency level of the pre-service teachers to ensure that all of them were able use technology in daily practice.

Literature Review

For the sake of assisting and guiding the researchers to integrate technology in education, scholars have developed several types of models or frameworks to integrate technology in education. Included among these models are Levels of Technology Integration (LoTI) (Moersch, 2002) scale, Apple Classrooms of Tomorrow (ACOT) continuum (Sandholtz, 1997), The North Central Regional Educational Laboratory (Lemke, 2003) model and International Society for Technology in Education (ISTE) NETS-T 2008 Standards (ISTE, 2008). Most of these integration models focus on general pedagogy terms, independent from specific domain content. However, now the technologists are of the opinion that the use of pedagogical technology is very much influenced by content domain. For instance, knowledge that is required to integrate technology in the science subjects is different than in geography subjects (Dorian, 2011). In the year 2006, a blueprint was suggested by blending three aspects of teachers' knowledge: Pedagogical Knowledge, Content Knowledge, and Technological Knowledge (Koehler & Mishra, 2008; Mishra & Koehler, 2006). The new framework is known as Technological Pedagogical Content Knowledge (TPACK) (Thompson & Mishra, 2007).

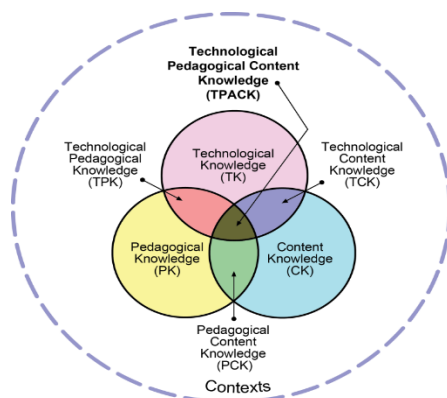


Figure 1. TPACK framework as suggested by Mishra & Koehler (2006)

TPACK blueprint suggests seven different Categories of teachers' knowledge. Figure 1 shows the TPACK blueprint suggested by Mishra and Koehler (2006). The seven knowledge domains described by Mishra and Koehler (2006) include:

Pedagogical Knowledge or PK: Knowledge of the art of teaching, including methods, teaching techniques and strategies, classroom management skills, and planning teaching sessions. It also includes knowledge assessment and evaluation along with student learning (Koehler & Mishra, 2005).

Content Knowledge or CK: Knowledge of subjects to be taught (eg, Physics, Chemistry, Geography). Shulman (1986) defines content knowledge as the knowledge of facts, concepts, and structure of a subject area, as well as the ways in which the truth and falsehood, and validity and invalidity within that content area, are established.

Technological Knowledge or TK: Knowledge of technology that constantly changes includes the ability to process information, communication, and solving problems in daily life and work. Koehler and Mishra (2008) define technological knowledge as a developed technology literacy where persons can broadly apply technology to their everyday lives, and recognize where technology can assist or impede the achievement of a goal.

Pedagogical Content Knowledge or PCK: Knowledge of the pedagogy or the teaching practices that are appropriate for a subject. This also includes knowledge of pedagogical methods, knowledge of the challenges any given area presents, as well as an understanding of students' preconceptions and misconceptions regarding a specific area content. Expertise in a particular area involves more than problem-solving skills and knowing the content (Bransford, Brown, and Cocking, 2000).

Technological Content Knowledge or TCK: Knowledge of the relationship between subjects and technology, including the knowledge related to appropriate technology to be used to explore a content area discipline. The choice of technologies affords and constrains the types of content ideas that can be taught. For example, an animated simulation may be useful in teaching language and arts concepts like grammatical rules. Furthermore, technological tools can provide a greater degree of flexibility in navigating across these representations (Koehler & Mishra, 2008).

Technological Pedagogical Knowledge or TPK: Knowledge for using technology to implement a teaching method. For example, TPK can be exhibited by knowing how to effectively use a digital camera in the classroom or knowledge of effective online teaching (Cox, 2008).

Technological Pedagogical Content Knowledge or TPACK: Knowledge of the complex interaction among content, pedagogy and technology.

This study focuses on TPACK confidence among pre-service teacher in Universiti Utara Malaysia.

Many researches have pertained to pre-service teachers who are confident with ICT and their abilities to use technology. For example, Owen and Moyle (2008) synthesized Markauskaite et al. (2006) research report whereby the pre-service teachers generally possessed good Instructional Technology or IT skills to use word processors and presentation softwares, be able to access and use email and the Internet, but less confident in using applications such as 'webgroup' discussions and website design. From their analysis, Owen and Moyle formulated a relationship between teachers' attitude and beliefs in determining their true practices and their abilities to learn new skills.

Research conducted by Albion (2003) emphasized an increasing trend to access computers and the Internet, but at the same time it also showed that this increasing access is also accompanied by an uneven level of confidence in the skills of the pre-service teachers. For example, even though there has been an improvement in basic IT skills, the use of database and spreadsheets remained relatively unchanged. Albion has also reported that website designs, online group discussions, virtual visits, data mining, and palmtop computers are rarely used.

There are several instruments to measure TPACK of teachers (Archambault & Crippen, 2009; Jamieson-Proctor, Finger, & Albion, 2010; Mishra & Koehler, 2005; Schmidt et al., 2009). However, the instruments mentioned above have been designed to be used by in-service teachers. In the Schmidt et al. research, (2009) instruments were formulated to measure the TPACK level of pre-school pre-service teachers. Jamieson-Proctor, Finger, and Albion (2010) measured the level of TPACK of pre-service teachers regarding ICT courses. Schmidt et al. (2009) conducted the most comprehensive research that included most of the TPACK aspects regarding the education of pre-service elementary teachers.

The research questions for this study are as follows:

What is the competency level of pre-service teachers in using ICT applications?

What is the confidence level of pre-service teachers ICT usage?

What is the TPACK confidence level of the pre-service teachers in the Universiti Utara Malaysia?

Method

Participants

Altogether, 220 final semester students who were involved in this research were from the School of Education and Modern Language, Universiti Utara Malaysia. All of the students were under the Education Degree program with one of the following minors namely Accounting, Moral, Business Management or Information Technology.

Instrument

In this research three instruments were used based on the research questions that have been set. All three instruments were adapted from previous studies. The first instrument was used to measure the competency level of pre-service teachers in using ICT applications. Students were asked to evaluate their own competency level based on the 17 items provided using a 4-point Likert scale (Jamieson-Proctor, Finger, & Albion, 2010). The second instrument was used to measure the confidence level of pre-service teachers in ICT. A Likert scale (4-point) was used to evaluate the confidence level of the pre-service teachers which are: 1-Not confident, 2- Quite confident, 3-Confident and 4- Very confident. Twenty-three items from the ICT Audit Survey research (Watson et al., 2004) were used to measure the confidence level. Finally the students were asked to complete the online TPACK Confidence Survey in April 2013 voluntarily. Nineteen solid items in the questionnaire from Learning with ICT research: Measuring ICT use in the curriculum were adapted from Jamieson-Proctor et al. (2007) and its validity has been proven through the study conducted on measurement of technological knowledge (TK) and Pedagogical Knowledge (PK) (Albion, Jamieson-Proctor, & Finger, 2010).

Instrument Validation

A comprehensive study conducted by Schmidt et al. (2009) to develop and validate an assessment instrument for pre-service teachers. They found the Cronbach's alpha statistics on the TPACK knowledge domains and factor analysis for each domain. Their results suggest that, with the modification and/or deletion of 18 of the survey items, the survey is a reliable and valid instrument that will help educators design longitudinal studies to assess preservice teachers' development of TPACK.

Reliability of Instruments

Alfa Cronbach was calculated to determine the internal consistency for every instrument and showed the following results: $\alpha=0.921$ (ICT application competency); $\alpha = 0.922$ (Confidence in using ICT) and $\alpha = .951$ (Technology, Pedagogy and Content).

Data Collection Procedure and Analysis

A time frame of two weeks was given to all students to answer the questionnaire sent through their respective e-mails (Google Form). The lecturers were informed to remind students to answer the questionnaire. Researchers had sent reminder emails to all students after a week. Data sent by students will be automatically saved in Google Drive. After the two week period ends data would have been processed using SPSS software.

Results

Demographic Information

A total of 154 students who are in the education degree program have answered the questionnaire. The response percentage is 70%. Table 1 shows the respondents' details according to gender, degree program and the confidence level in using ICT in teaching and learning.

Table 1 Information for pre-service teachers, according to gender, program and confidence level in ICT

	Number of pre-service teachers	Percentage
Gender:		
Male	32	21.0
Female	122	79.0
Total	154	100
Program:		
Bachelor in Education (Accounting)	27	17.5
Bachelor in Education (Business Management)	36	23.5
Bachelor in Education (Guidance and Counseling)	17	11.0
Bachelor in Education (Information Technology)	48	31.4
Bachelor in Education (Moral Education)	26	16.6
Total	154	100
Level of Confidence in Using ICT:		
Not Confident	4	2.6
Quite Confident	44	28.6
Confident	66	42.8
Very Confident	40	26.0

Total	154	100
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Table 1 shows that 79% of respondents were females. This is in line with the trend in the teaching profession in Malaysia. The response percentage for the Bachelor Degree (Information Technology) program is high (31%) because the researchers are teaching staff for courses related to information technology. Whereas the response from the Bachelor Degree (Guidance and Counseling) group was low because the researchers did not have much access to this group due to time constraint. The level of confidence in ICT was very encouraging with quite confident (28.6%), confident (45.4%) and very confident (21.5%).

Competency Level of Using ICT Application

Table 2 shows a number of applications requested by respondents to evaluate their individual competency levels; mean (with standard deviation) for each application. 4-point Likert Scale was used: 1=Not Competent, 2=Quite Competent, 3=Competent, 4=Very Competent. Data was analyzed using SPSS V17 software.

Table 2 Competency of pre-service teachers in using ICT applications

Item	ICT Application Software	\bar{X} (SD)	%Not Competent
1	Word processing (Egs. Microsoft word)	3.51 (.87)	.7
2	Desktop Publishing (Egs: Microsoft Publisher)	2.76 (1.21)	18.3
3	Presentation Software (Egs: Microsoft Powerpoint)	3.26 (.84)	1.5
4	Electronic spreadsheet (Egs: Microsoft Egscel)	2.75 (.98)	8.5
5	Database (Egs: Microsoft Access)	1.65 (.86)	42.5
6	Graphic Creation and / or editing Egs: Adobe Photoshop, Paint)	2.03 (.52)	29.4
7	Capture Digital Image (Egs: Digital Cameras, Scanning)	2.75 (1.02)	6.5
8	Multimedia development and composition (Egs:Flash, Director)	1.68 (.98)	60.9
9	Digital Video Editing (Egs: Adobe Premire, Movie Director)	1.76 (1.05)	51.3
10	Email (Egs: Gmail, Yahoo, Microsoft Outlook)	3.75 (.78)	.1
11	Web Browser (Egs:Internet Egsploer, Google Chrome, Safari, Firefox)	3.42 (.85)	1.1
12	Web Search (Eg: Google)	3.5 (.76)	.3
13	Web page development (Eg. Dreamweaver)	1.56 (1.09)	55.2
14	Web 2.0 and Social Network (Egs: Facebook, Flickr, Twitter, Youtube)	3.15 (.95)	6.5
15	Online learning (Eg: Moodle)	2.21(.65)	25.6
16	Online publishing (Eg: Blog, Podcast, Youtube)	2.82 (1.02)	19.5
17	Create reusable learning objects	1.65 (1.0)	42.3

On the whole, these results show that the UUM pre-service teachers are skillful in using basic ICT applications needed to equip them as teachers in the 21st century. As shown in Table 2, the mean score for the use of Microsoft applications such as word processing (\bar{X} =3.51), presentation (\bar{X} =3.26), email (\bar{X} =3.75), web browser (\bar{X} =3.42), web search (\bar{X} =3.50), web 2.0 and social network (\bar{X} =3.15) was very high compared to using desktop publishing software (\bar{X} =2.76), database (\bar{X} =1.65), multimedia development and composition (\bar{X} =1.68), digital image and video processing (\bar{X} =2.75, and (\bar{X} =1.76), web page development (\bar{X} =1.56) and creating reusable learning objects (\bar{X} =1.65). It can be said that the UUM pre-service teachers are able to use basic ICT software very well but unfortunately their ability in using the 'High hand' (required high IT skills) software is unsatisfactory. Online learning (\bar{X} =2.21) showing a low confidence level with a percentage of 25.6% indicated that they are not confident in using it. This might be because the importance of using 'Moodle' was not emphasized

enough at the college level (Arumugam, 2013). Apart from that, the web page development also showed that the percentage of not competent was quite high, 55.2%. This phenomenon might be due to the impression among pre-service teachers that they are not trained to become web page developers but to use it instead. However, the web page development course became one of the contributors to the findings for item 13.

Confidence Level of ICT Usage

The Chi-square test was used to investigate the relationship among the frequencies of various categories (Burns, 1990, p.153). The test results have also shown that there is a significant difference between the male and female pre-service teachers regarding the confidence level in using ICT in teaching and learning, $\chi^2(3, N=154) = 15.21, p=.001$. The female pre-service teachers (48.5%) show quite or no confidence compared to the male pre-service teachers who only 3.1%. Table 3 shows the frequency for each male and female category.

Table 3 The confidence level frequencies of pre-service teachers in using ICT in teaching and learning

Level	Gender		%Total
	%Female(N)	%Male(N)	
Not confident	3.3 (4)	0 (0)	2.6
Quite Confident	35.2 (43)	3.1 (1)	28.6
Confident	45.9 (56)	31.3 (10)	42.8
Very Confident	15.6 (19)	65.6 (21)	26.0
Total	100 (122)	100 (32)	100

The confidence levels in using ICT teaching and learning according to programs also show significant differences, $\chi^2(12, N=154) = 52.16, p=.000$. The findings are shown in Table 4. Data in Table 4 shows that the group of students from the Bachelor of Education (Information Technology) program is more confident compared to other groups of students. The group of students from the Bachelor of Education (Guidance and Counseling) program shows the lowest level of confidence.

Table 4 Confidence level in using ICT in teaching and learning according to program

Program	Not confident%	Quite Confident%	Confident%	Very Confident%	Total%
Bachelor in Education (Accounting)	3.5	33.3	45.0	18.2	100
Bachelor in Education (Business Management)	1.5	21.4	53.3	23.8	100
Bachelor in Education (Guidance and Counseling)	14.5	22.5	50.0	13.0	100
Bachelor in Education (Information Technology)	4.5	35.0	36.0	24.5	100
Bachelor in Education (Moral Education)	1.6	25.5	52.5	20.4	100

Confidence in Using ICT- Technological Pedagogy Content Knowledge (TPACK)

Table 5 shows the TPACK confidence level of the pre-service teachers in the Universiti Utara Malaysia. A total of 19 items was used according to the TPACK confidence level of the pre-services from the UUM School of Education. The first 13 items (First dimension) consisted of instrument upgrading factors and the other 6 items (Second dimension) consisted of transformation factors. The table also shows examples of ICT integration and the percentage of those who assume that they do not have confidence or they have limited confidence to support students to use ICT for every TPACK example.

Table 5 Confidence to integrate ICT in learning -TPACK

Item	I can help students in using ICT in the classroom to:	\bar{X} (SD)	% No/ Limited Confidence
1	gain knowledge, skills, capabilities, and attitude to work continuously	2.38 (.85)	35.2
2	develop functional competency in the curriculum field that has been determined.	2.45 (.95)	33.2
3	synthesize their knowledge.	2.72 (.98)	41.0
4	active in constructing their own knowledge in cooperating with their friends and others	2.65 (1.00)	28.0
5	active in constructing knowledge that integrates the curriculum field.	2.56 (.85)	32.2
6	construct in depth understanding interesting topics related to the curriculum field that is studied.	2.72 (.85)	34.8
7	develop scientific understanding of the world.	2.45 (.95)	39.5
8	give motivation for curricular tasks.	2.75 (.92)	28.4
9	plan and / or manage curricular projects.	2.60 (.85)	23.1
10	integrate different media to create appropriate products.	2.50 (.80)	39.8
11	support learning process elements.	2.65 (.95)	36.0
12	demonstrate what they have learned.	2.85 (.78)	20.5
13	carry out formative / or summative assessments.	2.72 (.96)	29.5
14	be made aware of the global implication of ICT based technology on societies.	2.50 (.85)	38.5
15	gain intercultural understanding.	2.61 (.75)	36.5
16	assess themselves and society values critically.	2.45 (.90)	42.0
17	communicate with others in and at global level.	2.75 (1.00)	30.4
18	get involved in independent learning through access to education at their own time, place and pace.	2.75 (.99)	32.5
19	understand and get involved in the changing knowledge economy.	2.50 (1.05)	42.5

Gender Differences

The Pearson Chi-square significance test revealed no significance with each of the 19 items. Gender impact, however, on the confidence level of the pre-service teachers in this study was significant. This result is in line with studies conducted by previous researchers. MANOVA was used to determine whether gender is the determining factor in their confidence level to integrate ICT in the students' future learning, in line with the research hypothesis to measure TPACK. The MANOVA was significant for gender, Pillai Trace = .02, $F = 3.17$, $df = (2, 151)$, $p = .000$, indicated the different levels of confidence to support student ICT use for male and female teachers. However, the main effect is of no significance as the univariate F tests showed no significant difference between males and females for either dimensions. Table 6 shows the means (with standard error) for each factor by gender.

Table 6 Comparison between the means of male and female pre-service teachers for two ICT dimensions used by students (N=154)

Gender	Dimension 1 (Increase learning outcome)	Dimension 2 (Transform learning outcome)
Female	2.71 (.07)	2.47 (.05)
	2.46 (.12)	2.45 (.34)

This research shows that there was no difference in terms of gender. Therefore, it can be concluded that there is no difference between male and female pre-service teachers in terms of confidence in integrating ICT based on TPACK.

Discussion

This research explores basic aspects of ICT knowledge of students in final semester as pre-service teachers under the education program in Universiti Utara Malaysia. It was found that the level of broadband and ICT access among students was high. Generally, the pre-service teachers stated a high level of interest and usage of ICT either for personal usage or for professional purposes. The pre-service teachers also voiced their intention to use ICT to improve learning outcomes compared to using ICT in teaching and learning.

TPACK is a multi-dimensional construct that can provide pre-service teachers a framework to address technology integration in instruction. The results from this study indicated that the TPACK survey was reliable and valid. The Ministry of Education goals will not be achieved if TPACK is ignored because the framework provides important directions in supporting pre-service teachers in developing the ability and confidence to teach with technology. Using TPACK as a framework for decision-making, a teacher program provide better guidance for pre-service teachers towards gaining an understanding of the holistic concept of pedagogy, content, and technology and thus eventually improving the teaching and learning process in classroom.

This research also found a small change in ICT software usage competency compared to previous studies (Albion, 2003). Previous studies showed a high mean level ($\bar{X} \geq 3$) in the use of word processing software, presentation, e-mails, web browsers, web search; and lower mean level ($\bar{X} \leq 3$) for web application 2.0 which evolved over a few years ago. The study also revealed a low mean about using web 2.0, multimedia, and digital video. This result is likely due to the lack of facilities available to the students. As most of these applications (web 2.0, multimedia, digital video editing) need high speed computers and Internet access. The students may feel not competent to use these technologies in instruction. Since 2003 a significant fund was channeled into the development of learning objects (www.moe.gov.my/btp).

This research, having a similar purpose as the previous related studies, found that there is a difference in terms of gender and confidence in using ICT in teaching and learning. However, this research shows that there is a positive trend among female pre-service teachers in terms of confidence in using ICT. The difference can be seen in the programs offered. Looking at the program structure of the School of Education, this might happen because of limited need for ICT usage for the courses without ICT components. For example, students from B. Ed (IT) program (Very Confident – 24%) have a very high level of confidence compared to students from B. Ed (Guidance and Counseling) program (Very confident – 13.0%).

Finally, this research measures two dimensions of TPACK of pre-service teachers which are: 1) learning outcome improvement dimension and ii) transformation dimension. Research findings are different than previous studies whereby in this study there is no difference in terms of gender.

In general, this research exhibits ICT experience of pre-service teachers in the school of education in UUM. The uniqueness of this study is that it measured confidence, competency and TPACK level of pre-service teachers. Since there are 27 Teacher Training Institutes and few universities offering B. Ed program around Malaysia this study recommends that teacher education programs need to be audited using the TPACK model as the evaluation lens so that the auditing process for integrating technology in education can be easily implemented according to Malaysia Education Blueprint.

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The impact of relief on the distribution of the population in the area of East Sarajevo

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Abstract

Bosnia and Herzegovina, and therefore the City of East Sarajevo have in recent decades been affected by large demographic changes, primarily caused by the war that caused the population emigration population and, together with the process of demographic transition, characterized by a negative natural growth, have led to the depopulation, an aging of population, reduced life quality and low standard of living. The City of East Sarajevo is located in the eastern part of Bosnia and Herzegovina and it consists of six municipalities: East New Sarajevo, Pale, East Ilidža, East Old Town, Sokolac and Trnovo, with about 216 settlements. It covers an area of approximately 1, 425 km² and in hypsometric sense, these settlements are located between 500 and 1916 m of altitude. The morphometric features of the terrain, the horizontal and vertical articulation of relief, slope and elevation of the terrain, exposure, etc. have a major impact on the distribution of the settlement. The subject of this paper will be geographical and habitation specifics of East Sarajevo, vertical zones and distribution of the population. The aim of this paper is to determine whether and how the relief affects the distribution of the population in the researched area and how population depends on the morphometric parameters. Also, we want to determine how the population of mountainous landscapes of the explored territory has changed and what is its trend of the last few decades, since the process of migration from rural to urban areas and the process of land reclamation is expressed throughout the territory of Bosnia and Herzegovina. As a hypothesis, there is the depopulation that is more prominent in areas with higher altitude, and, through the paper we will examine and try to relate the movement of the population and hypsometric distribution of the population. The higher mountainous areas are more affected by intensive aging population, demographic fragmentation and the creation of rural built.

Keywords: Population, morphometric characteristics of the relief, the settlement, the City of East Sarajevo

Introduction

The City of East Sarajevo is situated in the central and eastern part of Bosnia and Herzegovina, that is, the eastern part of Republic of Srpska. The city is comprised of six municipalities: East New Sarajevo, East Ilidža, Pale, Sokolac, Trnovo and East Old Town. The territory of East Sarajevo includes two parts: a greater northern part (1380.61 km²) and a far smaller southern part (45.16 km²).

Republic of Srpska was internationally established after the Civil War (1992-1995) by Dayton Peace Agreement (November 1995) which divided the country Bosnia and Herzegovina into two entities: Republic of Srpska, 49% of BH territory, and The Federation of Bosnia and Herzegovina, 51% of BH territory (Lukić Tanović, Pašalić & Golijanin, 2014).

The present area of the City of East Sarajevo once belonged to the City of Sarajevo, the BH capital, until 1992. The City of Srpsko Sarajevo, later known as East Sarajevo, was formed from the Sarajevo municipalities with predominantly Serbian population.

The previous war was the cause of population regrouping based on their nationality, territory and location. Socially and geographically speaking, the entity border deconstructed the settlement system which was the result of long time period and specific historical, social and economic conditions. The urban network of BH had negligible role in the entity demarcation. Considering complexity of political, territorial and administrative division of BH, it is understandable that it caused the breach in the settlement network. The entity border has divided 304 settlements. The process of settlement disintegration is mostly expressed in the north-eastern parts of BH and in the area of Sarajevo. A special example presents

the Old City municipality where the entity border divided 6 of the total 16 pre-war settlements. The level of disintegration within this municipality (total and divided settlement relation) is 37.5% (Musa, 2005).

Methodology

After gathering necessary literature and material, the first phase in writing this paper is the analysis of available material. The analysis includes basic land relief, demographic and settlement characteristics of the City of East Sarajevo. The next step after analytical research is synthesis that will determine to what extent relief characteristics influence the dislocation of the population, that is, to what extent the population depends on morphometric parameters. The methods used for processing the gathered material are mathematical-statistical method, classification, cartographic method, systematization, comparative method, generalization, description, etc.

For the analysis of morphometric indicators and subsequent comparison of relief influence and population dislocation in the territory of East Sarajevo, DEM data SRTM from the year 2000 were used. Based on DEM resolution 90x90, which is satisfactory resolution for the research undertaken in this paper, the following results were achieved: morphometric relief charts, analysis of area data and statistical parameters, used for comparison of relief influence and population dislocation. For all these actions, GIS tools were used (program package ArcGIS 10.1).

All settled areas of the mentioned territory were located and charted with the use of GIS and topographic charts since the data sources on population dislocation on the territory of the City of East Sarajevo were mainly the official statistical institutions of BH, which grouped the number of inhabitants according to the settled municipalities. In order to achieve more precise spatial analysis, subsequent data comparison and greater objectivity (and due to the lack of data about settlement borders), the procedure of determining "working" settlement acreage was conducted. For the above, the graphic method was used by which the circle of 1000 m radius was made around earlier charted points of every settlement. This is how land area dimensions of the particular settlements were derived. Also, it is necessary to mention that acreage of specific settlements passes over the borders of the neighbouring municipalities and even the entity border. This is specifically the case with municipalities of Trnovo and East Old Town. The research results of the relief influence on the population dislocation in the territory of East Sarajevo are represented graphically in charts, diagrams and tables.

Relief particularities of the City of East Sarajevo

The area of East Sarajevo is located 500 m above the sea level and has mountain characteristics. Almost 70% of the town territory has altitude between 800 and 1200 m. The altitude below 600 m takes only 1, 92 % of the territory and the altitude above 1500 m takes 2, 23% of the territory. Among the town municipalities, East Old Town has the biggest average altitude. The lowest point is 510 m and it is situated in the valley of Željeznica River on the border of the settlement Vojkovići. The highest point is on the mountain Jahorina, called the Ogorjelica peak with the altitude of 1916 m.

In morphology of the researched area, the following river valleys are differentiated: Prača, Željeznica, Tilava, Paljanska Mlijava, Mokranjska Mlijacka, Bioštica, and Kaljina. Most prominent ravines are Sarajevska and Paljanska ravines and of the vast plateaus, Glasinac plateau is to be distinguished. Among these, massifs over 1000 m situated here are: Jahorina, Trebević, Romanija, Ozren, Devetak.

In relief morphology, the distinguished traits are the ravines of Kaljina and Bioštica in the municipality of Sokolac, Mlijacka Ravine in the East Old Town municipality, and Paljanska Mlijacka Ravine in the municipality of Pale. In the southernmost areas of the city, Trnovo municipality, the most domineering point is Treskavica Massif with the peak Lupoč (1776 m). North to Trnovo, there is the morphological unit Trebević- Ravna Planina- Jahorina. On the northern parts of Jahorina, the located faults separate karstified areas of Ravna Planina and Trebević from Jahorina. Romanija Mountain dominates the area northeast to Pale and west to Sokolac with the peaks Velika stijena (1617 m), Djeva (1573 m) and others (Institute of Planning Republic of Srpska, 2008). The west part of Romanija is greatly karstified plateau with many sinkholes and other karstified forms. The west part of this mountain is predisposed to faults, so that crumbled rocks is accumulated below vertical cliffs. Flat areas, which were formed by deposition of the quaternary deposits on limestone or Miocene sediments, are: Glasinačko and Luburić polje, Kovanj, Batovo, Pale and so on. Among the genetic relief forms there are those of fluvial-denudation, fluvial- karst, karst and fluvial-accumulative land forms (Golijanin, 2012).

Demographic and settlement particularities of the City of East Sarajevo

After 22 years, in October 2013, the census took place in Bosnia and Herzegovina, so that for now the preliminary census data are available for demographic research purposes. Data regarding 1971, 1981 and 1991 for the present territory of East Sarajevo, were received from the official institutions involved in population statistics (Croatian Bureau of statistics Republic of Croatia, 1995). Based on these, the data summarization and the redistribution among municipalities that are presently past of East Sarajevo were conducted.

According to 1991 census, the present territory of East Sarajevo was populated by 44, 430 inhabitants¹. According to the same census, the City of Sarajevo had population of 527, 049 inhabitants, so that only 8, 43 % of the inhabitants of Sarajevo belonged to the present territory of East Sarajevo, excluding Sokolac municipality.

Many crucial social and economic changes occurred during the war (1992-1995), affecting the demographic changes and their precise assessment. Especially the war migrations caused such demographic situation in the territory of East Sarajevo. In 1996, 48, 3 % of the city population was categorized as refugees or displaced persons, and in 2001 the number was 32, 9%. War migrations influenced gross reproduction rate and decline in natural increase rate, as well as disruption in gender, age, ethnic, education and economic structure of the city population.

However, migration balance of internal migration in East Sarajevo in the last five years has been positive: the population inflow is greater than population outflow. In 2013, according to the preliminary census results (Institute of Statistics Republic of Srpska, 2013), the City of East Sarajevo has the population of 64, 966, that is 20, 536 persons more than in the initial period of the town building, meaning that in the last 20 years the number of persons in the territory of East Sarajevo increased for 46, 3%.

Since 1996, one of the biggest demographic problems of the city is the negative natural increase. The problem of low birth rate has not been adequately tackled neither by local nor the state authorities, in the sense that no adequate measures were undertaken as way of solving this problem (Lukić, 2011).

Dislocation of both the population and the settlements in the territory of the city was influenced by morphological land characteristics, climate, microclimate, hydrological characteristics and so on. The settlements are located in hypsometric zone ranging from 510 m to 1, 500 m. The highest settlements are on the hillsides of Treskavica and Jahorina mountains, and the lowest are located in Sarajevo valley.

From the total of 216 inhabited places, only 5 are urban/city settlements and also municipality centres in which the highest number of population is situated. The city settlements note increase in the number of inhabitants, mostly because of the mechanical afflux of population and country-city migrations.

In rural areas there is demographic depletion and settlement decrement, so that consequently the following processes appear: depopulation, deruralization, disaggregation, country-city migrations, emergence of aging households, but also demographic withering of vast number of country settlements (Ivković & Todorčić, 2013).

By analyzing the number of population in the populated places, we can conclude that the settlements ranging from 10-49 inhabitants dominate in the territory of the City of East Sarajevo, or expressed in percentage- 32, 5 %. The disturbing fact is that 25% of populated places has less than 10 inhabitants, while this percentage in 1991 was 6%, in 1981 4, 2 % and in 1971 only 1, 4%. Apart from extremely small number of inhabitants, these settlements have also very unfavourable age structure and very difficult conditions for possible demographic revitalization. Unless in the subsequent period migration of younger population and investment in the development of country economy happens, the preconditions are that these settlements will completely wither. Contrary to this and as the confirmation of the hypothesis that demographic growth is apparent in the city areas, two settlements over 10, 000 inhabitants could be distinguished in 2013. In 5 city settlements there are 42, 600 inhabitants, that is 65, 6 % of the total population, while in the remaining 211 rural areas there are 22, 366 inhabitants, that is 34, 4%.

The analysis of the relief influence on population dislocation

The fact that the relief forms the landscape and that all social activities are here performed contributes to it as an important role in distribution of economic activities and population as well. In the researched areas four hypsometric zones are evident: Southeast part of Sarajevo Polje, altitude 510 m and more,

¹ Considering the mentioned problem of bordering between settlements, the number of population in East Sarajevo territory for 1991,1981 and 1971 is imprecise, approximately determined population number.

Hill relief with plains and plateaus, 800- 1000m

Middle mountain relief, 1000-1500 m

High mountain relief with peaks: Jahorina (1916m), Treskavica (1776m), Romanija (1652m), Trebević (1629m), Ozren (1453m), Devetka (1424m).

Based on the census data and the analysis of the influence of the relief and population number according to the last census results, it is noted that population dislocation and population itself correspond to stated hypsometric classes. Areas belonging to Sarajevsko Polje, mostly parts of the municipalities of East Ilidža and East New Sarajevo, as lower altitudes distinguish as more favourable for settlement and urbanization. The population number on the lowest hypsometric zone in the researched area is 27, 338 inhabitants or 42%. However, in the second hypsometric zone, the population conditions are also favourable since the population number is the greatest (50, 9% or 33, 155 inhabitants), that is more than half of the population in the researched area live precisely in this zone.

The settlements in Pale and Trnovo basins, as well as the settlement on Sokolac plateau, enter this hypsometric zone with heights 800-900 m which are dominantly the most populated in the territory of East Sarajevo. In the zone dominated by middle mountain relief, the population number disturbingly decreases and these areas have lower population density (4, 544 or 7% of the inhabitants live in places located between 1000-1500 m), while the highest areas of the city territory are almost unpopulated. In the highest hypsometric zone, there are two settlements (Jahorina and Kozja Luka) with potentials for development of tourism and forestry. The relation between hypsometric relief characteristics and population distribution, according to different census periods, are shown in Table 1. and Chart 1.

Data in Chart 1. clearly show the differences between hypsometric relief characteristics and population distribution, according to different census periods. Generally, population growth is evident over the time, especially in the first two hypsometric zones. Also, the decrease or stagnation in population number is evident in the higher areas of the researched territory.

By analyzing and comparing the influence of sloping relief on population distribution on analyzed area, it is concluded that the highest number of inhabitants (42 278, 65%) is situated on mildly sloping terrain with slopes ranging between 2–5°. However, more than half of settlements are located on the sloping terrain with slopes ranging from 5–12°. Mainly this is the case with rural settlements with the population decrease trend which is clearly presented in Table 2. and Chart 2. 12, 349 inhabitants were located in the sloping terrain, which is 19% of the total population number in the territory of the city. In the slightly sloping terrain with categories of slopes ranging from 12- 32°, there are 6, 931 inhabitants (10, 6%). The number of settlements registered in these slope categories is also considerably high, but the number of inhabitants in these areas decreased by almost half in the last 40 years. This is mostly the case with rural areas situated in higher altitudes, which additionally aggravate the lives of its inhabitants. For this reason, the migration trend and depopulation is quite understandable. The lowest population number is on the plateaus with slopes below 2° which can be explained by the fact that because of the hill and mountain terrain character of the land relief itself, these terrains are generally represented to the smallest degree in the researched area.

The influence of the relief exposition on the distribution of population is mostly reflected in favourable circumstances for living. In this view, more favourable are southern and western expositions than northern and eastern ones. However, as for the relation between exposition and population distribution in the territory of East Sarajevo, the dominant trait is population on the west-oriented relief slopes (approximately 28%) and then on the north-oriented slopes. This is explained by the configuration of the terrain itself, which because of its domineeringly mountain character with higher mountain areas in east and south, builds greater number of milder slopes on south-western, western and northern slopes which are also of lower altitudes. All of these parameters influenced greater population concentration on the relief to the west, southwest and north exposed sides, while the smallest percent of the population live on the northwest, northeast and south east slopes. Based on the data in Table 3. and Chart 3., the trends of population increase are evident, mostly to the west and southwest-oriented slopes.

Conclusion

The analysis of the relief influence on the population distribution in the territory of the City of East Sarajevo showed itself as very interesting topic for research. While doing the paper, certain conclusions were made and also confirmations of previously set hypothesis on the influence that relief has on the distribution of population.

It was affirmed that population of certain areas and its distribution greatly correspond to the outlined hypsometric levels, that is, that population distribution depends on altitude and that the areas of the City of East Sarajevo above the altitude of 1000 m are slightly populated. It has been noted that the most populated areas are those ranging between 800 and 1000 m altitudes, and then the areas ranging from 500-800 m. This is the reason why 92, 9% of the population is located in the zone to 1000 m altitude, while there is only 7, 1% population in the areas over 1000 m. The assumption that rural areas located on higher altitudes were more populated in earlier years (in comparison to 2013) has also been confirmed. Depopulation in rural areas is confirmed by the fact that number of settlements with less than 10 people increased since 1991 for 19%, and since 1971, even 23, 6%.

The research has showed that the greatest population is to the west-oriented slopes, while in relation to the sloping terrain, the biggest percentage of population (65%) is located in the slopes ranging from 2° to 5°, and then the slopes ranging from 5° to 12° (19%).

The hill and mountain relief, that dominates the researched area, distinguishes itself as the limiting population factor. These limitations are mostly reflected in the poor infrastructure connection, economy underdevelopment, and consequently prominent depopulation and population outflow. In the territory of East Sarajevo, the relief characteristics make it possible for the population to practice agriculture only partly, while the conditions for cattle farming are more favourable. The greatest number of population is located in the river valleys and basins situated between mountain massifs, where better life conditions are present as well as development of different economic activities. One of the advantages of mostly mountain relief in the territory of East Sarajevo is the possibility of mountain tourism development, especially winter mountain tourism, which is confirmed by the example of Jahorina and Trebevic mountains.

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Tables

Table 1. Population distribution according to hypsometric relief characteristics

Elevation	Number of settlements	Population				2013.god.
		1971	1981	1991	2013	
500-600	7	1 844	2 120	2 557	23 716	
600-700	5	2 899	3 054	3 169	2 717	42
700-800	12	1 979	1 541	1 578	905	
800-900	49	15 827	17 461	21 735	26 630	
900-1000	72	11 456	10 114	8 016	6 525	50, 9
1000-1100	34	5 908	4 792	4 171	3 094	
1100-1200	17	3 067	2 243	2 348	774	
1200-1300	12	1 010	705	476	402	7
1300-1400	6	649	481	367	284	
1400-1500	0	0	0	0	0	
1500-1600	2	60	21	13	47	
> 1600	0	0	0	0	0	0, 1

Table 2. Population distribution according to the relief descent

Inclination (°)	Number of settlements	Population				2013. in %
		1971	1981	1991	2013	
< 2	1	0	0	0	3 536	5, 4
2-5	19	9 837	12 118	16 647	42 278	65
5-12	120	21 902	19 555	18 028	12 349	19
12-32	76	12 960	10 859	9 755	6 931	10, 6
> 32	0	0	0	0	0	0

Table 3. Population distribution according to relief exposition characteristics

Slope aspect (°)	Number of settlements	Population				2013. in %
		1971	1981	1991	2013	
Horiz. površine	0	0	0	0	0	0
N	31	9 412	9 917	11 572	17 339	26, 6
NE	32	4 901	3 898	3 369	1 894	2, 9

E	21	6 503	7 892	10 003	9 612	14, 7
SE	16	2 336	1 756	1 573	1 210	1, 9
S	30	5 296	4 714	3 577	2 533	3, 9
SW	47	7 802	6 088	5 989	13 985	21, 5
W	28	7 151	7 246	7 460	18 003	27, 7
NW	11	1 298	1 021	887	518	0, 8

Figures

Figures 1. a) Geographical position of East Sarajevo within BH; (b) The location of municipalities and settlements in the East Sarajevo territory (Source: a www.camo.ch); b) www.esri.com)

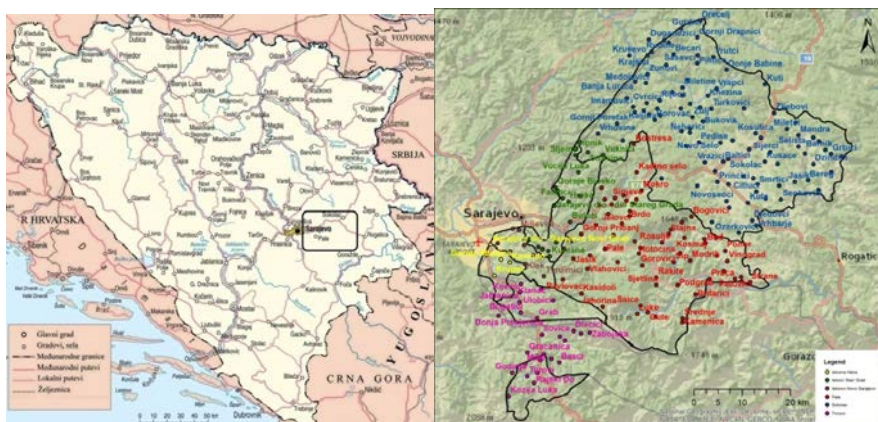


Figure 2. Morphometric land relief charts of the researched area with the settlements: (a) hypsometric chart of the City of East Sarajevo; (b) chart of relief descent of the City of East Sarajevo; (c) chart of relief exposition of the City of East Sarajevo

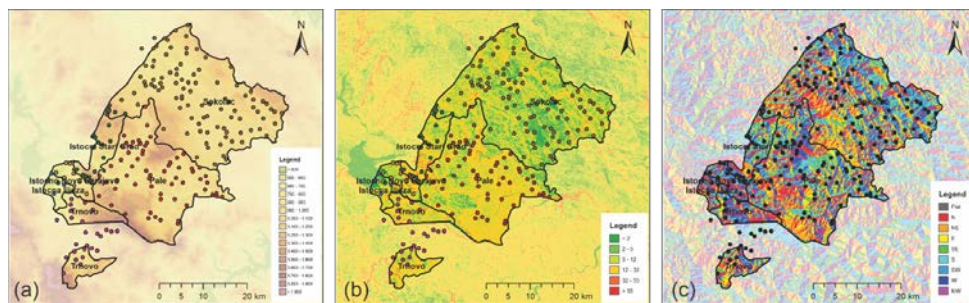


Chart 1. Relation between hypsometric relief characteristics and population in the territory of East Sarajevo

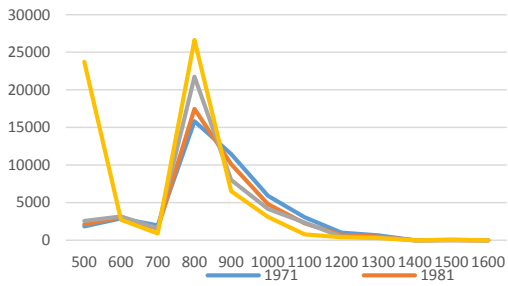


Chart 2. The relation between relief descent characteristics and population in the territory of East Sarajevo

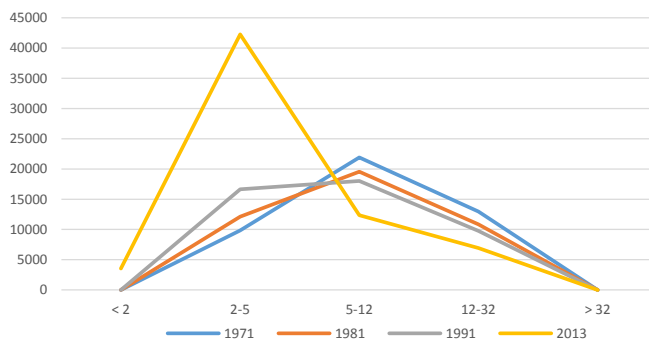
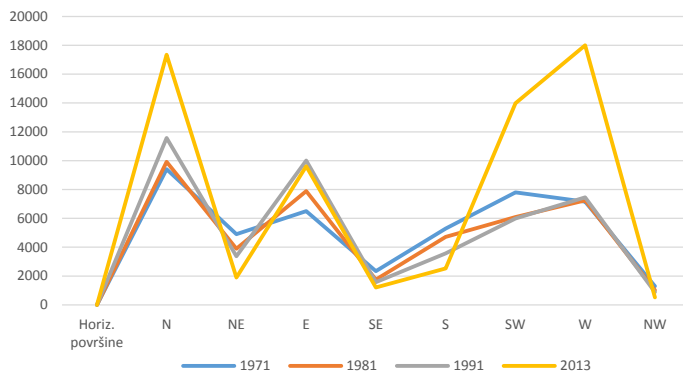


Chart 3. The relation between relief exposition characteristics and population in the territory of East Sarajevo



Multiple Citizenship at Stake: a Critical Assessment of the Croatian Citizenship Policy Towards National Minorities

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Abstract

The question of (multiple) citizenship of national minorities has been omnipresent in the intellectual and public discourse of the Republic of Croatia since the very beginnings of its independence in the course of early 90s of the 20th century. The transition period of the post-socialism era marked the effort of political elites to establish a balance among the democratic and nationalist concepts of the Croatian statehood, whereat the repercussions of this clash reflected on both the definition of citizenship and the fate of national minorities. With its ethnocentric approach, the Croatian citizenship regime comes out of standard frameworks which define citizenship as a legal bond between the state and an individual, also adding a cultural and political dimension to the nexus in which citizenship frequently becomes an instrument of self-identification with ethnic Croats. The paper aims to shed light on the positioning of national minorities in such social constellations, accentuating the issue of their access to (multiple) citizenship and challenges they face thereof, as well as the inconsistent and selective nature of the Croatian citizenship policy towards different parts of its multi-ethnic corpus. This is primarily done through a concise analysis and interpretation of the Law on Croatian Citizenship – its evolution, core provisions and socio-political circumstances surrounding it. In that vein, the fundamental method used for scientific inquiry is legal dogmatic. The focus of the interest refers to the question to what extent the norms on multiple citizenship accommodate the needs of national minorities, help them preserve their peculiar identities and encourage their wider integration into the Croatian post-transitional society.

Key words: multiple citizenship, national minorities, ethnic identity, ethnocentrism, the Republic of Croatia

Introductory Remarks

The concept of citizenship has been under the spotlight of the legal-political discourse in the contemporary Croatian history since the very beginnings of the Croatian independence. The emphasis needs to be put on the notion 'contemporary' since the origins of the Croatian statehood reach back to the 9th century and during various historical epochs, Croatia has gone through different forms of statehood and political statuses (Macan, 1992; Stančić, 2002). The period preceding the acquisition of recent independence, which is of utmost relevance for our analysis, relates to the 46-year existence of the Socialist Federal Republic of Yugoslavia. In this union, Croatia was one of the six entities which were, despite sharing the same destiny within the same federation, characterized by diverse socio-political circumstances, ethnicities and national identities. The historical heritage of the former state and the consequences of its dissolution have set grounds for the perception of the Croatian approach to the issues of citizenship, including the one concerning multiple citizenship, observed within the context of national minorities. Such linking of citizenship with the rights and status of national minorities in multi-ethnic societies fairly often moves to the forefront of current legal and political theory (Kymlicka & Norman, 2000).

The following chapters examine the most peculiar aspects of the Croatian (multiple) citizenship policy with regard to national minorities, seen through the lens of the complex repercussions of the succession of the former Yugoslavia and the closely intertwined quest for national identity. The focus is set on the disputable difference in treatment between ethnic Croats and 'others' when acquiring (multiple) citizenship, legalised by several provisions of the Law on Croatian Citizenship. The respective controversial and widely contested division along ethnic lines appears as the starting point for the central study of the access of national minorities to Croatian citizenship and consequently, to multiple citizenship. Both in theory and practice, the latter issue represents the secondary problem which lies in the shadows of the primary one related to the acquisition of Croatian citizenship in general and the closely interwoven phenomenon of ethnocentrism. Starting from a legal analysis of the subject matter, the paper seeks to discuss the wider social arena burden with the past experiences of the coexistence in the multi-ethnic federation, prejudices towards ethnic differences and the wish of the Croatian state to

preserve the ethnocentric model of the social order. Summa summarum, the purpose of the paper is to clarify the peculiarities of the Croatian citizenship regime in which not all the national minorities share the same destiny with respect to the access to (multiple) citizenship and its possible benefits.

Yugoslav Legal Heritage as a Basis for the Croatian Concept of Citizenship

Safeguarding a nation's identity and the fight for independence are deemed as the basic elements of the Croatian historical development (Matković, 1998: 16). What seems to be a curiosity is that Croatia came to be a part of a common state of the South Slavs due to the assumption that these are the nations that share related ethnicities, languages and cultures, or in other words, all those integral elements of identity which served as an instrument of denial of their equality or even similarity during and after the fall of the former Yugoslavia. Along with the idea of 'Yugoslavism' evolved the idea of 'Croatism'. The ratio of the national idea encompassed gathering of all ethnic Croats into one state which, due to a superior ruler – the Habsburg Monarchy, could be achieved only by unification of affiliated neighbouring nations who strived to a similar goal (Goldstein, 2003: 201). However, the creation of one state did not imply generation of one nation. The Yugoslav supra-ethnic nation constituted only an artificial notion since the nations of the Yugoslav peoples had existed long before the establishment of a common state (Vrcan, 2006: 62-63; Skledar, 1998: 113-119; Čimić, 1998: 121-133).

While trying to recognize national individualities within the federal state, Yugoslavia was constituted as a federation of equal peoples (hr. *narod*) and nationalities (hr. *narodnosti*). The term of 'peoples' referred to the constitutive nations whose kin-states represented their constituent entities (Bosniaks, Croats, Macedonians, Montenegrins, Serbs and Slovenians) whereas the term of 'nations' entailed national minorities whose national states lay beyond the territory of the former Yugoslavia (e.g. Czechs, Hungarians, Germans, Italians etc.). The breakup of the federation led to the presence of, conditionally speaking, two kinds of national minorities in Croatia – the so-called 'old minorities', i.e. ethnic groups who enjoyed the same minority status prior to the emergence of the independent Croatian state and the 'new minorities', i.e. former constituent peoples in the SFRY. In consequence, this shift brought to substantive changes in the citizenship and civil status of the former constituent peoples which have now become new Croatian minorities. In such circumstances, Croatia had to search for modalities of its citizenship policy which could mitigate or neutralise the negative consequences of political deconstruction. The longing for democracy at the moment of the disintegration of the former federation coincided with the rebirth of extreme nationalism (Buchanan, 2012: 218) which has remained to be a potent social force to this day with significant impacts on the Croatian citizenship policy as one of the tools for additional reinforcement of the positions assumed at the moment of the establishment of new states.

At the present time, the Croatian society can be depicted as bipolar in terms of national identity and citizenship. On one hand, it possesses distinctive national and ethnocentric properties while on the other hand, it reflects a considerable transnational character. The transnational social area is designated by the existence of close cross-border ties and policies of national minorities and their kin-states. Generally speaking, in order to preserve the ethnic ties and particularities of those ethnic collectivities, democratic states are prone to recognise the legitimacy of 'dual loyalty' which gains its legal acknowledgement in the institute of dual/multiple citizenship. As it is shown in the below chapters, Croatia has expressed certain inconsistency and selectiveness regarding this issue. In concreto, it has recognized democratic legitimacy of dual loyalty to a large part of the Croatian ethnic corpus living abroad and hence enabled them to fully participate in the political life of the state (esp. to Croats in Bosnia and Herzegovina) whereas this right has been simultaneously denied or made complicated to members of national minorities who have been present on the Croatian territory for centuries (esp. to Serbs).

The status of multiple citizenship is inherent to the Croatian legal tradition. Its predecessor state established the 'nested structure of dual citizenship' (Bauböck, 2000: 368) in which every citizen simultaneously possessed *de iure* at least two citizenships (Medvedović, 1998): the federal, Yugoslav one, universal for all, and a republican, sub-state one derived from the residence status (Citizenship Act of the Socialist Federal Republic of Yugoslavia, 1976; Citizenship Act of the Socialist Republic of Croatia, 1977). However, *de facto* republican citizenship was only a formality implying no legal effects within the international community since the republics constituting the federation were no subjects of international law (Komanovics & Mazur Kumrić, 2011: 358-359). However, this citizenship gained utmost importance at the time of the dissolution of the SFRY when most people were expected to opt for their republican citizenship as a citizenship of their newly emerged states. Moreover, those with previous citizenship of the Socialist Republic of Croatia acquired Croatian citizenship *ex lege* while all the others became aliens no matter how long they resided on the Croatian territory (Ragazzi, Štikš & Koska, 2013: 6). The latter, as well as those who inclined to the citizenship of some other republic, could acquire it through the naturalisation procedure, in accordance with the respective citizenship laws. However, in a significant number of cases, disparities in the

citizenship regimes of successor states made the acquisition of desired citizenships convoluted. It is beyond any doubt that the example of the succession of the former Yugoslavia indicates a plethora of problems and obstacles which could be faced in the process of fragmentation of the citizenship regime of the former state as a consequence of different approaches to acquisition and loss of citizenship in newly established states (Shaw & Štiks, 2012: 11-12, 22-23). This particularly affected internal Yugoslav migrants who, at the time of the dissolution, resided in the republic whose citizenship they did not possess and had an ethnic background other than the one of the entity's majority population. Furthermore, the additional difficulty was obligatory renouncement of the previous citizenship, which was set as a precondition for acquiring Croatian citizenship, because many overnight aliens in the war-torn region had no access to administrative services necessary for renouncement or issue of a proof of the renouncement. During the Serbian occupation of the Croatian territory, the citizenship status of the Serb minority remained unresolved in occupied areas and it became particularly sensitive and difficult once they fled to neighbouring Serbia and Bosnia and Herzegovina due to the Croatian military takeover. They were de facto Croatian citizens while they resided in the occupied areas, but without 'proving' documents (the so-called *domovnica*). Once they resettled, they lost a genuine link with Croatia, which led to further aggravation of their chances to acquire Croatian citizenship as Serb refugees/members of the Serbian national minority. Moreover, some of them did not want to embrace the citizenship to which they were entitled (Croatian) and there was no ground for acquisition of the desired one (Serbian). Over the time, they have gradually gained an easier access to Croatian citizenship due to a few normative changes resulting from the Croatian accession to the EU and the correlated harmonisation of national laws with European ones. One of them, the introduction of the new Aliens Act (Aliens Act, 2011) enabled those who had a permanent residence in Croatia on 8 October 1991 and have returned to Croatia, to obtain a permanent residence status necessary for the residence requirement in the procedure of acquiring Croatian citizenship.

Croatian Multiple Citizenship Policy and Its Implications on National Minorities

Broadly speaking, the Croatian citizenship policy has evolved over two notably distinct periods of time: the nationalistic and ethnically exclusive one from 1991 to 1999 and the more democratic and ethnically inclusive one from 2000 onwards. In the latter period, the predominantly right-wing, overly nationalist political option has been overthrown by considerably liberal and tolerant pro-European parties that have demonstrated a much higher level of inclusiveness towards ethnic minorities and ethnic non-Croats in general, although the citizenship legislation had remained intact until 2011. The norms did not formally change, but their perception and interpretation unquestionably did. This was further facilitated by the enactment of good-quality pro-minority internal legislation, above all, the 2000 Law on Education in Languages and Letters of National Minorities and on the Use of Language and Script of National Minorities, the 2002 Constitutional Act on the Rights of National Minorities and the 2008 Anti-Discrimination Act.

The conditions for acquisition and termination of Croatian citizenship are regulated by the Law on Croatian Citizenship (Law on Croatian Citizenship, 1991, 2011) which has laid firm legal foundations for a stable citizenship regime (Koska, 2012: 195, 207). The Law was adopted during the first wave of codification, on 8 October 1991, i.e. on the day of the succession of the Republic of Croatia, which confirms the utmost relevance of the citizenship issue during succession of states. In the Croatian legal and institutional space, citizenship represents a multilayered and multidimensional notion which transcends a sole legal bond between an individual and the state and steps into the area of national sentiment and pride.

The Law on Croatian Citizenship does not explicitly recognize multiple citizenship and this notion is defined rather ambiguously. Nevertheless, Croatia tolerates it and an access thereto is stipulated by Article 2, Articles 8, 8a, 9, 10, 11, 12, 15 and 16 (on naturalisation) and Article 21 (on renunciation) of the said Law. Article 2 promotes the principle of exclusivity of Croatian citizenship, emphasising that 'a citizen of the Republic of Croatia who also has foreign citizenship is considered exclusively as a Croatian citizen by the governmental authorities of the Republic of Croatia'. In contradiction to that stipulation, there is a provision of Article 8 § 1(2) enabling a foreigner to obtain Croatian citizenship on the grounds of regular naturalisation, under the condition that he/she has been dismissed from his/her foreign citizenship or that he/she has submitted a proof that he/she will acquire the dismissal if granted Croatian citizenship.

The Law on Croatian Citizenship goes silent on multiple citizenship of national minorities. However, several provisions do have a direct or an indirect effect on their right to acquire multiple citizenship. To assess them, the first step that needs to be taken is to make a distinction between national minorities as potential multiple nationals in Croatia. Namely, these ethnic groups can be viewed from two angles: the external and internal one, i.e. as members of the Croatian national corpus abroad, kin-minorities, on the one hand, and as national minorities on its own territory, on the other hand.

The members of the first group belong to the privileged category of ethnic Croats who are granted a disproportionately easier access to Croatian citizenship in comparison with ethnic non-Croats. The ratio behind this preferential treatment is the intention of the political elites to homogenise the Croatian nation to the greatest possible extent. It is no surprise that in such advantageous conditions, a significant portion of Croatian national minorities abroad has opted for multiple citizenship (provided that the country of their residence allows this) and thus additionally preserved genuine links with their kin-state and most elements of their Croatian identity.

As far as the national minorities residing within the national borders are concerned, there are 22 registered ethnic groups, all of them enumerated in the preamble to the Croatian Constitution (Constitution of the Republic of Croatia, 1991, 2010). They are, however, not equally treated *à propos* the issue of acquisition of (multiple) citizenship. Generally speaking, in order to have the status of a member of a national minority in Croatia, a person needs to be a Croatian citizen (Constitutional Act on the Rights of National Minorities, 2002, Art. 5). Most of these groups have no obstacles to acquire citizenship of another country if its citizenship laws permit multiple citizenship. In that sense, they are treated on the same footing as Croatian citizens of the Croatian ethnicity. It is common and acceptable that they wish to preserve close links with their kin-states through acquiring their citizenships and that act is not contested as a double loyalty phenomenon. Just on the contrary, in such cases, multiple citizenship is regarded as a peculiar legal supplement which enhances standard minority rights protection.

However, due to complex conflicts and post-conflict circumstances, some members of the Serbian and Bosniak minority were put at a disadvantage with members of other national minorities. As noted earlier, they have been facing peculiar obstacles while (re)acquiring Croatian citizenship. Theoretically, there are two provisions of the Law on Croatian Citizenship that might be of use for members of vulnerable Croatian minorities facing problems with the (re)acquisition of Croatian citizenship. Firstly, those who were minors at the time they left Croatia in the course of war and lost Croatian citizenship in accordance with Article 20 (dismissal) and 22 (renouncement) can benefit from Article 23 which stipulates that he/she can acquire Croatian citizenship again if he/she has resided in Croatia for at least twelve consecutive months and if he/she provides a written statement saying that he/she considers him-/herself a Croatian citizen. Secondly, although this could be applicable to probably very few cases, there is another legal ground for these persons to obtain Croatian citizenship (by facilitated naturalisation) – Article 15 relating to a Croatian citizen who has requested and received dismissal from Croatian citizenship in order to acquire foreign citizenship, which was imposed on him/her as a requirement to be able to perform a profession or activity by the foreign state wherein he/she has a domicile. Namely, such a person shall be deemed eligible to acquire Croatian citizenship again if he/she lives in Croatia and has been granted residence despite not meeting all the requirements for regular naturalisation.

To understand the Croatian stance toward multiple citizenship and its ethnocentric policy, a closer look needs to be taken at the naturalisation specificities. The naturalisation procedure is not the same for everyone. The Law makes a clear distinction between regular and facilitated naturalisation. The latter category subsumes aliens who do not need to present a proof of renunciation and refers to those married to a Croatian citizen (Article 10), emigrants (Article 11), those whose citizenship is of interest to Croatia (Article 12), those who were previously Croatian citizens and received dismissal from Croatian citizenship in order to acquire foreign citizenship for professional reasons (Article 15) and ethnic Croats (often members of the Croatian national minority) with no domicile in Croatia (Article 16). However, even this privileged group benefiting from facilitated naturalisation can be divided into subcategories, depending on how many requirements they need to meet to become naturalised citizens.

Article 16 occurs to be one of the most controversial pieces of the Croatian citizenship legislation since it affixes an ethnocentric seal to Croatian citizenship and is very restrictive towards non-ethnic Croats, especially to members of national minorities. The referring provision stipulates that Croatian citizenship may be obtained by a 'member of the Croatian nation' who does not reside in the Republic of Croatia if they meet only one, rather vaguely shaped requirement stated in Article 8 § 1 – that their conduct suggests that they honour the legal order and customs of the Republic of Croatia. By the time, the term of 'member of the Croatian nation' has become disputable as well since the criteria according to which someone can be characterized as such have lost their clarity. The latest amendment of the Law on Croatian Citizenship has been envisaged to put an end to these doubts, so today the scope of the term of 'member of the Croatian nation' involves all those who have earlier declared themselves as such in legal transactions, stated this affiliation in particular public documents, protected the rights and promoted the interests of the Croatian people as well as actively participated in Croatian cultural, scientific and sports associations abroad.

As demonstrated in the above lines, the exclusivity of multiple citizenship has been maintained mostly for the sake of a particular contingency of ethnic Croats living abroad. Such preferential treatment has led to a paradox that many non-ethnic

Croats are expected to express exclusive loyalty to the Croatian state by renouncing their previous citizenship during the regular naturalisation procedure, while at the same time, ethnic Croats are free to express multiple loyalties (Koska, 2011: 18). As ethnic Croats are always exempted from renunciation of their current citizenship stipulated by the rules on regular naturalisation, such practice has often been denoted as discriminatory towards ethnic non-Croats. The European Commission against Racism and Intolerance identified members of Roma, Serbian and Bosniak minorities as the most vulnerable sections of the Croatian population in that regard (ECRI Report on Croatia, 2012: 10). The same discriminatory attitude toward these three ethnic groups was also noticed in the opinions of the Ministry of Interior who, in line with Article 26 of the Law on Croatian Citizenship, retains a wide margin of discretion while deciding on who should be granted Croatian citizenship (Sajfert, 2013). This particularly affects ethnic Serbs. However, their fate with regard to dual citizenship could have been different. Namely, the idea that the Serbian national minority should be granted dual citizenship is as old as the independent Croatian state. It originates from the European Community's proposal, given within the framework of the International Conference on the Former Yugoslavia held in October 1991, which called for the right to dual citizenship for members of national or ethnic groups who reside in the area with a special status where they constitute the majority population. This right, however, has never been exercised in such manner.

The rules on facilitated naturalisation are not the only provisions of the Law on Croatian Citizenship which make a discriminatory distinction between ethnic Croats and ethnic non-Croats. Namely, Article 30 has induced severe polemics due to its negative repercussions to members of (some) national minorities. It provides that a person is considered a Croatian citizen if he/she has acquired this status pursuant to regulations which had been effective until the day when the Law came into force. However, if a person belongs to the Croatian people but he/she did not have Croatian citizenship on the day when the Law came into force, he/she would be considered to be a Croatian citizen if on that day he/she had a registered domicile in Croatia and provided a written statement saying that he/she considered him-/herself a Croatian citizen.

For better understanding of the generally ambiguous Croatian stance towards its kin-minorities, it is necessary to emphasise that Croatia frequently uses a colloquial expression 'Croatian diaspora' for all the ethnic Croats living abroad, thus making no distinction between migrants and national minorities who are basically two social groups that are subject to a different corpus of legal rules in national and international law (Božić, 1998). This terminological confusion was partly eliminated after the adoption of the Act on the Relations between the Republic of Croatia and Croats Living Abroad (Act on the Relations between the Republic of Croatia and Croats Living Abroad, 2011). This Act differentiates between three groups of Croats living outside their kin-state: members of the sovereign and constituent Croatian nation in Bosnia and Herzegovina, members of the Croatian minority living in European countries and Croatian emigrants living overseas and in European countries and their ancestors (diaspora). It encompasses Croatian people with Croatian citizenship, those having the status of a Croat but not possessing Croatian citizenship and those lacking both elements. They are all considered an equal part of one and inseparable Croatian nation. This status provides them with a number of privileges, for instance they can apply for an accelerated procedure when trying to obtain certain permits such as a temporary residence, work and business permit, they can have a privileged access to particular services and similar, all according to special laws.

The recent amendments to the Law on Croatian Citizenship have not significantly altered the naturalisation procedure. The titulars of regular and facilitated naturalisation have remained the same. Ethnic Croats have retained their preferential status while the conditions for regular naturalisation of ethnic non-Croat foreigners residing in Croatia have tightened. In general terms, the Croatian citizenship policy has remained polarized. On the one hand, it strives to democratise and become more sensitive to ethnic non-Croats through inclusive minority rights legislation, but on the other hand, it keeps preserving its ethno-centric character which favours transnational communities of ethnic Croats (Ragazzi, Štiks & Koska, 2013: 1-2, 8-9). From the viewpoint of the prism of ethnic identity and multiple citizenship policies, there are two fundamental principles deriving from the Law on Croatian Citizenship: the principle of the legal continuum of republic citizenship and the principle that every member of the Croatian nation (ethnic Croats) shall be regarded as a Croatian citizen (Omejec, 1998).

One of the decisive factors that needs to be taken into account while evaluating the multiple citizenship policy toward national minorities in Croatia is the fact that ethnic sentiments are not equally distributed among all the national minorities, so their identities may appear in a latent or manifest form (Banovac, 1998: 250-251). As a result, not all the minorities are equally interested in acquisition of multiple citizenship. Expectedly, the trend is most prominent among the former constitutive peoples of the Yugoslav federation. The exact figures on the prevalence of dual citizenship among members of national minorities are, however, unknown. The official data on numbers of dual citizens also differ, depending on the source. For example, the benefits of dual citizenship are most widely used by the Croatian kin-minority in Bosnia and Herzegovina, what is evident from the data disclosed by the Croatian Ministry of Interior according to which as many as

678 918 applicants possessing Bosnian citizenship were admitted to Croatian citizenship in the period between 1991 and 2010 (Koska, 2013: 220). There is a great disparity between these records and the ones collected by the Croatian Bureau of Statistics in the course of 2011 population census which set the total number of dual citizens in Croatia to only 84 885 persons (Stanovništvo s hrvatskim i drugim državljanstvom prema narodnosti, 2011). This vast difference in numbers can be attributed to the reluctance of people to expose their citizenship data in population censuses, the point at issue that could be avoided by introducing a register-based census.

Even though the Croatian accession to the European Union has had positive effects on making the Croatian citizenship policy softer and more inclusive, it is unlikely to expect a rapid transformation of the present ethnocentric model into a civic one in the near future. This raises curiosities because the inclusive policy towards ethnic Croats living abroad has resulted in a few hundred thousand new EU citizens living outside the EU borders since the Croatian accession in July 2013 (Koska, 2011: 32). To date, the accession has not accelerated the usually correlated trends of the declining importance of the anachronistic state boundaries and the increasing importance of post-national or European citizenship (Rosenfeld, 2010: 235-242; Howard, 2009: 196-199). Neither did the European Union significantly object to the ethnocentric citizenship standards. It is to assume that one of the main reasons for such a resignation is the usual inclination of states (esp. those prone to ethnocentric laws or stricter citizenship regimes in general) to perceive the notion of citizenship primarily as a matter which to the greatest possible extent falls within the competence of each individual state. Spiro (2011) vividly described this prevalent view with his statement that 'nationality law is the last bastion in the citadel of sovereignty' (p. 746). This autonomy, however, is not absolute and is encompassed by the limitations set by a growing body of international law – international treaties, international custom and general principles of law (Vonk, 2010: 3; Faist, Gerdes & Rieple, 2004: 914). So far, Croatia has expressed reluctance towards ratification of core international treaties regulating matters of citizenship (International Legal Norms – Croatia, 2014); in fact, it is a party to only two of them: the 1957 Convention on the Nationality of Married Women and the 1999 Convention n°28 on the Issue of a Certificate of Nationality. Moreover, it has only signed, but not ratified the 1997 European Convention on Nationality. The respective unwillingness is considered as a direct consequence of the Croatia's ethnocentric policy and the fear that the preferential treatment system established thereof should be modified or abandoned.

Bilateral Agreements on Multiple Citizenship with Neighbouring Countries

The longstanding aspiration of the Croatian authorities to homogenise the Croatian nation by granting a whole set of privileges to members of kin-minorities and other ethnic Croats abroad, has helped facilitate the improvement of the status and position of some (internal) national minorities in Croatia as well. This has been successfully achieved through conclusion of bilateral agreements on dual citizenship. By now, Croatia has signed and ratified only one respective agreement with Bosnia and Herzegovina and drafted another one with Montenegro. Based on the principle of reciprocity, not only the Croatian kin-minorities in neighbouring states may benefit from such agreements but also the members of the Bosniak and, once/if the dual agreement comes into force, Montenegrin national minorities in Croatia. Taking possible disadvantages of dual citizenship into account, having such agreements is of great importance to legal certainty and transparent interstate relations. This mode of cooperation with other former Yugoslav states tolerating multiple citizenship would unquestionably enhance the rights of their national minorities and improve mutual relations, thus contributing to the preservation of the peculiar multi-ethnic character of the region at large. In addition, in the circumstances of a plural society, multiple citizenship may contribute to softening of the ethnic conception of a nation (Vonk, 2010: 33).

The bilateral agreement on dual citizenship with Bosnia and Herzegovina was signed in 2007 and it came into force in 2012 (Announcement of the Entry into Force of the Dual Citizenship Treaty between the Republic of Croatia and the Republic of Bosnia and Herzegovina, 2012). The willingness of the two states to enable acquisition of dual citizenship was expressed already in 1992 in the bilateral Treaty on Friendship and Cooperation. The Dual Citizenship Treaty provides citizens of the Republic of Croatia and of Bosnia and Herzegovina with the possibility to obtain citizenship of the other contractual party in the fashion and procedure governed by their national legislation. It is based on the principle of mutual respect, integrity, sovereignty and good neighbourly relations. In accordance with general international law rules, a dual citizen is exclusively a citizen of the contractual party on whose territory he/she resides. The Treaty comprises provisions that regulate the traditionally complex issues related to dual citizenship: military obligation, active and passive voting right, diplomatic and consular protection, repatriation from third countries and other (Act on the Ratification of the Citizenship Treaty between the Republic of Croatia and the Republic of Bosnia and Herzegovina, 2007). The holders of the rights stipulated in the treaty are primarily Bosniaks in Croatia, who comprise 0.73% of the population (Census of Population, Households and Dwellings 2011, 2013: 11), and Croats in Bosnia and Herzegovina, who constituted 17.36% of the total population in 1991

(Statistički bilten no. 233, 1993: 10). More recent data on the share of the Croatian ethnic group in the total population of Bosnia and Herzegovina are unavailable as the results of the latest census conducted in 2013 have not been published yet.

Croats in Bosnia and Herzegovina are deemed as 'potential Croatian citizens in diaspora' (Štiks & Ragazzi, 2009: 345) despite their recognition as constituent peoples in their state of residence (Human Rights in Bosnia and Herzegovina, 2009: 411-412, 414-416). Several aspects of their dual citizenship have been seriously criticized in the past few years. One of the most questionable issues is their right to take part in presidential and parliamentary elections in Croatia, which is granted by the Constitution and law (Act on the Election of Representatives to the Croatian Parliament, 1999; Act on the Presidential Elections in the Republic of Croatia, 1992). The Croatian Elections Act foresees a separate election unit for diaspora and a great majority of those votes refer to Bosnian Croats who predominantly vote for right-wing nationally oriented parties (Election of representatives to the Croatian Parliament who are elected by Croatian citizens residing abroad in the 11th electoral unit, 2007). Another controversial aspect of dual citizenship which aroused numerous critiques was linked to the abuse of the extradition procedure for perpetrators of crimes. A large number of convicts, including war criminals, attempted to escape from the country that sentenced them to the country whose citizenship they also possess, (mis)using the national regulations on the prohibition of extradition. However, in order to eradicate misuses of dual citizenship, both states have concluded several agreements on extradition, mutual enforcement of judicial decisions with respect to criminal affairs and prosecution of perpetrators of war crimes, crimes against humanity and genocide ("Overview of bilateral international agreements of the Republic of Croatia", 2014). There is also the persistent problem of returnees of non-ethnic Croats (mainly members of Serbian national minority) who had a residence in Croatia on the day of the proclamation of the Croatian independence, but have acquired Bosnian citizenship in the meantime. Their legal status had not been resolved by the entry into force of the Dual Citizenship Treaty due to different interpretations by the two contractual parties. Namely, Croatia calls upon the ethnically selective Law on Croatian Citizenship whereas the starting point of Bosnia and Herzegovina includes the civil principle which has set grounds for its citizenship act (Sarajlić, 2013: 172).

In 2008, Croatia has launched negotiations on dual citizenship with Montenegro as well. Croatia prepared a draft agreement and Montenegro confirmed its interests, but the drawback is the Montenegrin Citizenship Act that is rigorous concerning dual citizenship granted to citizens of former Yugoslav republics and permits it only in case of possession of residence in Montenegro prior to 3 June 2006, i.e. on the day when Montenegro gained independence ("Do dvojnog državljanstva uz ograničenja", 2012). Therefore, the further course of the negotiations needs to be viewed through the prism of planned amendments to the Montenegrin citizenship legislation. For the time being, the status and preservation of the national, cultural, linguistic and religious identity of the Montenegrin national minority in Croatia, who participate in the total Croatian population with 0.11% (Census of Population, Households and Dwellings 2011, 2013), and of the Croatian national minority in Montenegro, who make 0.97% of the Montenegrin population (Population Census 2011, 2014), are regulated by the Agreement on Protection of the Croatian Minority in Montenegro and on Protection of the Montenegrin Minority in Croatia (Agreement on Protection of the Croatian Minority in Montenegro and on Protection of the Montenegrin Minority in Croatia, 2009).

Conclusion

Over its 23-year long history, Croatia has exposed different sentiments towards different national minorities, which, in turn, has had a direct effect on their unbalanced access to (multiple) citizenship. Those sentiments have ranged from an overly protective attitude towards its external kin-minorities to a discriminatory treatment of some of its internal national minorities (primarily Serbs). Although both sub-groups may be portrayed through the analogous desire to retain close links with both countries: of origin and of residence, and are similarly characterised by the transnational identities of both nations, Croatia has been denying such a reality through its citizenship policy for quite a while. However, due to a solid internal legal framework for the protection of national minorities and the ongoing process of its harmonisation with the EU legislation, it is expected that in the long run these negative aspects will get annulled through ethnically inclusive policy measures.

For the countries that have risen from Yugoslav ashes, acknowledgement of the multiple identities and loyalties of their national minorities through liberal multiple citizenship policies may contribute to the overall stability of the region. In such circumstances, well-defined arrangements on multiple citizenship could be regarded as a special protection instrument of national minorities, which supplements and widens the standard forms of minority protection defined both on national and international level. Population censuses demonstrate that Croatia is becoming increasingly homogenous, so in search for

the best modus for the revival of the Croatian multi-ethnic state and harmonic inter-ethnic relations, transparent multiple citizenship policies could be embraced as a significant reconciliatory tool.

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THE NEEDS OF TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT OF HUMAN RESOURCES FOR AN ORGANIZATION THE CASE OF COMPANIES IN KOSOVO

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Abstract

How we can improve the quality of our employees within an organization? What are the methods of personnel development within the organization? How many and what training for human resources is necessary to enhance the organization's capacities? These are some of the questions which will be answered in this paper. The training and the development of human resources should be such that it will make an organization move forward. If the training and the development of human resources, as an important input for the organization, are not appropriate and professional then the organization will face difficulty in all its working processes. Human resources should facilitate the growth of the organization and therefore training and development are the foundation where the organization should be supported. Training is important for several reasons and the two most important are: organization development and capacity enhancing of HR in work efficiency. However, training and HR development have a cost for the organization and for this reason they often hesitate to invest in their employees' development. In this paper will be explained the reasons why training and development are essential to the organization and that the investments will be translated into efficiency. This will bring in productivity growth and will meet the goal of the organization which is to profit. To avoid wasteful investments the organization must choose the right people for training that will support the organization and fulfill its goals and objectives.

Key words: training, development, human resources, efficiency.

Introduction

The economic development of a country depends largely on private business. Kosovo, a country with an unstable economy, where, the unemployment rate is around 31% and the GDP per capita is 2, 750 Euros per year, is considered as the lowest in the Balkans. From a centralized planned economy before 1999 in a decentralized economy, Kosovo is facing the privatization of public companies. Besides the benefits that this process has brought, it should be noted that many people have been made redundant or unemployed without any alternative solutions, consequently, increasing the unemployment rate.

Considering that Kosovo after the war was facing many challenges, very little or nothing important have been devoted to human resource development. The businesses that have begun operating were mostly family owned businesses. Gradually, through the help of donors and remittances of the Kosovo immigrants, the economy of the country started to be renewed. It has been started a new approach of understanding the importance that human resources have on the enterprise growth and economic development.

Human resources, the success and failure of enterprise

The rapid globalization as well as technological development has led enterprises to be more prudential in order to stay in the market and create competitive advantage. But one thing should be clear: today, companies are individuals. Individuals are those that enable enterprises to be those that are. Enterprises are established, operated, evolved or go bankrupt as a result of the success or failure of a significant source: the human one! In Kosovo, from the statistics of 2013 by a total of 126 thousand businesses 1151 of them have been closed down/extinguished. Of course, it should be analyzed all the factors that have led to the failure of these companies but the human factor should not be overlooked. Public organizations in Kosovo are those which face difficulties in recruitment and human resource management and that because of the political differentiation and pronounced nepotism.

Many companies are clear on how to achieve financial benefits, refine machinery and equipment but, when it comes to personnel is an own story behind. It is noted that many companies rarely encourage employees as partners in their business; on the contrary, their behaviors are controlled. If human resources are taken and treated seriously then, the company will take another direction, certainly a positive one. Sometimes, the important issue for an organization is not employing a talent or finding the best possible training but the most important is the handling and considering the individuals as part of the organization and as a source of competitive advantage. Claiborne (2009) stated that the poor management of human resources, marketing and business strategy are three key factors in the failure of small businesses. Human resources are distinguished from other sources that may have an organization. Other resources of the organization can be purchased, stored or deleted at any time but, the human resources need special handling or treatment. Moreover, according to Muhammed, Bhati and Jariko (2013, pg. 129-130) other sources can be depreciated over time but the human resources gain experience and become more profitable for the organization.

From the economic perspective, the accumulation of human capital and the effective use of it lead to facilitate the process of economic development. If companies will use their resources efficiently then, this would lead to achieving their objective, that is profit. Many enterprises in Kosovo give special importance to the technology and equipment they use often leaving aside those who use this technology or equipment, the human factor. This deficiency is noticed that the recruitment process, especially, to the public companies and less to private business where, development interest and profit is greater.

One of the best methods in the development and advancement of human resources is also training. How much are training programs practiced in the Kosovo organizations? Are training programs targeted to the type and location of work? These are some issues which will be discussed below.

Importance of Training in Human Resources Development

It is now accepted by all the outstanding fact that training is planned efforts of the organization to enable the acquisition of competencies associated with the job competencies. While, the development includes formal education, work experience, interrelation and evaluation of personality and abilities that help employees to prepare for successful work in the future.

Everyone can affirm the fact that each organization intends to recruit individuals who are qualified as well as adjusted, employees that mostly respond to demands and terms set by the organization.

In the tables below it is indicated some data from an observation that has been done at about 500 small businesses operating in Kosovo, that presents the statute of employment percentage and training, experience and consultancy services.

Table 1: SME employment status by percentage

Description	% share of number of employees
Full time employees	92.2
Permanent part time employees	1.1
Seasonal employees – with contract	5.1
Seasonal employees without contract	1.7
Total	100.0

Source: Source: BSCK SME Survey, 2010

From the observation it can be seen that a large percentage of employees (92.2%) in these businesses and the other percentage belongs to the other ways of employees. What makes an impression on this table is the seasonal employment without a contract. This shows the great need of individuals to work even without a contract.

Table 2: Training, experience and consultancy services

Responses	Have you or your managers attended any training in the area of management and business? (%)	Have you or your managers ever worked in a managerial position before joining this company? (%)	Have you used any type of consultancy from other institutions/organizations? (%)
Yes	24.3	22.8	13.6
No	75.7	77.2	86.4
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: BSCK SME Survey 2010.

Training of employees is an integral part of human resources development at both the managerial and non-managerial level. The findings of BSCK are as follow: only 24 percent of SME managers have completed some type of training for management and business practice (Table 2). In addition is observed an even smaller proportion of them that have managers with previous managerial experience in other organizations. Training of employees is an integral part of human capital development at both the managerial and non-managerial level. From the survey findings we observed that only 24 percent of SME managers have completed some type of training for management and business practice (Table 2). In addition is observed an even smaller proportion of them that have managers with previous managerial experience in other organizations (Business Support Centre Kosovo (2011) "Entrepreneurship and small business development service in Kosovo" Research Report").

Regarding the consultancy services that SMEs in Kosovo make use of, is observed unsatisfactory results as only 13.6 percent of enterprises declared that they receive some type of consultancy services from other organizations. SMEs seem to enjoy only limited benefits from consultancy. If we compare the small percentage of firms that have experienced managers and also the small portion of them that have received management training, it becomes more obvious that SMEs should make more efforts to contract complementary skills form external consultants in order to increase managerial capabilities. However, from companies that received consultancy, only 46 percent were satisfied with the quality of consultancy services, raising questions about the quality of consulting firms in Kosovo.

From the observations done by the Business Support Centre Kosovo (2011), it is seen obviously that less importance is given to training human resources in organizations. As mentioned above on many private businesses have a primary objective of which is profit. Thus, mainly everyone believes in profit and still have not clear that this is a short-term objective and because of this they are reluctant to invest in training and staff development, considering this as a cost as well as waste of time for the enterprise.

Hence, one of the main goals of this paper is to understand the importance of training in staff development, because, it is the only way that will provide enterprise sustainability and competitive advantage in the market. Phillips's (1996, pg 42-47) summary of the American Society for Training and Development's Return on Investments for training case studies in a variety of industries notes that the returns on investment ranged from 150% to 2000%. The purpose of training always is improving the capacity of employees and thus, the capacity of the organization.

However, to be effective, initially, the organizations need to do training needs analysis and financial costs and the time dedicated to them should be closely associated with the mission and vision of the organization. Donald Kirkpatrick, Professor Emeritus at the University of Wisconsin and past president of the American Society for Training and Development

(ASTD), first published his Four-Level Training Evaluation Model in 1959, in the US Training and Development Journal. The model was then updated in 1975, and again in 1994, when he published his best-known work, "Evaluating Training Programs." The four levels are: Reaction; Learning; Behavior; Results.

He also explained each level in greater detail.

Level 1: Reaction

This level Measures how your trainees (the people being trained), reacted to the training. Obviously, you want them to feel that the training was a valuable experience, and you want them to feel good about the instructor, the topic, the material, its presentation, and the venue.

It's important to measure reaction, because it helps you understand how well the training was received by your audience. It also helps you improve the training for future trainees, including identifying important areas or topics that are missing from the training.

Level 2: Learning

At level 2, you measure what your trainees have learned. How much has their knowledge increased as a result of the training?

When you planned the training session, you hopefully started with a list of specific learning objectives: these should be the starting point for your measurement. Keep in mind that you can measure learning in different ways depending on these objectives, and depending on whether you're interested in changes to knowledge, skills, or attitude.

It's important to measure this, because knowing what your trainees are learning and what they aren't will help you improve future training.

Level 3: Behavior

At this level, you evaluate how far your trainees have changed their behavior, based on the training they received. Specifically, this looks at how trainees apply the information.

It's important to realize that behavior can only change if conditions are favorable. For instance, imagine you've skipped measurement at the first two Kirkpatrick levels and, when looking at your group's behavior, you determine that no behavior change has taken place. Therefore, you assume that your trainees haven't learned anything and that the training was ineffective.

However, just because behavior hasn't changed, it doesn't mean that trainees haven't learned anything. Perhaps their boss won't let them apply new knowledge. Or, maybe they've learned everything you taught, but they have no desire to apply the knowledge themselves.

Level 4: Results

At this level, you analyze the final results of your training. This includes outcomes that you or your organization have determined to be good for business, good for the employees, or good for the bottom line.

Training investment returns for the company

Motorola calculated that every dollar spent on training yields an approximate 30 percent gain in productivity within a three-year period. Motorola also used training to reduce costs by over \$3 billion and increase profits by 47 percent (source: Tim Lane et al., "Learning to Succeed in Business with Information Technology," Motorola).

Career development is considered as the No.1 factor in keeping employees in the company according to a survey of 6, 400 employees conducted by Sharon Jordan Evans and Beverly Kaye.

Another study "100 Best Companies to work-with" shows that the best companies in the world make significant investments in training programs, thus, providing 665 hours of annual training for staff and 53 hour training for others. From these training hours, almost 70% is devoted to the current roles/positions of the employees and 30% is focused on growth and development. However, it should be noted that the training resources tend to be more abundant when the company performed well but in periods of economic hardship tends to be the first to be interrupted.

Identify training needs and training grounds failures in Kosovo companies

From Table 2 it has been seen how much importance is given to training in Kosovo companies and it is concluded that one of the reasons why most of these companies do not succeed is because of lack of organizing training and staff development.

Kosovo companies intend to grow and to be equal with companies of the developed countries and to achieve this one of the strategies that they should use are training of the new and existing staff in the company. Before starting the training process companies need to make a careful analysis to identify training needs. But what are the reasons why the staff is trained and developed? For the reason that:

- Jobs and technology change;
- New staff/recruit needs special training;
- Promoted staff needs to be equipped with innovative skills;
- Impact on increasing motivation and continuing their work;
- Increases efficiency of staff;
- Improves the career development of staff;

How a company can identify training needs?

According to Pigors and Myers (1983:283) the types of employee training best suited to a specific organization depend upon a number of factors such as skills called for in jobs to be filled, qualifications of candidates applying for jobs, and the kinds of operating problems confronted by the organization...

In my opinion, it would be more appropriate the existing employees to identify their needs, because they best know their strengths and weaknesses. Nevertheless, there are other methods that will assist the company in identifying training needs:

New employees/recruit can be identified by interview or working for a short time on the relevant job;

Older employees based on their performance in the existing work.

Some of the reasons of trainings failure

Thousands of hours and money are spent each year creating training that doesn't work. How can this be? There are three primary reasons according to Nanette Miner:

The training is created by individuals with limited experience and background in
the field of training and development.

The training is created by subject matter experts.

The training is designed without clearly thought-out objectives.

Let us explain each of the training failure reasons in Kosovo companies:

The first reason: because of the lack of experience in training field in Kosovo the trainings are held by persons that are experts in different fields, for example if a person was good as sales manager than this person trained the others the same with the manger of marketing and so on. For this reason a big number of training failed. However, in the last years has been noticed a trend, this as a consequence of the companies' growth, to train the employees out of the country or to bring to the company international and professional trainers.

Albeit (1985) dated the most recent research regarding the education of training professionals discovered that less than eight percent of us have formal education in the field of human resource development. The preponderance of degrees are in the field of primary education.

Furthermore, many trainers don't realize that the mother of training and development is adult learning theory--and scant few individuals have any exposure to adult learning theory and methodology. For example, there are six primary principles of adult learning theory, these are:

Adults have a need to know why they should learn something.

Adults have a need to be self directed.

Adults have a broad range of life experience from which to draw and contribute.

Adults become ready to learn when their life situation creates a need to know or need to be able to do in order to be able to perform more effectively and satisfyingly.

Adults enter into a learning experience with a task-centered or problem-centered orientation to learning.

Adults are motivated to learn more by intrinsic, rather than extrinsic (grades, raises) motivators. (Knowles)

Training designed by subject matter experts spells disaster in one of two ways:

Basic information is left out because the subject matter expert does not recognize what basic means anymore, or

The subject matter expert is so hot on their topic that every possible nuance of the topic is included in the training.

Certainly, if the company is cautious and does not make the abovementioned mistakes, then the training will be considered successful and the company will achieve its objectives.

Another reason why the companies in Kosovo fail in training is because they hesitate to invest in trainings. These companies are not aware of the consequences: the best employees will leave if the company isn't invested in their future. As best said by Lang, money is no longer motivating the workforce. Instead, it's training and development. In this millennium, employees are focused on advancement and want to know, "How will this company help me? How will this training help me reach my career goals?" A company that invests in training will be able to retain their best-performing employees, along with all the benefits associated with long term company retention, including lack of retraining based on decreased turnover and increased performance levels. Lang reasons if you're serious about doing amazing things and having a performance, culture, and training is the most obvious part of successfully competing in the marketplace or workforce.

If the Kosovo companies are interested in competing in national or international level, then the key to be a serious player is investing in the future of the workforce. Progressing forward with the tools of yesterday can result in expensive losses, including lack of communication, losing key accounts and disastrous mistakes. Organizations should support training as a means of ensuring high performance levels, in order to maintain competitiveness in the private sector and efficient operations in the government. Kersten¹ explains that training is a critical part of key strategies, such as employee development, retention and implementing new initiatives, all of which relate to organizational performance.

Conclusion and recommendations

Kosovo companies after a difficult economic and political situation of 90' entered in a new era of their development. Many of these companies survived the situation and others started from the beginning. The needs were big and initially they gave less importance to human resources.

After the emergency situation and a kind of country stability the companies started to seriously think about their employees and about their professional preparation. With the enlargement of these companies, the free and open market, entering of the new technologies....etc was necessary the need of human resources training.

The employees within a company should be managed with different methods and techniques of those used earlier. In the case of Kosovo, despite the ease of finding workforce in the labor market, due to the high level of unemployment, some of our country's companies are starting to realize that they must make an effort to train and develop their employees will not leave from work, but will give their best

The present paper aims to be a guide to those companies that are interested in their employees' development and to take as a recommendation everything they consider useful. The companies that train and develop their staff are those companies which appreciate, support and promote learning and knowledge. These companies know how to keep their workforce with capacity and trained employees, as the success of a company depends on the longevity of all employees. In general plan are recommended necessary changes that will bring a direct positive impact on human resource management and these recommendations are: (1) if the company decide to train its employees than the company must choose the right experts of the field; (2) before starting with the training process the company should clearly identify the training needs; (3) The company should not hesitate to invest on training because all studies show that their return is multiple and training improves employee performance, training enhances company profits, training saves labor, training saves money, training improves a company's competitive edge, training increases worker productivity, training saves supervisory and administrative time and costs, training improves customer satisfaction, training improves employee satisfaction and retention.

¹ Margie Kersten is an Americas Learning Deployment Leader and Associate Director for Ernst & Young LLP. Kersten manages learning deployment for key initiatives of the Diversity & Inclusiveness team and oversees all learning and development for the Fraud Investigation & Dispute Services practice within Ernst & Young. In addition, she teaches classes on leadership and effective communication to a wide range of employees. Her goal is to make training meaningful for all employees, so they feel connected with each other and invested in teaming together for plitum client results

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Paradigm Shift in Early Learning In Montenegro

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ABSTRACT

In this paper, we try to look at the dimensions of the educational context in Montenegro, from the perspective of reform goals/changes that have occurred in the past decade in the field of preschool education.

Objective: To determine the extent to which the upbringing and education process in pre-school institutional context Montenegro corresponds to the fundamental reform requirements /tasks in the field of: educational process (learning), curriculum, competencies, educators /teachers, organizational conditions governing the upbringing and education work (environment) and cooperation with family. Starting from the key research fields (active learning/child interaction in the process of education; holistic approach to child development and learning; open curriculum and integrated planning; opening the institution to family and community), we structured a questionnaire for educators and implemented it in selected sample areas in Montenegro. We surveyed 484 respondents from the three regions, and the interviews were conducted in the focus groups. Our respondents claim that the quality of preschool education in Montenegro, in general, is at a relatively high level, but it is necessary to stimulate further research practices, and to make cooperation with the family and environment more diverse and interactive, to change the attitudes of the participants in the preschool context towards the necessity of a permanent change of the kindergarten into a "learning organization".

Keywords: active learning; curriculum; open system; reform,

Introduction

Long-term consideration of early childhood in the context of the deficit model, "the concept of missing childhood" and clearly delineated development categories, which precisely determine children's capabilities and limits, neglected the internal and external context of growth and development. Mechanistic, positivist paradigm which promotes the fragmentary image of childhood and early learning, is being replaced by a holistic, systematic, probabilistic paradigm, which is based on a full understanding of the child in the context, and which takes into consideration all the intertwining variables that determine children's development and learning needs (Slunjski, 2011). Holistic consideration of children's early learning and development, gains in importance in 80's and especially 90's of the last century, thanks to the scientific findings and relevant research by renowned pedagogues and psychologists in this area, as well as thanks to their discoveries about cause-and-effect connections between the ways of encouraging children and long-term effects of these interventions (Villegas Reimers, E. & F. Reimers, 2000). Support of the concept of open education and systemic paradigm reaches far back into the past (Rousseau, representatives of maturation-socialization theories), and more recently, there have been theories of Piaget, Bruner, Erikson, Bronfenbrenner and others.

Instead of a scholared, didactically fragmented, field-specific curriculum and entire organization of life in preschool, which exist in a controlled and clearly delineated spatial-temporal framework, the reformed concept in Montenegro, now promotes an approach which is holistic-oriented, open and context-dependent (Pešić, 1989).

Context is a system which is organized and layered around child/educational group/kindergarten. In the 90's of the last century, Bronfenbrenner's ecological model becomes the new mainstay of research and examining of the dimensions of preschool context. Child is a unique being, a person with complex and varied resources and who should be understood that way, and provided with adequate support for the full projection of their potential. Vividly explaining the need for affirmation of children's unique capabilities, Loris Malaguzzi (The Hundred Languages of Children, 1998) writes: "There are a hundred of them out there. The child has a hundred languages (and hundreds and hundreds more), but ninety-nine are being stolen from them. The school and the culture separate the head from his body. They tell him to think without hands/to work without head / to listen and not to speak/to understand without joy, love and to admiration" (Miljak, 2009, p.11).

A new concept of childhood affirms active child, who affects his learning and development, which has his own culture and own opinion and who is capable to organize and be responsible for his own choices and actions, in order to manage them and to develop his intellectual, social, emotional, creative and other resources. Therefore, the kindergarten is a mat composed of many interactive and related structural components (physical, temporal and social), which are based on a deeper foundations of culture (attitudes, values, beliefs, educators, etc.). (Slunjski & Ljubetić, 2012).

Changes In The Context Of Preschool Education In Montenegro

Montenegrin education system, after decades of nurturing preschool concept focused on the contents in a structured school system, defined the concept of preschool education that is based on the holistic-ecological understanding of children's learning and development. It starts from the child and his or her unique capacity within a distinct family and social context. In the essence of children's learning and development process is a unique developmental socio-constructivist way of learning.

Starting from the paradigm of active learning and development of children's potential in the process of exchange with peers and adults, education reform brought a new concept of preschool education, focused on the child, which is developing an integrated curriculum, through the engagement of team of professionals, parents, and representatives of the local communities in Montenegro (Sočo-Petrovič, 2011). A new look at the child and childhood, and recognizing exceptional importance of this fundamental developmental stage in the life of every person, leaning on the latest scientific knowledge on the potential of early development, gradually changes social awareness of the position of preschool education in educational continuum and society. Thus, it becomes clear that the effects of socialization and personal empowerment in the peer community for children are invaluable for strengthening their cognitive-conative, socio-emotional, speech and motor potentials. Although we are slow to break from the tradition to perceive kindergarten as "babysitting facilities" and an extorted solution, the idea of a childhood rich in interactions with peers and adults, as a natural supplement to the family life, is becoming more and more popular. Social awareness of the need to strengthen this segment is seen through the intentions of educational policy makers which are present in strategic and other official supporting documents. The strategy of early and pre-school development (2010) pointed out that the coverage of children in Montenegro, in the period up to the 2015, should increase from the current 32.2% to 40%. In the context of open kindergarten, which is the framework for a pedagogical approach that focuses on the needs of all participants in the upbringing and education process, children have the opportunity to realize their needs and capabilities in a spontaneous and permanent exchange with all internal and external stakeholders. The role of teachers is becoming more complex because, instead of guiding the whole process and having the pedagogical view "from above", and pre-defined interventions and corrective actions, they more naturally "sink" in the internal relations and exchanges in the educational environment, getting to know the children individually. They also get to know themselves in this professional position in relation to all participants in the life of preschool. The development of cooperative relations, the strengthening of mutual trust in the community, supporting the process of development of educational processes, joint problem solving and cultural two-way, reciprocal and respectful communication among all participants in the process are important dimensions of the development of quality of life and learning in preschool." (Slunjski & Ljubetić, 2012).

METHODOLOGY

In this paper, we will try to look at the dimensions of preschool context in Montenegro, from the perspective of reform goals/changes that have occurred in the past decade in the education system. Our focus will be predominantly focused on the review and assessment of the reformed preschool context, from the perspective of a part of the research sample, i.e. pre-school teachers, as key actors and stakeholders of educational life in kindergarten.

The wider objective: To determine the extent to which the upbringing and education process in pre-institutional context Montenegro corresponds to fundamental reform requirements/tasks in the field of: educational process (learning), curriculum, competencies, educators/teachers, environment) and cooperation with the family.

Given the complexity and layers of the research subjects/fields, methodological concept was based on the combined quantitative-qualitative approach and the application of appropriate instruments. In this paper we will analyze the opinions of teachers on the efficiency of a new paradigm in preschool practice, based on the responses obtained from surveys and focus groups interviews.

Analysis Of The Responses Of Teachers (questionnaire and interview)

Starting from the key fields the research is focused on, we have structured a questionnaire for pre-school teachers, and, according to the designed criteria (thematically concentrated categories: active learning/participation of children through play, a holistic approach to child development and individualization, open curriculum, opening of the institution to family and community) and realized it in the sample selected areas in Montenegro.

Sample

Because of the representativeness of the sample, 484 respondents from all three regions of Montenegro were surveyed (North - 131, central -227, southern - 126), including all pre-schools in these areas.

Table 1 The research sample-educators

region	JPU "Vukosava Ivanovic"	JPU "Ljubica Jovanovic-Mase"	JPU "Nasa radost" Herceg Novi	JPU "Dragan Kovacevic" Niksic	JPU "Djina Vrbica" Podgorica	JPU "Ljubica Popovic"	JPU "Zagorka Ivanovic" Cetinje	JPU "Eko bajka" Pljevlja	JPU "Radmila Medic" Berane	JPU "Duso Bijelo Baskic"	JPU "Sestre Radovic" Kolasin	JPU "Djecji vrtic" Plav	JPU "Bosko Buha" Rozaje	total
Southern	39	42	45	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	126
Central	0	0	0	44	69	80	34	0	0	0	0	0	0	227
Northern	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	25	43	43	4	6	10	131
total	39	42	45	44	69	80	34	25	43	43	4	6	10	484

By analyzing the sample, from the standpoint of the level of education of teachers, we find that most of the teachers hold a college degree, that is 61.4% of them, followed by 10.5% with bachelor degree and 28.1% who have completed specialist studies. Permanently employed respondents dominate in our sample (68.9%). In order to obtain the most consistent and objective indicators of the focused aspects of empirical research fields, survey responses will be accompanied by statements from the interviews that were held with focus groups in all three regions of Montenegro.

The introductory question in the survey was related to the assessment of the quality of preschool education in Montenegro by our respondents, and it offered a scale of four options (very good, mainly good, mainly not good, and not good at all). The results show that the second option dominates the respondents' answers, and that in in all regions/preschools, surveyed respondents believe that this segment is predominantly well organized.. Thus, 67.1% of respondents from the central region mark the option by which the preschool education in Montenegro, is mainly good, and 30.6% of them say that it is very good. We find that 94% of respondents from the southern region hold the opinion that the pre-school education is very good and mainly good, and that percentage is even higher in the third group of surveyed teachers and amounts to 97%. Below we will filter the obtained information through the already mentioned research segments.

Region	fully achieved	mostly achieved	mostly not achieved	not achieved	total	fully achieved%	mostly achieved%	mostly not achieved%	not achieved%	total %

Southern	39	84	0	0	123	31,7%	68,3%			100,0%
Central	114	107	1	1	223	51,1%	48,0%	,4%	,4%	100,0%
Northern	58	71	0	0	129	45,0%	55,0%			100,0%
Total	211	262	1	1	475	44,4%	55,2%	,2%	,2%	100,0%

Active

Learning/participation Of Children In Educational And Upbringing Activities (Interaction)

For the purposes of assessing the level and quality of the representation of one of the very important components of the reformed pre-school education system – the active learning through play and full participation of children in educational and upbringing activities, in the survey we asked a question, operationalized through several individual items. The respondents chose the option on a four-degree scale that was closest to their assessment of the level of representation of the concept in question. Starting from the region, as a criterion variable, the respondents evaluated: The extent to which the stated objectives of the reform of preschool education were achieved? Option: promoting active learning through participation in educational and upbringing activities (and play) (N = 475)

Table 2 the level participation in educational and upbringing activities

As can be seen from the table with frequencies and percentages, respondents from all three regions estimate that encouraging active learning in children (through participation) in pre-school institutions is represented in high percentage: southern region 31.7% (fully achieved) and 68.3% (mostly achieved); central region - 51, 1 % (fully achieved) and 48.0 % (mostly achieved); northern region - 45, 0 % (fully achieved) and 55.0 % (mostly achieved). To be honest, choosing, predominantly, the second option may indicate a certain reserve and caution in consideration of the level and quality of implementation of this important concept in practice.

Another item that further operationalizes the question - teacher encourages children to choose their centers of interest , as opposed to the option that children are directed towards the centers at certain times in the determined period/interval also indicates a high value, in favor of a modern approach, the one oriented on the child (arithmetic mean/95 % confidence interval from 1-5 : south - 4, 2642; center - 4, 4695 , north- 4, 6000), affirming child's right to choose and be responsible for their own initiatives.

On a 5 degree scale, in the interval from expects reproduction and repetition (1) to encourages children to experiment and explore (5), respondents predominantly opted for values toward the second part of the continuum (5) , so the cumulative score/arithmetic mean (95 % reliability) is: 4.0784 (south), 4.3412 (center) and 4.2857 (north), suggesting a significant positive changes in practice, in the opinion of our surveyed teachers, towards a much more active involvement of children in educational process by opening an opportunity for them to independently investigate, explore, express their curiosity. According to the respondents' answers, teachers do strive to provide children with learning from experience, through direct participation and sharing, and use of various cognitive processes-observing, manipulating materials, combining, research, and experimentation.

Also, respondents were estimating the professional conduct of teachers in practice, in direct contact with them in the upbringing and education process, on a continuum of expects obedience from children (consistently follow orders given by their teacher - 1) to encourages initiative, freedom of thought , autonomy in children (5), and marked high values in all research areas, and the arithmetic means on a scale of 1-5 were: 4.0192 (south) , 4.2701 (center) , 4.2627 (north) . So , very high values in the assessment and selection of our respondents indicate that in practice children we given much more space for independent action and decision making, and that it is less insisted on "blind " and uncritical obedience of children, and heteronomous consistency in the execution of the given instructions.

Assessing the extent to which, in the opinion of the teachers in our sample, the entire process is directed towards the needs of children and their better interaction (5), as opposed to the earlier, directive guiding and controlling (1), our respondents dominantly mark the high value, so that the average score is 4.3628 in the 1-5 intervals. "Children should be allowed to independently investigate whenever possible. This knowledge is both lasting and better, and they can learn from each other," says one of the interviewees (Podgorica).

One of the indicators of stimulating active learning/participation of children in educational process is encouraging children to solve problems, so our respondents say that pre-school teachers reinforce these skills in children very often - 55.0 % and often - 41.8 %. Participating in a collaborative, team activities, in the centers of interest, children are able to coordinate their perspective with others, to be tolerant to different needs and opinions. Also, they are in a position to overcome the conflicts themselves, to solve problems, to share with others, to rethink their responses, to wait their turn, in order to preserve their place in the peer community, improving their socio-emotional and other competencies.

To the question To what extent, in your opinion, educators encourage children to explore the causes and consequences, our respondents answer: in 21.8 % of cases - very often and in 65.2 % of them often. Instead of memorizing poems, content, guided and controlled child's expression, these new opportunities for learning in kindergarten allow recognizing causal relationships, identifying new meaning, and practicing continuous cognition.

Furthermore, in the interval from imposes roles on children to respects the child's interest, respondents predominantly mark the second-mentioned option, or category 5, on the interval scale, which fully corresponds with previous answers about respect for children's autonomy, the right to choose and to have own opinion, and to act in practice.

In the context of the perception of quality and ways of encouraging children to actively learn/ participate, educators assessed the extent to which, in their opinion, in kindergarten, children were encouraged to apply their knowledge to new situations (N = 469): educators from the southern region 95, 1 % very often and often, educators from the central region: 95 % very often and often, educators from the northern region: 96 % very often and often. This is supported by the assessment of our respondents when considering the following option in the questionnaire: the extent to which the practice fosters development of children's independence and securing the right to choose, take initiative and make decisions. Dominantly, our respondents felt that the aforementioned intentions are realized, i.e., respondents, in a very high percentage, estimated that educators allowed children to work independently and supported the possibility of choice (arithmetic mean: 1-5, with 95 % reliability : southern region – 4. 2170, central – 4. 4038, northern – 4. 3697).

Respondents/pre-school teachers estimate that, in practice, all aspects of development in children, as well as all areas of activity, affirm evenly. "Educators prefer some areas (e.g. cognitive domain or mathematical or logical area) (1)... to they take into account the equitable representation of all areas /fields (5)." High values dominate (5) in most respondents from all three fields (arithmetic mean - 4.3921, reliability interval - 95 %), which implies the belief of our respondents that the fragmentary and scholarized and area-structured approach of teachers was replaced in practice with a new, holistic approach to children's learning and development. A holistic approach allows natural linking internal and external constituent components of educational environment. The selection of learning content in shaping the curriculum is based on an understanding of children and respecting their perspectives (opinions, ways of understanding, etc.). Enabling choices of different content and selections of other children and adults in shaping their own activities encourage the development of the child's autonomy, and the development of his identity, self-esteem, self-confidence and self-realization. Therefore, it is necessary to activate children through activities in which they explore, discover, build and review their own theories, building their concepts and terms. It is therefore necessary to provide a rich and varied offer of appropriate materials and situations for learning, which enable the child to self-discover and solve problems". (Slunjski & Ljubetić, 2012).

From the interview we learn that educators connect life-practical activities from different areas and fields and allow children to use linguistic-communicative, cognitive and socio-emotional skills through a variety of play contents. After the phase of surface and associative linking of different objectives and contents from certain areas/domains of learning, pre-school teachers understand and apply specific integrated curriculum in practice, seeking deeper connections between certain areas through the development of key terms and concepts.

Judging by the responses received, the respondents estimated that the practice has undergone significant change, and that children in pre-schools have the opportunity to actively participate in educational activities, according to their possibilities and needs, to follow their interests and coordinate them with others, both those of their peers and adults around them. From the interview we learn that this is significantly contributed by a more flexible spatial-temporal organization of life in kindergarten, centers of interest, diversity of materials, more open attitude to parents and the wider community. They find that children develop their skills better in this environment, that they are more independent, more open, more active, and more cooperative, that they know how to share duties and responsibilities, and know how to freely communicate with peers and adults. Also, the teachers encourage critical thinking by opening opportunities for research, comparing, and manipulating objects. In the words of the interviewed teachers, the practice reaffirms integrated learning through sharing with peers and adults because children "learn through responding with their whole being" (Krnjaja, Miškeljin, 2006 : 126). Shaping the curriculum is based on careful observation, listening to children, and documenting their

activities. This mode is directed to the full development of the child, with respect for his personality and individual characteristics.

Competences of the educator

The openness of educational and training institutions, as a "learning organization", has influenced the changing role of teachers with its new tasks and responsibilities. Professionals are turning to a different conception of labor in which children should be encouraged to learn "to know, to do, to be, to live together" (Delors, 1998). The teacher today is not only the interpreter of the given and ready-made solutions but also a "thinking practitioner", "critical professional" and intermediary in program ideas re-shaped by children themselves. Therefore, teacher's role is very complex. He/she creates the conditions for life and work in the community, chooses and carefully models own professional techniques and strategies of work, constantly observes, monitors and evaluates the progress and development of the child, or a group with continuous self-evaluation of his/her own professional growth in order to plan improving the quality of educational process. The teacher creates opportunities for children's active participation in reviewing and discovering reality, relationships between people, events, questioning his abilities, without offering ready-made answers and rounded suggestions. In order to respond to these complex professional challenges, educators must reconsider missing skills and systemically and continuously develop competencies of the modern pedagogical context. In a poll regarding the question of urgent professional needs, the respondents singled out the key fields, where they need professional support.

Region	seminars which will enrich the practical knowledge	training for organizing drama workshops	training for teaching dance	workshops for making dolls	cooperation between kindergartens/institutions in the country and region	computer training	advancement to a higher degree	training to work with children with special needs (handicapped and gifted)	training in communications	training on music education	workshops on the individualization	Workshops on planning	Total
South	33	3	3	1	3	1	0	7	3	0	0	0	54
Central	16	11	0	16	10	3	2	12	4	8	1	1	84
North	41	1	2	4	3	3	3	9	1	3	0	0	70
Total	90	15	5	21	16	7	5	28	8	11	1	1	208

Challenges and obstacles: As one of the problems, our respondents in the central and coastal region (the northern region the situation is different) mention supernumerary educational groups that exceed pedagogical norms, and in such circumstances the work is extremely complicated, and space for children's active participation and full individual expression is limited. From interviews with the teachers we observed and marked some of the barriers in the current pre-school context: the incoherence of preschool institutions at the level of Montenegro; disconnection between preschools with the school; lack of literature, manuals, didactics... Teachers from the focus group interviews, in coastal/southern region pointed out, "The practice shows a lack of training of teachers to work with children in nurseries. Work with talented children is neglected too; there is no relevant research and publishing activities for children, as well as publishing of professional literature."

Also, the respondents report that cooperation with parents, is only declaratively varied and intense. Most of the time, general parent-teacher meetings and individual exchanges of information dominate, while some modern forms of communication between families and kindergarten are often missing. The new paradigm of childhood, focusing on the child as an active and competent, requires a systemic and holistic relationship between all relevant parties in the child's life, on the road to accomplishing so-called "Pedagogy of reciprocity." (Bruner, 2000)

DISCUSSION

The study, which was devoted to the consideration of the dimensions of the revised pre-school context in Montenegro, which affirms a new paradigm of learning and development, notes both significant changes that were adopted in practice, as assessed by the surveyed teachers, and challenges for systematic and targeted intervention.

Surveyed and interviewed pre-school teachers from all three regions estimate that encouraging active learning in children (through participation) in preschools is present in a high percentage and that in this regard there is a pedagogical shift of the focus from the teacher to the child, and from the contents to the practical activities. The spatial organization of these institutions and work at the centers of interest essentially determines the quality of social interaction of children with each other, as well as children with their teachers. Children have the opportunity to learn from experience, through direct participation and cooperative activities, and the use of different cognitive processes - observing, manipulating, combining, research, and experimentation. Also, in the atmosphere in which educators open more space for independent action and decision making, temporal and spatial organization of learning are constantly changing. The practice, according to the respondents, evenly affirms all aspects of development in children, as well as all areas of activity (holistic approach). Instead of a frontal, unified approach and guided activities, the new context allows all parts of the day to be open for learning, even those which belong to routine daily activities (sleeping, eating). Replies of respondents from the three regions indicate the expected differences. While the number of children in the northern region is much smaller (population migration, lack of awareness of the need for the involvement of children in preschool institutions), central and southern regions suffer from supernumerary educational groups and rather cramped conditions for individualizing educational actions and developing the distinctive quality of children. Also, in interviews, educators articulate the need for better designed and dedicated to structured training. Respondents point out that the context of preschool is dynamic and open, but that cooperation with parents, as important actors in the life and work of kindergarten, is to a large extent routinized, reduced to the old external actions.

As a part of the open question, created for the purpose of identifying the strengths and shortcomings of the reformed system in Montenegro, surveyed and interviewed educators have stated the following recommendations for promoting this segment.

Recommendations :

- It is essential to systematically improve the position of the preschool segment at the level of the overall educational and social context in Montenegro's milieu ;
- Educational- teaching process should be more flexible, i.e. it is important to improve interaction and active participation of all children in the upbringing and educational context, to improve the overall atmosphere culture in educational groups/ kindergarten;
- It is necessary to stimulate research practices, openness of institutions "inside and outside", as well as to involve all stakeholders intensely, methodically and functionally because kindergarten is a "living system" (Fullan, 2000 : 106);
- Cooperation with the family and environment must be diverse and eventful;
- There must be respect for the educational standards in terms of the number of children in educational groups; it is also important to "stretch" time and space "boundaries" in kindergarten, increase the enrollment of children in pre-school context (today it is 30 %);
- Changing the attitudes of participants in the preschool context about the necessity of a permanent change of the kindergarten into a "learning organization";
- Encouraging personal and autonomous engagement of children in learning;
- Improving professional training and basic university education.

Finally, high-quality, developmentally promising improvement of preschool education, largely depends on the current social reality, but also on the implicit image of a child, childhood, and education model of all professionals. Environment for learning, spatiotemporal organization, the quality of social-emotional reactions in kindergarten, pedagogical and psychological environment of learning, imply a fundamental orientation of educational professionals who create and develop preschool system in their communities.

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Challenges of the accession process to the European Union: study case on adoption of the *acquis communautaire* chapter on social policy and employment

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Abstract

*Improvement of the EU social protection coordination is supported by monitor of social performances of the member states alongside adjustment of the negotiation process with candidate countries. The paper is focus on the evolution of adopting the social policy and employment chapter of the *acquis communautaire* in the case of fifth and sixth EU enlargements waves. The stable elements of this negotiation chapter are overviewed as well as period of time needed, and transitory measures established for each of the Central and East European countries. Comparative analyse of sensitive aspects within pre-accession and post-accession phases support further in-depth understanding of EU versus domestic priorities in the social field. The research hypothesis is that the standard bureaucracy of adopting the social *acquis communautaire* is a rather "top down" decisional process than a "bottom up" one. Legislative harmonization and strengthening the institutional framework in the field of social policy and employment could create unexpected and even opposite effects related to long term national capacity of newly member state to accomplish EU common goals. In terms of methodology, the paper is based on desk research of domestic and EU regulations related to negotiation of social policy and employment chapter, EU and national monitoring reports. Preliminary research outputs focus on the two steps fifth wave of the EU enlargement (2004 and 2007) emphasized differences among countries "ready" to adopt the social *acquis* (i.g. Estonia, Malta) and "less ready" ones (Bulgaria, Poland, Romania). In terms of adaptation capacity to new socio-economic challenges, chapter 13 "Social policy and employment" of the fifth wave of EU accession process *acquis communautaire* became chapter 19 as part of the sixth one. The paper contributes to a constructive assessment of development of the *acquis communautaire* as an exercise to improve the social coordination with (potential) candidate countries to EU.*

Keywords: accession to the European Union, social policy, *acquis communautaire*, Central and East European countries

Arguments for a closer look at development of new member states

Primary community regulations with impact on national social policies are broadly represented by the Roma Treaty (1958), the Community Charter of the Fundamental Social Rights of Workers (1989), the Maastricht Treaty (1992), and the Amsterdam Treaty (1997). The initial cooperation between the six EU founder states¹ was based on economic and political cooperation promoting competition and free movement of goods, capital and persons. Within that context, marginal and exclusively economic related attention was paid to social regulations among member states. In this respect, first social measures were adopted to support the movement of workers and their families including the provision of social security. "European social space" launched in 1984 by Jacques Delors, the president of the European Commission was not focus on common social policy objectives as expected but rather on the dialogue between employers and employees (Zamfir, 1997, p. 244). Later on, the "European Social Model" will reflect a more adequate policy approach of social vulnerabilities and will promote common welfare exercises among member states.

Strategic EU platforms towards achieving common socio-economic goals were also represented by the Lisbon Strategy (2000), and the Europe 2020 Strategy. Launched in March 2000, the 10 years Lisbon Strategy proposed an ambitious goal for EU member states: "to become the most dynamic and competitive knowledge-based economy in the world by 2010 capable of sustainable economic growth with more and better jobs and greater social cohesion and respect for the environment". Lisbon Strategy mid term assessment (2005) emphasized implementation difficulties due to various socio-

¹ Belgium, France, Germany, Italy, Luxembourg and the Netherlands

economic as well as procedural reasons among which the two steps fifth EU enlargement wave¹ was mentioned alongside national economies differences or unclear share of responsibilities and tasks between European and national levels. Pursuit of established Lisbon Strategy's goals parallel with EU standard accession procedures happened in the context of difficulties in bringing back the idea of planning in Central and Eastern European post-communist countries. These came as arguments in accepting the idea of insufficient research focus on enlargement of Central and East European countries and needed further analysis in this direction (European Parliament, 2010, pp. 57-58). Outputs of public consultation for launching the successor Europe 2020 pointed out that "a successful EU 2020 strategy must be built on a good analysis of the constraints facing policy makers in the coming years, and on the correct identification of the challenges to be tackled" (Commission of the European Communities, 2009, p. 3). Comparative sociologic publications developed during last years include statistic analysis and partially supported by qualitative approach (interviews with key stakeholders). Still, the analysis are focus on a rather EU member states' perspective than member states to EU which incompletely reveal domestic debates and strategic decisions confronted when adopting the consequent *acquis communautaire* harmonisations legislative or institutional procedures. Further research is to be further conducted in order to better understand the national strategic motivation as hints in strengthen the domestic capacity. With the support of open method of coordination, both social engagements as national harmonised changes adopted within EU accession periods by 2005, 2007 and 2013 newly entered countries and newly common social directions (increase of employment rate) are to be respected. From this perspective the current paper supports the process of assessing national capacity of new member states from fifth and sixth enlargement waves to face the challenges of accomplishing EU commonly established and agreed social goals.

Adoption of EU structural decisions in developing social common actions as well as allocation of EU supporting budget (i.g. European Structural Funds) depend on absorption capacity of all member states. Lessons learned from successes and failures in this respect take into account EU's capacity to adequately and efficiently answer challenges permanently posed by international trends such as globalisation process, demographic trends, national investments of international economic players, climate and environment changes, and, last but not least, migration of labour force.

Identified "collective action problem" as reason for Lisbon failure is paradoxically generated by the fact that "countries find it in their national interest not to pursue policies that would support the overall collective European good as long as everyone else played by the rules. But because the incentives are the same for all, none will make the efforts necessary for achieving the common interest" (Collignon, 2006, p. 8). Careful analysis of national role, contribution and achievement of each member state in building EU plans is to be taken into account in all strategic phases in adopting such EU strategic decisions: design, allocation of needed resources and implementation. On the other hand, equally important is that simplified procedures in terms of EU coordination versus empowerment of national strategies were required. The need to reduce the deficit between member states against the argument that the whole process "become too complicated and is poorly understood. It generated much paper, but little action" (Commission of the European Communities, 2005, p. 29).

In 2005, a revised version of Lisbon Strategy was launched focus on four priority areas: „research and innovation, investing in people/modernizing labour markets, unlocking business potential, particularly of SMEs, and energy/climate change" (European Commission, 2010a, p. 2, 3). The closing evaluation of Lisbon Strategy made in 2010 emphasized the general positive impact as a total of 18 new jobs were created in all member states. Still, assumed objectives were not completely reached. In terms of employment rate prospects for 2010, starting point 62% registered in 2000 developed in 66% in 2008 and 70% in 2010. Supportive integrated employment guidelines addressed by the Commission to member states included: full employment, inclusive labour market, and lifecycle approach to work (Commission of the European Communities, 2007, p. 6). Labour market related target of follow up Europe 2020 is focus on 20-64 population and refers to "at least 75% including through the greater involvement of women, older workers and the better integration of migrants in the work force" (European Commission, 2010b, p. 8). Within this context, common efforts are to be done in order to adequately support the empowerment of national engagement capacity towards supporting structural reforms at both EU and domestic levels.

Negotiation of *acquis communautaire* in the social field

Within accession to EU process candidate countries work on adopting the minim standards included in negotiation chapters of the *acquis communautaire*. They are not compulsory but harmonisation is requested at both legal and institutional level.

¹ Ten new member states joined EU in 2010: Cyprus, Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Malta, Poland, Slovakia, Slovenia. Two member states joined EU in 2007: Bulgaria, and Romania.

Supporting pre-accession and post-accession financial tools are available for applicant member states. Negotiation process between EU and candidate countries bring together different national experiences and design to common policy elements identified as played a key role in functioning of EU as a whole.

We comparatively analyze the 2007 changes of *acquis communautaire*. In terms of composition of the *acquis communautaire*, previously composed by 31 chapters, the version used within the fifth enlargement wave was composed by 35 negotiation chapters. We take a closer look at development between *acquis communautaire* for the fifth comparatively with the sixth enlargement waves. 21 negotiation chapters were kept; others were either reshaping (eight chapters) or newly introduced (six chapters). The content of one 2005 negotiation chapter was distributed among other chapters. We present below in details the situation for each negotiation chapter. For more details please see table 1 included in annexes.

21 identical negotiation chapters were registered: Free movement of goods, Free movement of capital, Company law, Competition policy, Fisheries, Transport policy, Taxation, Economic and monetary policy, Statistics, Social policy and employment, Energy, Science and research, Regional policy and coordination of structural instruments, Environment, Consumer and health protection, Customs union, External relations, Financial control, Financial and budgetary provisions, Institutions, and chapter Other issues.

In terms of slightly changes of negotiation chapters, Chapter 15 Industrial policy and Chapter 16 Small and medium-sized enterprises merged in Chapter 20 Enterprise and industrial policy. Chapter 2 Free movement of persons became in 2007 Chapter 2 Freedom of movement for workers. Provisions of Chapter 3 Freedom to provide services were transferred to Chapter 3 Right of establishment and freedom to provide services. Chapter 7 Agriculture transformed in 2007 Chapter 11 Agriculture and rural development. Chapter 18 Education and training became Chapter 26 Education and culture. Chapter 19 Telecommunications and information technologies became Chapter 21 Trans-European Networks. Chapter 24 Co-operation in the field of justice and home affairs became Chapter 24 Justice, freedom and security. Chapter 27 Common foreign and security policy became Chapter 31 Foreign, security and defence policy

Provisions included in 2005 Chapter 20 Culture and audio-visual policy of the fifth EU enlargement wave were not kept as a whole but they were distributed among other negotiation chapters. 2007 newly introduced negotiation chapters were: Chapter 5 Public procurement, Chapter 7 Intellectual property law, Chapter 9 Financial services, Chapter 10 Information society and media, Chapter 12 Food safety, veterinary and phytosanitary policy, and Chapter 23 Judiciary and fundamental rights (Stanescu, 2013, pp. 271-274).

In what regards the social policy and employment chapter of the *acquis communautaire*, during negotiation period with countries from the fifth enlargement wave, the number of the chapter was 13. and it changed in chapter 19 as new negotiation chapters were added. Complex negotiation chapter 13 "Social policy and employment" tackled issues such as: employment (health and safety at work, labour legislation, social dialog), gender equality, migration, and social protection. The themes approached by ex-chapter 13 present points of common interest for other negotiation chapters such as Chapter 2 Free movement of persons, Chapter 7 Agriculture, Chapter 8 Fisheries, Chapter 15 Industrial policy, Chapter 16 Small and medium-sized enterprises, Chapter 18 Education and training, and Chapter 23 Consumer and health protection.

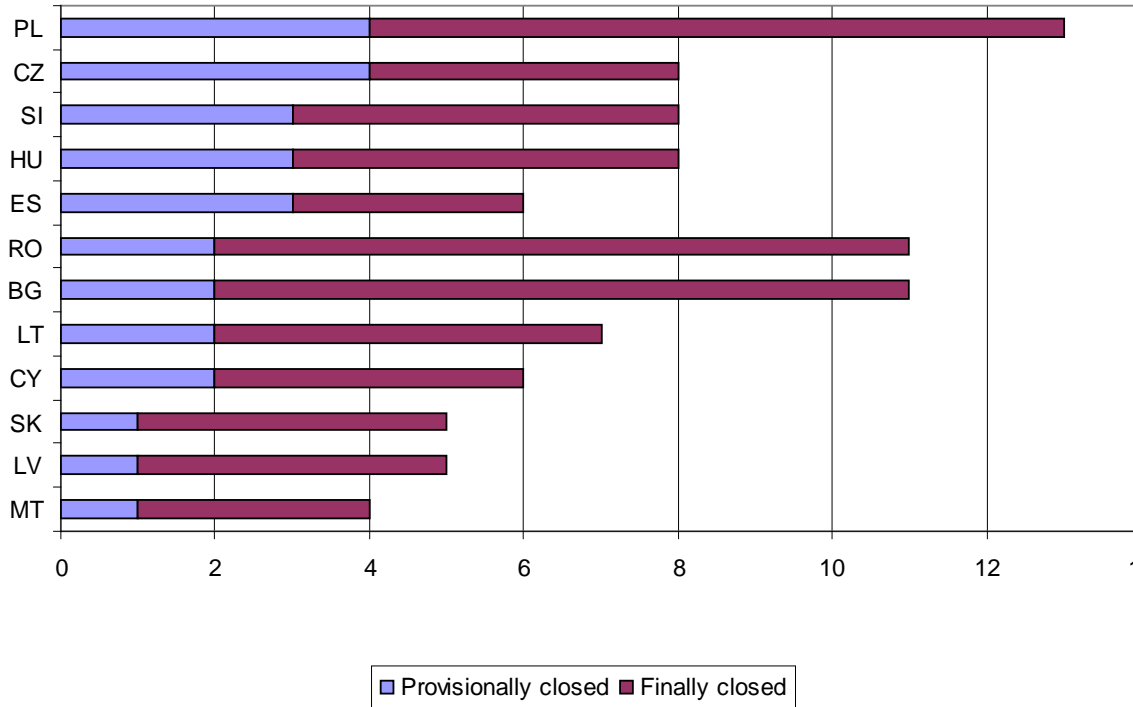
Regulations included in social policy and employment chapter do not require either the adoption of a particular regulation at the national level either the implementation of a particular rule. This process could be rather interpreted as a general important obligation to coordinate policies building a homogeny social framework towards EU treaty principles and rules (European Commission, 2004, p. 46).

Key elements included in the 2005 social policy and employment chapters are: employment, gender equality, anti-discrimination measures, health and work safety, social protection, social dialogue, public health. Comparatively, the sixth wave chapter include regulations relative to labour law, health and safety at work, social dialogue, employment policy, European Social Fund, social inclusion, social protection, anti-discrimination, and equal opportunities (European Commission, 2006, pp. 2-8)

Taking into account the amount of time requested for negotiating provisions included in chapter 13 "Social policy and employment", four categories of Central and East European countries could be identified. Candidate countries most "ready" to join EU were Malta, Latvia, and Slovakia. The second category in terms or readiness includes: Bulgaria, Cyprus, Lithuania, and Romania. Countries of the third category were: Estonia, Hungary, and Slovenia. The fourth category of countries which needed the longest period of time included Check Republic and Poland. Two years of negotiations were registered in their cases. The analyse uses one semester of the EU presidency as common measurement indicator respecting the standard national accession reports as shown in the graph below.

Graph: Time allocation for adopting chapter 13 Employment and social policy by candidate countries from five enlargement wave

Source: Stanescu, 2013, p. 161



Referring to the fifth EU enlargement wave, from the time perspective, negotiation of social policy and employment chapter was open in 1999, 2000, and 2001. September 1999 represented the beginning of harmonisation for six countries: Check Republic, Cyprus, Estonia, Hungary, Poland, and Slovenia. Latest openness of the chapter for negotiation was registered in the case of Lithuania and Malta: November 2001. Transitory measures were established for Bulgaria, Malta, Poland, and Slovenia. They included aspects related to: work equipment, workplace, working time, noise at work and so on. For more details please see table 2 included in the annexes.

Conclusion and relevance

The paper focused at the way negotiation process in the social field towards adopting chapter employment and social policy shape and challenge the national social policies. Accomplishment of both communities' regulations as well common social goals included within Lisbon Strategy and latest Europe 2020 Strategy impose a closer research of social transformation developed within latest member states especially due to harmonisation of *acquis communautaire*.

Results support a better understanding of five and six EU enlargement waves' countries capacity to face common responsibilities and achieve EU goals such as Europe Strategy 2020. Last but not least, research outputs contribute to a smooth harmonisation of social regulations for countries preparing to join EU: Albania, Bosnia and Herzegovina, the Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Iceland, Kosovo, Montenegro, Serbia, and Turkey.

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Annexes

Table 1 Development by chapters of negotiations of the *acquis communautaire* used for fifth and sixth EU enlargement waves

Souce: Stanescu, 2013, pp. 271-274

No.	Identical chapter		Modified chapter		New chapter	
	5th enlargement	6th enlarge ment	5th enlargement	6th enlargement	5th enlargement	6th enlarge ment
	Chapter 1 – Free movement of goods					
			Chapter 2 – Free movement of persons	Chapter 2 - Freedom of movement for workers		

No.	Identical chapter		Modified chapter		New chapter	
	5th enlargement	6th enlargement	5th enlargement	6th enlargement	5th enlargement	6th enlargement
			Chapter 3 – Freedom to provide services	Chapter 3 –Right of establishment and freedom to provide services		
	Chapter 4 Free movement of capital					
						Chapter 5 – Public procurement
	Chapter 5 (2004)/ 6 (2007) Company law					
						Chapter 7 – Intellectual property law
	Chapter 6 (2004)/ 8 (2007) Competition policy					
						Chapter 9 – Financial services
						Chapter 10 – Information society and media
			Chapter 7 – Agriculture	Chapter 11 – Agriculture and rural development		
						Chapter 12 – Food safety, veterinary and phytosa

No.	Identical chapter		Modified chapter		New chapter	
	5th enlargement	6th enlargement	5th enlargement	6th enlargement	5th enlargement	6th enlargement
						etary policy
	Chapter 8 (2004)/ 13 (2007) Fisheries					
	Chapter 9 (2004)/ 14 (2007) Transport policy					
	Chapter 10 (2004)/ 16 (2007) Taxation					
	Chapter 11 (2004)/ 17 (2007) Economic and monetary policy					
	Chapter 12 (2004)/ 18 (2007) Statistics					
	Chapter 13 (2004)/ 19 (2007) Social policy and employment					
	Chapter 14 (2004)/ 15 (2007) Energy					
			Chapter 15 - Industrial policy	Chapter 20 – Enterprise and industrial policy		
			Chapter 16 - Small and medium-sized enterprises			
	Chapter 17 (2004)/ 25 (2007) Science and research					
			Chapter 18 - Education and training	Chapter 26 - Education and culture		
			Chapter 19 - Telecommunicati ons and information technologies	Chapter 21 – Trans-European Networks		
					Chapter 20 - Culture and audio-visual policy	
	Chapter 21 (2004)/ 22 (2007)					

No.	Identical chapter		Modified chapter		New chapter	
	5th enlargement	6th enlargement	5th enlargement	6th enlargement	5th enlargement	6th enlargement
	Regional policy and coordination of structural instruments					
						Chapter 23 – Judiciary and fundamental rights
	Chapter 22 (2004)/ 27 (2007) Environment					
	Chapter 23 (2004)/ 28 (2007) Consumer and health protection					
			Chapter 24 – Co-operation in the field of justice and home affairs	Chapter 24 – Justice, freedom and security		
	Chapter 25 (2004)/ 29 (2007) Customs union					
	Chapter 26 (2004)/ 30 (2007) External relations					
			Chapter 27 - Common foreign and security policy	Chapter 31 - Foreign, security and defence policy		
	Chapter 28(2004)/ 32 (2007) Financial control					
	Chapter 29 (2004)/ 33 (2007) Financial and budgetary provisions					
	Chapter 30 (2004)/ 34 (2007) Institutions					
	Chapter 31 (2004)/ 35 (2007) Other issues					

Table 2 Negotiation of chapter 13 Social policy and employment by Central and East European countries of fifth enlargement

http://ec.europa.eu/enlargement/archives/enlargement_process/future_prospects/negotiations/eu10_bulgaria_romania/chapters/chap_13_en.htm

No.	Country	Chapter open	Provisionally closed	Closed	Transitional arrangements
	Bulgary	October 2001	April 2002	December 2004	maximum tar yield of cigarettes (till 31 December 2010)
	Cyprus	September 1999	March 2000	December 2002	-
	Czeck Republic	September 1999	May 2001	December 2002	-
	Estonia	September 1999	October 2000	December 2002	-
	Hungary	September 1999	November 2000	December 2002	-
	Latvia	February 2001	June 2001	December 2002	work equipment (til 1 July 2004) workplace (til 31 December 2004) Display screen equipment (til 31 December 2004)
	Lithuania	November 2000	March 2001	December 2002	-
	Malta	November 2001	November 2001	December 2002	Working time (till 31 December 2004) Work equipment (till 2005)
	Poland	September 1999	March 2001	December 2002	Work equipment (till 2005)
	Romania	October 2001	April 2002	December 2004	-
	Slovakia	February 2001	May 2001	December 2002	-
	Slovenia	September 1999	November 2000	December 2002	Biological agents (till 2005) Noise at work (till 2005) Chemical, physical and biological agents at work (till 2005)

An Assessment Of Foreign Direct Investments Effects In Albania

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Abstract

In a country like Albania, Foreign Direct Investments (FDIs) are the main priority for economic growth and especially where they focus. Many developing countries (including our country) view these investments as unique opportunities to develop faster and increase the competition and the level of exports. We try to find in this work a link between FDIs and economic growth in Albania. We estimate in this framework some quantitative models, with some economic indicators as independent variables and with the level of foreign direct investment in Albania as a dependent variable. In this context, FDIs are dependent on many factors which can be classified as quantitative variables, like economic growth, average wages, foreign trade, GDP per capita, taxes, etc., and qualitative variables, like Index of Economic Freedom, infrastructure, secure internet servers, etc.

Key words: FDIs, developing economies, FDIs flows, economic growth.

INTRODUCTION

Foreign Direct Investments, in their classical form, are defined as a physical investment that a foreign entrepreneur does in a country other than his country of origin, by engaging his financial funds with the purpose of having returns over this investment. FDIs are investments that affect the growth of economical and political stability between the country of origin and the hosting country. Foreign investors benefit from certain facilities that are offered to them by the hosting country (that are not offered by the country of origin) and in return, they bring long-term investments to the hosting country. FDIs have become very quickly a very important element of growth, development and global economical integration during the 90's, (UNCTAD, 2003).

FDIs bring in the hosting country companies with a different culture and capacity, compared with existing companies in that market, by bringing change, even radical sometimes, in the way goods and services are perceived and offered and of standards in the entire sector. All of this, effects the economical growth in general, but in countries like Albania, they increase first of all the employment. The employment growth in the production industry has been one of the most obvious benefits from FDIs for Eastern European countries during 1995 – 2010 (UNCTAD, Trade and Development Report 2012, pg. 86-93). Seen in this context, (as per reasons mentioned above) both country of origin and hosting country have economical development and growth.

Countries that respect authorship and patent rights, invest in research and development and use innovative technology and software's, have a focus in building and increasing capacities of their working force, become very soon major attractions for foreign investors. It's related to many advantages in the country's market and also according to competitiveness in global markets.

THE EFFECT OF FDI IN DEVELOPING ECONOMIES

The effects of FDI in the economy are multidimensional; FDI in Albania are in the form of shared equity, in almost 80% of cases, and in the form of initial capital and additional contributions. The first full legal basis in Albania concerning FDI are founded under the Law No.7764, 2.11.1993, "On Foreign Investments" with a status derived from Law No.7594, 4.8.1992, "On Foreign Investments". Legislation in Albania make sure that foreign investors and local investors have equal rights. We can find in the table below some main practical advantages and disadvantages of FDI in Albania.

Tab.1: Impact of FDI in developing economies (the case of Albania):

The Effect of FDI in developing economies	
Advantage	Disadvantage
<p>FDI are pure funding sources, even for the development of projects of large scale.</p> <p>They offer new opportunities of development (in preparation of agreements with foreign clients, due to entering in the international market).</p> <p>FDI are long-term and strategic investments (the focus of the company is the long-term activity with development perspectives).</p> <p>High performance (FDI are investments that influence the use of new technology, new capacities and more efficiency).</p> <p>Increase of employment and quality of management in the hosting country.</p> <p>Reduction of the cost of capital (foreign investors can increase the amount of capital in international markets by reducing the level of capital cost).</p> <p>They increase significantly the quality aspect, both for goods and services, making it comparable to the standards of developed countries.</p>	<p>Repatriation of profits by foreign owners, given that FDI in Albania have 80% of their stock in shared capital, a large proportion of profit (if net profit is expected to be positive) will go out of country as a dividend, meaning that we will have a movement of capital from our country to the countries of origin.</p> <p>Negative impact in current account (repatriation of profits: outflows can also be funds of financial nature for various non-resident creditors in Albania, e.g., in 2008 'Albanian Mobile Communication' gave a loan to the parent company in Greece).</p> <p>The deficit of domestic capital or foreign capital (this is not even potentially problematic for Albania). If foreign capital exceeds certain limits or parameters of an economy in equilibrium, it can create an economic dependency on foreign investors.</p>

According to official statistics, the average annual of stock of foreign investments in Albania for the years 2001 – 2011 is spread in these countries of origin:

Tab. 2: The average annual stock or FDI in Albania, 2001 – 2011.

Country of origin	Total in millions Euro	Percentage over the total
Greece	558.4	23.6%
Italy	326.6	13.8%
Austria	280.2	11.8%
Turkey	228.4	9.6%
Netherlands	227.8	9.6%
Canada	194.2	8.2%
Switzerland	79.0	3.3%
Germany	72.2	3.0%

¹ National Bank of Albania, "Report on Foreign Direct Investments, 2011".

Other	405.2	17.1%
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Source: Bank of Albania, 2013.

The average annual stock of FDIs in Albania for the years 2001 – 2011 is concentrated mostly in the sectors of 'Financial Intermediation', 'Transport, warehousing and communications' and 'Refining Industry'. We can see table 3 for a more detailed classification.

Tab. 3: Dispersion of FDIs for each sector, 2001 – 2011.

Economy sector	Total in million Euro	Percentage over the Total
Financial Intermediation	627.4	26.5%
Transport, warehousing and communications	424.4	17.9%
Refining Industry	392.4	16.5%
Productions Industry	228.4	9.6%
Trade (big and small quantities)	212.6	9.0%
Constructions	186.0	7.8%
Production and delivery of electricity	88.2	3.7%
Hotels and restaurants	82.6	3.5%
Other	130	5.5%

Source: Bank of Albania, 2013.

EMPIRICAL RESULTS

In this section, we analyze several economic indicators, which are related to the development and growth of FDIs flows. We consider time series data with an annual period, from 2001 to 2011.

Tab. 4: Annual empirical data for Albania, 2001 – 2011.

Year	FDIs net inflows /GDP	Economic Growth	OP/GDP (foreign trade)	Average monthly wage (in ALL)	Index of Economic Freedom	Secure Internet servers for 100 inhabitants	Gross capital formation /GDP	Fiscal Burden
2001	0.0507	0.07	0.60	14, 820	56.60	1.00	0.2755	0.1017
2002	0.0303	0.03	0.67	16, 541	56.80	1.00	0.2449	0.1084
2003	0.0315	0.06	0.67	18, 522	56.80	1.00	0.2344	0.1197
2004	0.0457	0.06	0.65	19, 039	58.50	2.00	0.2384	0.1194
2005	0.0313	0.06	0.68	19, 993	57.80	1.00	0.2360	0.1399
2006	0.0356	0.05	0.74	21, 842	60.30	5.00	0.2505	0.1494
2007	0.0609	0.06	0.84	27, 350	61.40	8.00	0.2976	0.1304
2008	0.0957	0.06	0.86	34, 277	62.40	15.00	0.3213	0.1471
2009	0.1108	0.08	0.82	36, 075	63.70	22.00	0.2891	0.1495
2010	0.0919	0.03	0.86	34, 767	66.00	27.00	0.2579	0.1480

2011	0.1056	0.04	0.90	35, 949	64.00	44.00	0.2534	0.1438
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Based on empirical data and on the relation of variables in the following tables, we can create some regression models that indicate statistically significant connections between the dependent variable, FDIs net inflows/GDP, and other several independent variables.

Tab.5: Economic indicators and their explanation

Code of the variable	Economic Indicator	Description	Source of data
Y	FDIs net inflows/GDP	It is the best indicator of the level of net inflows of foreign investment in the economy.	World Bank
X1	Economic Growth	Increase in % of GDP. Grogan and Moers (2001), found a statistically important relation between economic growth and FDIs inflows in economies in transition, for the studied period (from 1990 to 1998).	World Bank
X2	OP/GDP (foreign trade)	The amount of imports and exports of goods and services (OP) in relation to GDP. According to Wheeler and Mody (1992), there is a positive relationship between OP and manufacturing sector and a weak negative correlation with the electronic sector.	World Bank
X3	Average monthly wage (in ALL)	As one of the most important voices of the business operating costs, salary expenses are an attractive factor for foreign investors when the wage standard is low. Charkrabarti (2001) concluded that there is a stable connection between average wages and FDIs.	INSTAT
X4	Index of Economic Freedom	This index takes values from 0 to 100. The index itself consists of 10 other variables that are weighted. This index measures the entrepreneurial abilities of a country. Economic freedom "is the key to creating an environment that allows a virtuous cycle of entrepreneurship, innovation, and economic growth and sustained development to flourish (The Heritage Foundation, THF, p. 2) .	WHF & WSJ
X5	Secure Internet servers for 100 inhabitants.	Improved facilities range from simple but protected pit latrines to flush toilets with a sewerage connection. To be effective, must swear facilities constructed correctly and properly maintained.	World Bank
X6	Gross capital formation/ GDP	It is a ratio of tax revenues to GDP (in \$). Favourable fiscal policies encourage both local and foreign business. According to the study of Egger and Raff (2011), taxes have a significant effect on attracting FDIs flows.	World Bank
X7	Fiscal Burden	Servers using encryption technology in Internet transactions. This indicator is considered as determining for the technological development of the use of internet. Technological development and FDIs flows have a significant positive connection, according to the study of Neuhaus (2006).	World Bank

Based on these variables we can create several regression models as shown in the table below.

Tab. 6: Variables used in the models and their explanations.

Variable	Econometric Models		
	Y(I)	Y(II)	Y(III)
X1			
X2			
X3			
X4			
X5			
X6			
X7			
$Y_1(I) = \alpha_0 + \alpha_2x_2 + \alpha_3 \log(x_3) + \alpha_5x_5 + \alpha_6x_6 + \alpha_7x_7 + \varepsilon$			
$Y_1(II) = \alpha_0 + \alpha_2x_2 + \alpha_3 \log(x_3) + \alpha_4 \log(x_4) + \alpha_5x_5 + \alpha_6x_6 + \alpha_7x_7 + \varepsilon$			
$Y_1(III) = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1x_1 + \alpha_2x_2 + \alpha_3 \log(x_3) + \alpha_5x_5 + \alpha_6x_6 + \alpha_7x_7 + \varepsilon$			

Note: ✓ included in the model, ✗ not included in the model.

We represent in table 7 the level of statistical importance for the selected variables, for each model. We observe that all the coefficients are statistically significant.

Tab. 7: Level of statistical importance of selected variables

Variable	Econometric Models		
	Y(I)	Y(II)	Y(III)
X1			-0.109* (0.049)
X2	-0.290** (0.022)	-0.292** (0.016)	-0.325** (0.023)
X3	0.267** (0.022)	0.249** (0.018)	0.285** (0.018)
X4		0.160* (0.067)	
X5	0.001** (0.000)	0.001** (0.000)	0.001** (0.000)
X6	0.405** (0.035)	0.407** (0.025)	0.445** (0.032)
X7	-0.347** (0.082)	-0.362** (0.060)	-0.327** (0.062)

Adjusted R2	0.996	0.998	0.998
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Note: Numbers in parentheses are t ratios. * and ** denote significance at 10% and 5%, respectively. According to test F, the statistical importance is 5%.

CONCLUSION

For the hosting country, the existence of FDIs is associated with the introduction of new technologies and more efficient capacities, intake of additional capital in the economy, more advanced technical and managerial skills, increased economic competitiveness (in terms of vertical and horizontal expansion or both), etc. According to UNCTAD (2012), investment of international corporate companies played an irreplaceable role in the globalization process.

In this regard, this study had as main focus to show statistically significant relation of FDIs inflows / GDP, with the main indicators of the Albanian economy. In this study we took 11 years (from 2001-2011), taking into account limitations on obtaining the data. We also did not take into consideration the Albanian economic recession of 1997 – 1998, a period with major influential forces in the denaturalization of the variables.

From this study, we conclude that the dependent variable, FDIs inflows / GDP ratio, is negatively correlated with the economic growth (% GDP), the level of external trade (import and export), fiscal burden, and has a positive correlation with the use of services through internet for every 100 inhabitants, the average wage level, and a positive strong correlation with the level of GDP invested in fixed assets.

Above results emphasize the significant relationship according to theoretical background. We affirm that FDIs in Albania will create possibilities for the development of businesses (local enterprises), and improve the standard of living in the country. They will reduce the level of unemployment in Albania, and improve the infrastructure standards and conservation of the environment. They will also affect positively the growth, the organization and the connection of market parts and will contribute to the consolidation of the whole national economy.

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Developing a sense of identity in preschoolers

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Abstract

Identity is understood as the whole feeling of personality, a sense of continuity and stability in spite of numerous changes and impacts that the person is exposed to. A sense of identity starts to form in childhood, with active participation of people from children' and the social environment. Children from birth tend to develop a sense of ownership, identity. The authors cite several types of identities: the social, cultural, personal, ethnic, racial, sexual, national, and in the case of children, especially adolescents, we examine the concept of peer (group) identity, etc. Obviously, children who feel worthy and capable are mostly more optimistic and better students. Also, healthy sense of identity helps children to be more open to other communities, and not to fear from differences. A healthy sense of identity helps children to feel better about themselves. This paper deals with the analysis of the ways in which preschool children are encouraged to the identity development, what are the teachers' attitudes about the identity development in preschoolers, what are their support methods and strategies about identity development, do preschool children understand the concept of identity, do they have encouraging environment for developing and nurturing a positive sense of identity. Also one of the questions was what type of identity is the most developed for preschool children. The research was conducted using: a questionnaire for preschool teachers (which included 50 teachers working in kindergartens at the municipality of Niksic) and interview protocol for preschool children (which included twenty five children aged 4 and 5 years attending preschool institutions of the municipality of Niksic). It has been found that teachers are helping children to develop a sense of group identity and self-identity, that they are respecting children needs and helping children in their development. The most common teachers' activities are helping children in performing certain tasks, monitoring children's needs, building a portfolio for each child, etc. The strongest factors which had influences to the identity development are the families, the social groups to which children belong, social conditions, as well as traditions and cultural milieu. Children mostly have developed sense of the self, family and group identity, and they said that teachers implement many activities about identity development. Most of the interviewed children already have a clear idea about their own identity and future plans they want to achieve.

Keywords: identity, children, preschoolers, preschool teachers, group identity, self-identity, positive sense of identity, family

Introduction

We understand identity as a sense of a whole personality, sense of consistency and stability in spite of changes and numerous influences person is exposed to. From beginnings human seeks to reveal who he is, what he is striving to, and what are his values. Said in other words he wants to find his identity.

Word identity dates from Latin language, from word *identitas*, meaning identical (Trebjesanin, 2012, p.116). Through the idea of self-identity, we try to answer the key question- "Who am I?"

Studying the identity is often connected with Ericson, who developed the concepts and crisis of identity progress. Still, the concept of identity dates back from ancient times, and it can be associated with Plato's views (Gerson, 2012). Cooley realized significance and influence of social interaction on developing individual identity at the beginning of twentieth century, and he was the first who studied the identity development (Cooley, toward Willis, 2013). Later, Mid (1934) and Ericson (1968) continued his work and deal with the studying of the social influences, interaction and communication on identity development (Willis, 2013). During the time, the concept of identity connects with culture and society as the main factors. Also, very important segments were sense of friendship, so as taking parts in society, in which individual exists.

Ericson separates group (social) identity, ego identity and personal identity (Ericson, 2008, p.34). Appiah (toward Mesic, 2006, p.284) points out the existence of two dimensions of individual identity: collective (which were based on religion,

"race", sexuality, or ethnicity), and personal (based on some morally important characteristics as intelligence, charm, spirituality and so). Both of categories affect the social life, but still collective identity is seen as social category. Most of the time, identity concept is mixed with self-concept. Ericson made distinction here. He sees self-concept as something connected with others, while identity is complex self-concept, which is above self-concept including significant parts from individuals' present and past (Ericson, 1968, p.78). Most people who researched this concept agree with Ericson that person isn't born with certain identity, but identity is getting formed during time (Willis, 2013). Therefore, we shouldn't neglect the early childhood period as a strong base to develop sense of individual's identity.

Marsia and Kroger (2011) recognize identity as a compound concept connected with different values. Those are: self-respect, anxiety, authority, moral progress and ego progress (Ericson's ego identity).

At the Convention of United Nations devoted to children rights in early childhood, it's pointed that early childhood is the base for physical, psychological and mental health, emotional security, cultural and personal identity, so as development of various competences (United Nations Committee on the Rights of the Child, 2005: Paragraph 6(e)).

Infants, even if they can't speak, they use body, vocal and facial expressions to show their satisfaction or protest. Somewhere in that period their first social contacts with others start. At fourth month kids start to develop intense (satisfaction of their needs). At eighteen months they make clear distinction of others, and in with two years they can point their needs and wishes clearly. The first sense of autonomy is also showed, which is specific in basing on relation addicted-non-addicted. Pre-schoolers begin to be aware of other people needs and senses, so as they provoke people's reaction. At the age of five, six, before going to school, social possibilities are multiplying. That's the period when they connect with kids from different cultures and when they meet with different life situations (Seefeld and Barbour, 1998).

Children identity is forming through possibilities, advances, so as boundaries in front of him. So, Hurlock considers that identity is "idea of how individual sees himself, his possibilities, characteristics and relations with people around him". The idea about self has 2: physical and psychological factors. First one relates to the concept of individual and his physical characteristics, while second (psychological) relate to the features significant for finding a way in life as honesty, independence etc. (Hurlock-toward Kamenov, 2008, p.243). Kamenov said that both child's identity and unconditional assimilation to society don't represent full independence of individual despite society (2008). Ericson thinks that by this way, person stands on his foot includes in society and builds his sense of self (1963, p. 244).

Forming identity in early childhood is complex concept which changes along with child's experiences, activities, relations with others, responsibilities and obligations (Brooker and Woodhead, 2008, p.1).

Before school starting most of the children have already formed picture about where they are, what's their role at home, in preschool institutions, neighbourhood and according to way we treat them they build sense of who they are.

During the study of identity we must take into consideration the significance of milieu, the way in which it's presented. Authors point out more types of identity: social, cultural, personal, ethnic, racial, sexual, while in the case of children, especially adolescents we can also point out concept of coeval (group) identity, and so. Human can adjust in several types of identity, mostly belong various identities in different life periods.

Socialisation process is very essential for any kind of understanding a child which is conditioned by numerous factors.

Child is not constancy, universal product which functions as protected sole, but social being. Identity development starts from experiences, that are children seek for new ideas of self and others, modify the present, while confronting with his/hers social and physical society. In order to set identity it's necessary to feel ourselves as independent person.

At the begging (by birth), this self-sense is made through connection with one person, mainly the mother, so that later it would involve more people (Research Digest – Standard 14 Identity and Belonging, 2007). In order to understand the progress of child's identity through childhood, personal engagement and child's activity in cultural life, we must recognize identity and personality even in infants (Rogoff, toward Brooker and Wood head, 2008, p.4).

Important part of childhood is developing the sense of self or personal identity. Developing personal identity is dynamic process which is seen through various activities and relationships in everyday life at home, in community, and in kindergarten. We can describe identity as constructing, building and reconstructing of a child through his/hers reactions with parents, teachers, peers and others (Brooker, 2008, p.6).

Modern theories comprehend identity as a complex while soles are described by the help of more identities. It's all conditioned by changes of cultural and social context, which have influence on individuals to develop new identities, and mainly existed ones (Brooker, 2008, p.10). In accordance to most of the authors, it can be said that when child first enters

the kindergarten, he carries with himself the certain identity which is very essential for later building of child's personality. Child might come from family where he/her is treated as a "family star", then he/she might be just another family member and at the end might be an outsider or respected member.

It's clear that children at different ages have different picture of themselves, and the picture depends also on child's position in family. Several researchers from many western countries indicate that experiences that children get from home and from nearest environment affect development of thinking, talking, behaviour, which later indicates their progress in school.

If there is stimulating environment it doesn't mean a lot without a person who is between child and environment, who stimulates and gives directions to child (Kamenov, 2008a, p.169).

If we observe child's development, so as his/her identity development, we must look at the social context in which child is educated. Social context is composed from family structure, cultural heredity and political-economic conditions. From birth to adolescence and later, human sole is exposed to different, often confronted influences (Pennington, 2004).

We encourage children to understand and accept some of common norms (implementing certain rules, respecting rights and values) by helping them to develop positive personal and group identity. These values consist of rights for piece, human rights for solidarity and equal possibilities, so as development of personal responsibility. This can be achieved through numerous activities such as songs, telling stories, various cultural celebrations, playing roles etc. these are some of the things parents and teachers use to ensure that their work brings positive sense of identity and belonging. Settling this type of identity later develops better relationships with others, prevents violence and discrimination, and develops competency and sense of useness and responsibility within children. Sometimes, it is of great importance for progress of child's identity to make contact with people outside their home, because their position in that case would be defined in spite the way they represent themselves and of constructed personality, not in the case where family accept them being what they are.

Those accepted kids will mainly seek to develop acceptable features of personality (for certain society) (Hurlock toward Kamenov, 2008). Kids that are accepted are mostly leaders, full of security, self-confidence and caring, which results that they are favourite ones. They successfully set social relationships.

Friendship helps to overall situations in which children feel vulnerable. It is also important for both adults and kids, even for very little ones. It can also lead to new picture of themselves including stronger feeling of self as a member of certain gender, age, and ethnical origin (Danby, toward Brooked and Woodhead, 2008, p.36). During plays and conversations with peers children often study new values and models of behaviour. Participation in coevals' groups gives children sense of collective identity which differs one that children share with others. Although during early childhood interact mostly with parents, after first years, some other factors have influence. Coevals take a significant place. Some researchers show that two years old child interacts with other children, which increases as child groves up (Helper, toward Spasenovic, 2008). Therefore, we cannot neglect coevals' influence on forming pre-schooler identity.

Will child build his/her attitude toward confidence in their own strength and environment depends on self-awareness and relationship with children in small groups, and then will accept the world as inclined and opened place. Child needs to prove, to acknowledge and accomplish his/her self. Preschool period some also call "period of pride" which represents not only resistance toward authorities, but also pride on their achievements.

Small children are especially proud of something they do or make, so they need to be additionally stimulated and encouraged (Elkind toward Kamenov, 2008, p. 247). All the process should be followed with adults' support. That's how children will form the picture of themselves as worthy and capable persons, good friends and participants in activities at kindergarten and family. In that way it can also affect child's socialization and dealing with disciplinary issues within group (Aysacks, toward Kamenov, 2008, p. 247).

Children build identity and adopt cultural worthy skills, knowledge and attitudes through relations with others. In this case, parents or tutors are main stimulators to realize children rights (UN Committee for Children rights, paragraph 16). Family experiences help and offer opportunity for children to develop identity which has some cultural features and is still unique for every child.

Zvonarevic divides child development into two phases. According to him, first development phase contains dividing self from others, so that later would follow the phase of accepting self as object. According to Pijage attitude Zvonarevic claims that child at first lives as no divided person, and later becomes aware of his/her existence as individual.

At early period other people, family, coevals, society... have influence on creating picture of themselves and building self-identity. This influence on creating a picture of his/her self so as building the self-identity is more significant and crucial in early childhood.

Accepting the concept of oneself process often has hierarchical character. Child builds primary founds of identity in family, through relationship with parents and other family members, identification with one or both parents, through acknowledgement, parents' expectation and so (Kamenov, 2008, p. 244). Concept of identity often finds its basis in multiculturalism. When looking from this aspect it represents connection and attraction of those who share it. This kind of role could have also positive and negative aspects, in certain way it can capture members of social community, even when they want to change it.

Teacher, like everyone who works with children is confronted with important roles. Child needs help to build his/her personal sense, and belonging. As to accomplish that, it is essential to understand child and comprehend the way he/she's thinking, his/her interests, wishes, needs and so.

If we want to work on child's attitude in a proper way, it is necessary that teacher treats child as a whole positive personality that is to always focus on what is positive in every child. If punishing a child, this should be done with much more attention, so as to accomplish desired results, and at the same time to avoid negative consequences.

If we want to provoke child's changes, we should be very careful so that teacher's role could be played properly (Kamenov, 2008). Child is not a small human, therefore he/she shouldn't be module by ideas of adults, nor should we change whole child's personality. In preschool period and everywhere else is necessary to respect child's personality, to respect his individual rights, but also to help them to be actively involved in daily routine.

Method

Participants

Our research included 50 teachers who work in kindergartens in Niksic municipality (all examined were females). In this example there were also 25 children at the age 4 and 5 who go to these kindergartens (twelve-48per cent boys and 13 girls (52 per cent)).

Materials

We gathered the answers from teachers who filled the questionnaire, written for this occasion. The questionnaire had closed and opened questions, so teachers could give their opinion about the topic. The first part of questionnaire consists questions about general data which are named for teachers (gender, years they work, groups they are working or worked in). Other questions were about our research topic. There we set questions about types of identities of pre-schoolers, influence of factors, and also the possible environment which stimulates pre-schooler's progress. We also used an interview protocol (also designed for this opportunity) for children of the age of 4 and 5 (senior kindergarten group). Within the interview, we tried to see the way these children get the concept of identity, do they see their home and preschool as stimulating environment for identity progress, and if they have a vision of their own identity, now and in the future.

Procedure

After creating we checked instruments. We find out that it took 10-15 minutes to fill in the questionnaire and about 30 minutes to answer the questions during interview. Research was organized in March and April of 2014. The questionnaires were distributed by hand, and interviews were held orally and put down by authors.

Before approaching the questioning, we've done all needed consulting with preschool management and with candidates. It was agreed with candidates what is suitable time for successful interviewing and questioning. Such collected data, was gathered in specially constructed tables, and then came their statistical arrangement and interpretation.

Results

The aim of our research was to affirm the way that identity progress within the pre-schoolers can be stimulated. We strived to affirm and research following tasks:

Which type of identity is mainly recognized within the pre-schoolers, and what are ways and methods to stimulate its progress;

Teachers' states about the factors which have influence in identity progress of children;

Are children raised in supportive environment for identity progress;

Which way the children get the concept of identity.

We got the results that represent the qualitative and quantitative evidences. As for better site of this work, we joined these evidences in few categories, so that we can consider and discuss them.

Types of identity within pre-schoolers and their progress stimulation

As we have shown, there is large number of identity taxonomy, the fact that there are certain age periods in which certain types are developed (Ericson, 2008:29-63) and the possibility that person could belong to numerous identities (Mesic, 2006:281-282).

In the aim of researching this segment, following questions were set for the teachers:

Is it necessary for children to develop sense of group identity?

There are 80 per cent or 40 teachers considering that it is essential to nourish both group identity in a way of peers identity and communal identity, the group in which child spends time. There are 16 per cents or 8 teachers thinking that this is not essential. Mostly, development of this type of identity is stimulated by group projects, dividual games, contests, mutual helping each other.

Is it essential to develop a strong sense of self-identity that is/i.e., is it essential for children to feel respected and unique in their preschool?

In the return we found that questioned teachers, 96 per cent or 48 of them, think that children should develop strong sense of self-identity, so as they should feel respected and unique in their preschools. The good story is that no one of the questioned teachers thought that these children shouldn't nourish the sense of self-identity. Listening the children needs, wishes, interests teacher tried to stimulate this, and by knowing every single child, and respecting their autonomy they stimulate them to respect and valorise their own achievements.

Do you find that family and its relationship have influence on identity progress?

All the questioned teachers have answered that family and its relationship are important to identity development. They said that family is the base of children's life; it represents their first model, inexhaustible fount of love and respect in which their identity starts and continues to develop later in their life. They said that unfortunately, family could affect negatively on developing identity and self-confident, in case that child is neglected, oppressed or maltreated.

Is it necessary for children to build a sense of multiculturalism?

It is known that we recognise multiculturalism, and its nourishment to be very strong developing component in modern society (Mesic, 2006:35-40). To confirm the story, we have answers given from teachers. This shows that there are 40 of them (80 per cent) thinking that the sense of multiculturalism should be nourished among children, while others don't agree with this point. Nourishing the sense of multiculturalism helps children to build both, their identity and sense for accept and meet differences, so as to respect them, and to learn how to live in today's era of internet, globalisation and large number of cultures and societies.

The sense of identity we see already within children of six, seven months. (This was the issue of multiple choices, so teachers could choose more claims to agree with.) As we can see at table 1., they help with:

Almost every questioner (48 or 96 per cent) helps children to meet both, themselves and the environment they live in. 94per cent or 47 of them are building a portfolio for each child by which they can follow their progress and improvement. High per cent of them (90 per cent, 45 teachers) plan to visit local community, there 88 per cent or 44 of those who meet children with natural phenomena, common society etc., 43 of them (86per cent) are providing time for children to play together, then 60 per cent of them insist that children play with others of different age. There are even 74 per cent those who try to help children recognize themselves as personality, and 33, or 66 per cent of them who helps infants to understand their physical abilities. All the claiming we can accept as a very good fact, considering the number of 60 per cent or more, so as the fact that interviewed kids (100 per cent) said that they work in groups in their kindergarten, that members of groups (24 questioned, or 96 per cent) occasionally have their own tasks, they are respected by teachers, and they

recognize the supportive environment in kindergartens (92 per cent of them). Also, all children (24 of them or 100 per cent) are taking part in performances organized in preschool.

Factors that have influence on children identity development

In order to examine this part we asked teachers:

Do you think that social structure and occasions have influence on preschoolers identity forming?

For 86 per cent of teacher social structure and occasions are important factors during identity form. Only 6 per cent consider this unimportant. Teachers think that social occasions affect the sense of secure which children need to form a personality. Connected with society, child builds his own personality, statements, values and self-awareness. Even those who think those social occasions don't effect on forming identity, acknowledge that they still affect indirectly, because a human is a part of society and can't live, work, or develop outside of it.

Is identity forming affected by tradition and cultural milieu?

46 or 92 per cent of questioners think that this is very important in identity forming, but yet there are 6per cent who think otherwise. Teachers said that child could know and accept himself and also to know his tradition and culture. Cultural milieu and tradition also affect families in which children grow up, and this we recognized as very important. Also, we think that child should keep and nourish tradition of his society, and yet to keep his identity.

Are children friendships important to build identity?

High per cent (92) of teachers see children friendship as important thing to build identity. That is if child build healthy relations with his peers, he will feel more secure and happier, and his socialization will be better. All this will affect positively on development of group and personal identity.

Does the peer acceptance affect the identity development?

There are 90 per cent teachers thinking that peer acceptance is very important during identity building within preschoolers. In that way child is accepted and his role in group is understood, and he will improve self-confidence, and have supportive atmosphere. If coevals accept him, child feels love and happiness, which will affect positively on forming his identity.

We have already pointed out how teachers feel about importance of both family and multiculturalism sense, which had enormous influence on preschoolers identity forming. In interviewing children we found out that they have strong feelings when it comes to importance of being with their coevals, named that most of them (80 per cent) said that they love going to kindergarten because of friends, and that most of the time they feel cheer happy and fine there. 60 per cent of them do some tasks with their best friend or with someone picked by their teacher. Family is also important for 80 per cent of them, and they said its fine, good and secure at home.

Supportive environment for identity building

Do you seek to acquaint every child in group, and to respond to their needs and requests? This was a multiple choice question, and teachers could choose more claims to agree with. Question was presented in table 2. These were the answers:

Most of the teachers (94 per cent) said that they know biological rhythm children in their group. 90 per cent react quickly to children calls and need, with couple of them (38 per cent) who try to learn few words of foreign language in case there were such children in group, while 38 per cent of teachers are trying to make domestic atmosphere in preschool.

To develop identity in a proper way, it's important to respect child's interests, needs, rights and desires. This was also issue of multiple choices, where teachers could choose more offered questions. Results were presented in table3.

All the questioners observe and listen carefully to what children want to say and stimulate them to speak properly. Almost everyone (98 per cent) is trying to sympathize with kids and help them if they are worried and scared. Same percentages of them read them stories and try to stimulate their creativity. 96 per cent or 48 teachers make effort to enable every child their own place for stuff. High percentage (94) of teachers is emphasising children work, and 90 per cent are trying to respect and valorise things important to children. 86per cent or 43 teachers encourage children to spend time with each other and learn names of each other. 68per cent of teachers talks with children about different types of families, cultures, religions, while other helps children to do their tasks.

In table 4. answers to question were presented: During the identity building process it's essential to stimulate children to move towards the proper way, by working with them (many answers can be circled):

Knowing the importance of supporting the proper psychophysical development, teachers try to support this whenever they have opportunity. Almost everyone (98 per cent) encourage children to improve themselves by emphasising their work, so other can see it, and also same percentage stimulate them to give approval to others success. Even 96 per cent of them try to find talents and gifts of children, so they talk to children about their individual potentials and interests. Many of them (94 per cent or 47 teachers) give positive example by trying to speak correctly; also there is the same percentage of those insisting on celebrating holidays with children, and 86 per cent of those who encourage discussions about children work, game and about listening each other in group. Numerous 41 or 82 per cent of teachers stimulate children to be active in learning, so as to choose activities they are involved in within the group, while 80 per cent try to make children discuss about certain attitudes, feeling, motivations and so. Most of the children (72 per cent or 18 interviewed) said they are asked about their opinion when it is about an issue at home, and 60 per cent or 15 of them said that for preschool.

Concept of identity-in the eyes of pre-schoolers

We've interviewed early primaries. 72 per cent of interviewed live in nuclear families while others live in multigenerational families. There weren't statistic significant differences between answers of children from these two types of families. Kids are aware of their role in society, 88 per cent of them completely, and 12 per cent know partially. They know how to behave at school, and 100 per cent know how to behave at home. More than half of them (56 per cent) behave the same way, while others have different form of form behaving at school and at home. As we already said, the significant percentage has part in making decisions. 96 per cent of children help each other to do some tasks. Some of them even help adults at home if necessary. All interviewed have a best friend, they get along well with them and most of the time they help each other. When it comes to idols, some of children (46 per cent) find them in a character of parents, brother, sister, grandmother or grandfather. Some children see a teacher as an idol (28 per cent) while other see them in friends (20 per cent) or even in sympathies (12 per cent). Most of the interviewed children (80 per cent) admit their mistake when they are not right. At the question "Who are you?" we got different answers which we sorted in 4 similar categories. Some of them, 36 per cent, recognize themselves by names; 28 per cent classifies themselves by gender, 20 per cent by religion or nationality, while 16 per cent recognized themselves as son, daughter, grandson or sister. Most of the interviewed children accept and understand their interests, and are aware of the fact that it is easier to learn something you like. They can clearly divide their wishes and possibilities. At the final question "What do you want to be when you grow up?" we got varies answers, among which were pilot, teacher, sportsman, dentist, singer, actor, vet and other. One boy even said he would like to be 8 years old. Mainly, wishes are connected with children possibilities, so as influences from different sides.

Discussion

Child starts to build identity from his/her birth. Parents and teachers, who are responsible for development of child's identity, also have influence on child's self-understanding, because in preschools they learn how to react, build and keep friendships, so as how to confront to different conflicts (Research Digest – Standard 14 Identity and Belonging, 2007).

It is come to knowledge that teachers try to develop child's sense of group identity, and self-identity. By helping such as with working on tasks, knowing child's needs making portfolio of every child, acknowledging and stimulating them to work better, they support their identity development. Factors that have most influence on forming identity are: family, mutual groups which children belong to, social occasions, tradition and cultural milieu, influence of peers and sense of multiculturalism. Mostly, children develop sense of self, group and family identity, and pointed out almost every activity that teachers quoted. Children are growing up mainly in stimulus environment, in kindergartens teachers take care of their needs, they support their physical development, and they respect children' interests, needs, rights and desires. Kids pointed out that most of the time they are taking part in making decisions at home and preschool, and that they usually have clear picture about self-identity and further plans and identities they want to achieve. As noticed, the teachers' effort, the one that relates on personality development, is very visible, so as the building of identity within children of early ages.

In order to help children to develop identity, its necessary they understand that making decisions and choices is normal part of growing up, and that it's quite normal to feel insecure about that. Since, parents and coevals have strong influence on preschoolers; it should help them to properly fit into society, so that they don't lose sense of self identity.

Positive personal and group identity promotion is possible when:

Promoting the understanding that everyone should have own identity, family structure, character, senses and ways of behavior.

Upgrading senses of respecting a child, emphasizing his/her positive sides, relying on child's strengths, styles, possibilities, which develops self-confidence and relationship based on mutual understanding and respect.

Better understanding of emotions, child's behavior, so as effects they have on others.

Encouraging "healthy societies" which valorizes and understands influence of prevention health performing, necessary for children sake (Research Digest – Standard 14 Identity and Belonging, 2007).

Children can develop positive sense of themselves and self-value through love, support, stimulation and approvals. Through this period adults can help children develop sense of identity upon skills and emotions which would make them easier to understand acceptance of differences, to show their attitudes about equalities and differences, and also to understand influences of their attitudes and values on children.

Children can be helped to develop positive sense of identity within local communities or microsystems (Bronfrenbrenner, 1997). There is no unique recipe that can help in building identity, coordinating self-awareness, achievements and believes, in developing individual senses or social group membership. It's important that they develop certain competences, knowledge and skills based on culture, and also to accomplish emotional satisfaction (Brooner and Woodhead, 2008, p.12). Unfortunately, the identity process comes not always with positive outcome: although we often idealize early childhood period (i.e. it is considered that this is the period of life with no negative outcome). First task for children is to differ themselves from their parents, family, environment, so that by time they could make differences according to gender and ethnicity.

Methods for child's personality development are often very delicate, especially when trying to provoke changes, so it is necessary to use them carefully. Child's personality must be respected and he/she should be treated as individual with personal rights. On the other side, child needs help in overall his impulses and accepting certain rules in society (Isaac, toward Kamenov, 2008, p.248).

All this together helps to overall barriers during child's development, to accept his/her changes, to learn, improve and participate in society. These numerous activities and processes will affect the developing and forming child's identity, and also canalizing positive or negative children' development.

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Tables

Table 1. Sense of identity starts to develop within children of six, seven months. To help I: (Many can be cycled)

	Frequency	Per cent %
I try to help infants understand their physical abilities	33	66
I help children to recognize their personality	37	74
I try to make children more opportunities for learning with all senses	41	82
I make portfolio for each child	47	94
I insist that children play with others of different age	39	78
I help them meet themselves and environment	48	96
I provide time when children can play together	44	88
I meet children with natural phenomena, common society, etc.	44	88
I plan visits to local community (parks, malls, libraries, playing yards)	45	90

Table 2. Do you seek to acquaint every child in group, and to respond to their needs and requests? Circle the states you agree with (many can be circled)

	Frequency	Per cent %
I know biological rhythm of children's from my group	47	94
I try to make domestic atmosphere to children in class	19	38
I try to learn few word of foreign language, if there are such children in class, so they could feel comfortable	20	40
I try to react quickly on children' calls (if they cry, are disturbed, etc.)	45	90

Table 3. For developing child's identity in a proper way, it's important to respect their needs, interests, rights and wishes. Therefore: (Many can be cycled)

	Frequency	Per cent %
I observe and listen carefully to what children have to say and stimulate them to speak correctly	50	100
I sympathize with children and help them when they are worried or scared	49	98
I respect and value things that are important to children	45	90
I do tasks together with children	38	76
I read children their favorite stories and present them new ones	49	98
I make situations where children can be creative	49	98
I emphasize their good work	47	94
I talk about different types of families, religion and so	34	68
I encourage to know each other's better	43	86
Every child in group gets place where they can put their stuff	48	96

Table 4. During the identity building process it's essential to stimulate children to move towards the proper way, by working with them (many answers can be circled):

	Frequency	Per cent %
I try to find what every child's talent and gifts are	48	96
I talk with children about their individual potentials and interests	37	74
I celebrate holydays together with children	47	94
I encourage children to improve themselves by emphasizing their work so others can see it	49	98
I encourage discussions about children work or game	43	86
I stimulate children to discuss about certain behaviors, feelings and emotions	40	80
I stimulate them to be active in learning	40	80
I speak correctly	47	94

Planning of Sustainable Tourism in Kosovo western region is a key factor for all involved in touristic offer

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Abstract

Tourism is one of the most complex activities in nowadays modern society. In the developed countries, as well in transition countries, is an important product of export and employment generator. It involves wide interweaving of phenomenon's and reports occurring during the touristic journey, whereas in its realization it deepens not only in the economic aspect but also in ecological, social and living culture aspect. It seems clear that the success of tourism in the realization of the role as a major moving force for the development of integrated development zone will depend on the type of structure, scale, quality, cost and location of tourist buildings. This means that the development of tourism and protection of natural and cultural heritage should be planned according to the resource base, economic and social needs and ecological sustainability. In the tourism context, planning referee widely on the expectations of the touristic activities and changes that must be done to soften the problems that negatively influence in the development through regular development promotion by effecting social, economic and environment benefits of a touristic zone and at the same time fulfilling the needs of the habitants and the tourists. Planning in tourism can be seen as a decision making and the organizing process for appointing and designing the tourism development preferred for the future. Studying the previous experiences of the touristic destinations brought to light the fact that tourism development in irregular or unplanned way will for sure lead to degradation of the bases of physical and social resource. es on what the tourism is dependent, community as well the destination. Therefore, Kosovo western destination with carefully developed plan has the possibilities to be fully successful in the aspect of achieving the high level of tourism satisfaction, positive economic benefits and minimal negative effects in the local, social and economic environment.

Key words: Planning, Tourism, Sustainability, Economy, Ecological

Introduction

The concept of stabile development even though didn't have a target in specific way the development of tourism, with no doubt had a reasonable influence in tourism department. Stabile development has an intention to secure and offer a sustainable and safe life which minimizes the use and depletion of natural resources, environmental degradation, social instability and cultural splits. (Hall 1998, p.13).

Sustainable tourism implements through managing of assets in a way to ensure integration of resources and economic development. Its long-term goal is to build a comprehensive development process that will increase the quality of local resources, motivations and understanding of market demand, the study of social-economic development, development of an option for land use, involving local people in planning decisions and management.

The sustainable tourism brings splitting of the costs and profits through touristic business, promotional and hospitable community (Godgrey 1998, p.214). In the context of tourism, planning refers broadly to expectations of tourism activities and changes that must be done to alleviate the problems that negatively affect development, through promoting the development influencing on increasing of regular social, economic and environmental profits of tourism in one area and at the same time to satisfy the needs of inhabitants and of tourists. So the destinations with diligent development planning have huge possibilities in achieving the great success in terms of achieving a high level of tourist satisfaction, positive economic profits, and minimal negative impacts on the local social, economic and physical environment. In this context one touristic destination is defined as physical space in which a visitor spends at least one night and consumes touristic products as well as support services and touristic attractions of that destination.(UNWTO, 2006).

Other authors and researchers of the touristic planning field as Baud-Bovy and Lawson identify a number of reasons why public authorities can stimulate planning in touristic field including starting and developing of tourism industry in one area



with aim to firstly evaluate possibilities for touristic development, to organize regional development of one existing resort or to protect natural resources as well as other touristic resources, to check spontaneous development by individual entrepreneurs, to protect and increase area resources and to integrate tourism development policies of the regional and economic planning. (Baud-Bovy, M. ; Lawson, F. 1971). Based to the planning tradition of tourism initially proposed by the researcher Getz and conceived further by the researcher Hall five approaches to tourism planning are considered as inalienable: economic, physical, environmental, and stable community (Hall,

C. M. 2000).

The goal of sustainable development is fulfilling the need of actual tourists and visitors of the area while social and economic values are protected and maintained for the future. Development of sustainable tourism tends in managing of all resources in a manner that can fulfill economic and social needs while preserving the cultural integrity, essential ecological processes, ecologic diversity and life support systems.

Groups of interest at the Touristic Destination

As with all business in general, tourist destinations should have a variety of interested parties and groups that should be consulted at all stages of planning and decision making. The harmony of many interested parties is one of the defining characteristics of development of a sustainable tourism and to tourism in general, as well as the groups of interests can compete and cooperate (Buhalis, D. ;Cooper, C. 1998).

The groups of interest can include a range of subjects as: the government (at international, national, regional and local level); Ministries and government departments related to tourism; international organizations, national, local and regional organizations of tourism; development organizations of tourism and entrepreneurs, practitioners of tourism industry; practitioners that no business sector involves tourism, and community, including local community groups, groups of people and local residents. Groups that have a special significance for the design of a coherent and comprehensive strategy can effectively rank and three major groups of parties: governments, the tourism industry and tourist destination community. Sustainable tourism requests strategic planning of the destination, so this strategic development as well as the process of decision making should be wreathed cross-sectorial and integrated.

As we approach to the involvement of public sector support community, an involvement in Strategic Planning sustainable approach to tourism planning requires a broad range of participating groups of interest. In organizational context an actor is defined as a person or a group that can influence or be influenced by touristic activities in achieving goals and all those who have interest or believe that they have an interest to give to organization, or on the other hand can claim ownership and legal rights in activities of one corporation. (Wolf, R. A. ; Gering, D. T. 1998). Among researchers of tourism is overseen an agreement regarding the participation of the community in the process of touristic development (Tosun 2000). The community is still treated as observing object more than a partner in this process. The discussions today are not being focused at the question will the community be involved in the process of touristic development but how and when should be involved.

The main question is if involving of the community will increase the controlling of management and profits from tourist development in their areas. (Woodley, 1993). Inhabitants at the touristic destinations are heard a little or at all at the process of touristic development and as a result they can only react towards consequences at their settlements. Although touristic industry is always being criticized for decision making by the part of planning group or groups outside of the area. But if the community should be considered a legitimate group of interested parties then matters of their direct and significant participation should be right to bring a sense of ownership and the decision making. With this feeling of ownership comes also the community support for the implementation of the strategy or strategic planning.

Territory and scope of the Region of Western Kosovo

The region is located in the western part of Kosovo. It includes six municipalities as Peja, Istog, Kline, Deçan, Junik and Gjakovë with 322 settlements (6 cities as municipal administrative centers and villages) spread in Area of Dukagjini and in mountains around. The region is connecting point of Kosovo bordering with Albania (Gjakova and Juniku), with Montenegro (Deçani and Peja), and with Serbia (Istog Municipality). Klina Municipality borders with three other municipalities (Istog, Pejë and Gjakovë), of the region and has a position in which are located the crossroads of the main way east-west and the railway from the capital city Prishtina. Neighboring municipalities of the region in Kosova are Prizreni (J), Rahoveci and

Malisheva (JL), Gillogoci and Skenderaj (VL) and Zubim Potok in northern part of the region. Sea level in large urban centers varies starting from 357m until 520m, while the highest point in the region of Kosova is Gjeravica (2, 656m). Climatic characteristics of the Western region are almost the same as in the whole territory of Dukagjini Valley. Western Kosovo has a continental climate influenced by the Mediterranean climate. Relatively high temperatures with average annual value of 11 ° C, August and July are the hottest months of the year with temperatures of 21.7 ° C and 21.68 ° C and January as the coldest month of the year with temperatures of 0.5 ° C.

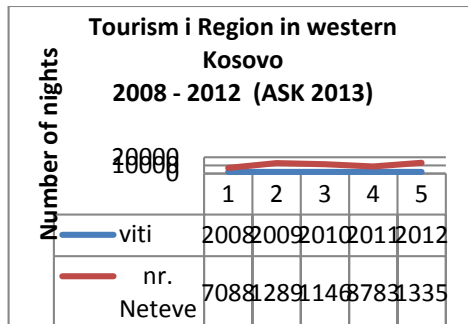
Potential and trends of tourism

On the basis of its geographical position, geomorphology, climate, natural and cultural resources protected by law and the other in the western region, based on the strategic location in the border triangle, potentials are summer mountain tourism, winter sports (skiing, hiking with rounds), cultural, rural, curative and rehabilitating, recreational rambler, alpine (mountains and rock climbing), flying paraglide, speleology, hunting and fishing, host, transit tourism, etc.

Period	Number of visitors(Resident)	Nights of stay	Non resident	Nights of stay
2008	19.678	24.616	22.602	46.910
2009	52.631	36.318	54.876	76.042
2010	44.662	34.382	45.123	76.394
2011	42.044	30.349	44.757	65.584
2012	49.973	48.790	52.008	90.968

Table 1. Source: Statistics of Hotels , ASK (report 2013).These data show increasing trend of the local visitors from Kosovo for about 60% on year 2012 compared to 4 years ago (2008), even

though the increasing point was on year 2009 accompanied with a light decrease during following years, while the trend of increasing of the number of foreign tourists from 2008 to 2012 is around 50%, while stay (sleeping nights) of local tourists and the foreign tourists increased for about the same around 50% from 2008 to 2012 most of its changes from year to year as in the table. While, at the west region, the frequency of night stay for local and foreign tourists doubled in 2012 compared with 2008. Visually this increase is shown in the chart below according to the ASK (2013 report) .



From these data we can come to the conclusion that the trend of tourism measured with nights of stay of local and foreign visitors in Western economic region is in harmony with the national ones, it means it doubled from 2008 to 2012, with increasing point on 2009, for different reasons likely declined in two following years and on 2012 reached the highest number compared to 4 past years. While on individual level Peja Municipality has the biggest increasing (triple) of nights of stay on its hotels by local and foreign visitors in western region, after her comes Istog and Gjakova. Decani has a frequency of night of stay almost uniformly while Klina faced decrease from 2010 and further. Actual and possible factors are different and should be researched for factors that could influenced in number of tourists/ nights of stay so the adequate steps could be undertaken to improve the situation

Table 2 – Hotel Capacities in Western Region.

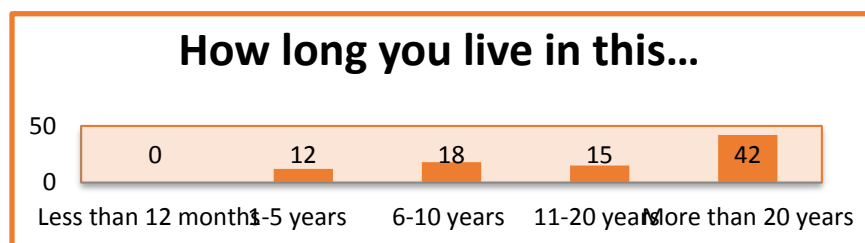
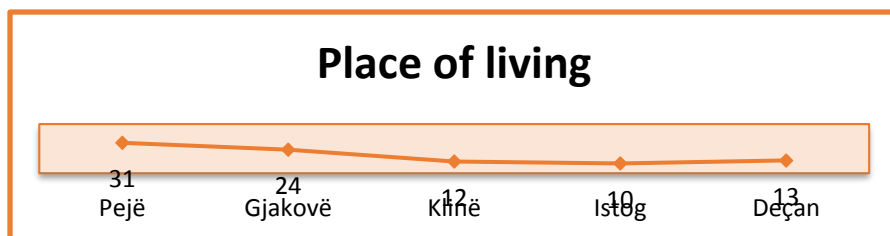
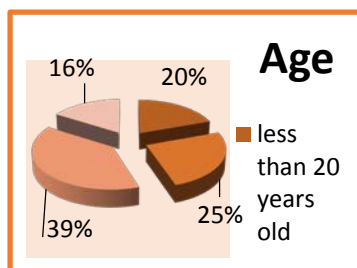
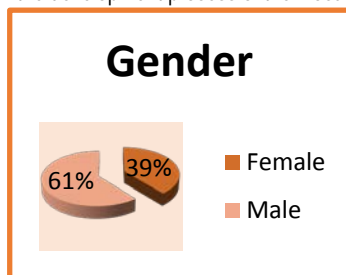
Municipality	No of Hotels	Number of rooms
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		One bed	Two beds	Three beds	Apartments	Residencies
Deçan	2	2	7	0	0	0
Gjakovë	5	62	69	0	4	2
Istog	4	25	16	1	1	0
Klinë	4	21	26	6	3	0
Pejë	9	35	41	21	4	1

Based to the data that possesses the Ministry of Trade and Industry (MTI, 2013-2014) Hotel and Tourism department, as well as Statistic Agency of Kosova (SAK, 2013-2014). The cities that have most hotels surveyed are: Peja, Gjakova, Istogu, Deçani and Klinë. Based on the business registers only in Peja municipality until September 2012 were existing 920 touristic operators (hotels, restaurants, cafeterias, touristic agencies). Based to the researches during the planning of developing strategy for Peja municipality (Peja Municipality 2013-2017 page.41.) only in area of Rugovo and White Drini exist this condition: 3 touristic villages, 11 motels, 2 hotels, 15 restaurants, 2 organized camping places by 2 associations. In the zone are acting 8 active households or ready to start, the others are interested to start.

Methodology of works

Methods which are being used for the project are based in available scientific literature, legal documents from touristic field and respective fields as well as surveys through questionnaires were focused in local population in five Municipalities: Peje, Gjakove, Deqane, Istog, Kline in a sample by 90 inhabitants, where 87 from them were ready to answer. Where through surveyed was attempted collection of information of peoples opinion about local touristic offer as well as their participation in the development process of their location.



	Frequency
What is your present occupation?	
Agriculture	19
Private bussines	17
Employed in private sector	24
Employed in public sector	13
Unemployed	14
Do you have contact with the visiting tourists?	
Yes	68
No	19
What do tourists prefer to do see in these zones?	
Visit cult objects	26
To have picnics in the natural pitoresque zones	43
To visit important historic objects	18
Do you have any profit from tourism?	
Yes	82
No	5
If Yes	
You rent apartments	13
You own a house that you rent it	17
You own a hotel or restaurant /bar.	23
Tourism development has positive effect in our contry economic development .	34
Please give your opinion relating the local involvement in tourism planning:	
1. I do not agree at all, 2. I do not agree, 3. Neutral, 4. I agree, 5. I totally agree	1 2 3 4 5
Tourism planning in your zone needs local; involvement	2 5 7 29 44
Local involvement in tourism planning brings more profits rather than problems.	3 9 11 38 26
Economic profits is an important challenge for incouraging local involvement	0 6 4 31 46
There is a need for community awareness and education	1 8 27 24 17
Local habitants must be involved in the early planning process	7 4 17 19 40
Factors that effect the increase of community involvement.	
1. I do not agree at all, 2. I do not agree, 3. Neutral, 4. I agree, 5. I totally agree	1 2 3 4 5
Creates new working places for the habitants	4 11 13 24 35

Supports the community to gain services	7	14	11	28	27
Tourism challenges the investments	11	10	17	18	31
Tourism effects in saving the cultural environment	18	16	15	27	10

Do you have any knowledge realting the plans and the decisions taken for tourism planning in your community?					
Yes	26				
No	61				
If Yes how were you informed about the decisions taken from the local governance					
Publication of the decions	0				
From the involved people in the process of decision taking	0				
Through TV	52				
Trough radio	35				

How the habitants must be involved in tourism planning of the region.					
1. I do not agree at all, 2. I do not agree, 3. Neutral, 4. I agree, 5. I totally agree	1	2	3	4	5
To be involved in the decision making process	11	1 3	1 8	2 3	2 2
To give their opinion	9	1 6	1 1	2 7	2 4
To be aware of the taken decisions and to react on wrong decions	3	7	5	3 0	4 2

What advice can you give us in order to increase the local involvement in tourism planning in your community?					
1. I do not agree at all, 2. I do not agree, 3. Neutral, 4. I agree, 5. I totally agree	1	2	3	4	5
To make the community aware	7	8	5	3 0	3 7
To conduct trainings in population active parts	5	6	1 9	2 7	2 9
To present the problems and give them a possibility to express their opinion	1	3	1 6	3 1	3 6

Results of questionnaire

From the collected information was shown to us a presentation with some qualities of the community in the region. Region West which is compiled by five municipalities have a reasonable community and with specific characteristics where mainly dominates youth age. A total of 87 questionnaires, average of the responses are up to 40 years of age, while the largest percentage of respondents is 53% more males, while females its only 34%. The largest number of the surveyed was from

the city with biggest number of inhabitants Peja, and then follows other cities of the western region of Kosovo. Mainly surveyed were employed in private sector, while other were from different sectors as well as a specific number were unemployed. Most of the surveyed had contacts with tourist, visitors from foreign countries or our fellow-companions that work abroad, where mostly of these tourists 43% were having different picnics in attractive touristic areas. Most of the surveyed 82% responded positively that they benefits from tourists for the reason that a big number of them were employed in private sector and the intake of tourists affected positively in their places. As for local participation in planning of tourism most of the surveyed were positive to participate and their opinion was that they would have more economic profits. These profits would be like new job openings, inhabitants to have benefits for these services, to have new investments, to protect the environment. Most of the surveyed around 61% didn't have knowledge regarding the plans and undertaken decisions for touristic planning in their locations also those who had knowledge with these actions 26% were notified through media (Radio, Tv). Most of the inhabitants agreed or most agreed in planning of tourism of the region, where through this commitment they will express their opinions, to get knowledge with undertaken decisions and to react towards unfair decisions.

Conclusion

Touristic values have almost all regions of Kosovo in forms and dimensions, depending from resources and the level of development. Physiognomy of the attractive elements of the western region clearly guides in the mountain regions, tourist transit directions, cities, spa and property complexes of natural and cultural heritage, hunting locations and villages. The collected information shows us a presentation with some qualities of regional community study. If we look at study areas they have a reasonable community. From the interviews done by the inhabitants emerged these problems: Inhabitants were interested for touristic development but were requesting more focusing by the local authorities as well as many critics appeared for local directors regarding the work and selection of individuals which have profits from some projects of international organizations. Afterwards inhabitants of the region saw significance in process of decision making for avoiding the problems and finding their solution. Problematic was also the departure of a big number of inhabitants especially new ages abroad to work.

Recommendation

- Cooperation between inhabitants and local authorities in the process of decision making m will lead in development of one destination and sustainable development of tourism.
- Accomplishment of successful cooperation between local authorities, communities and private operators in building, accomplishing of strategies, plans and programs for tourist development.
- Inhabitants of the region should have in mind their awareness in active participation in building the strategies, plans, programs of tourist development.
- Placing the new tourism products in the market and improving the quality of existing products.
- Should improve the defects that exist in the rules and laws and problems should be addressed about ownership.
- To give possibility to investors to invest in infrastructure through touristic zones.
- To protect and invest in natural, culture and archeological monuments.
- To eliminate the effect of forest degradation and to regenerate them.
- To eliminate illegal constructions.
- To place information offices in all touristic areas.
- To invest in infrastructure.
- To have a space for working places for area inhabitants.

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Romania: a non-interventionist family support policy?

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Abstract

The challenges of population decline in Europe have stimulated interest and debate about family support policies. Based on an overview of family support policies in several European countries, this paper aims to provide an assessment about which model best describes the current policy setup in Romania. Our starting point is the typology of family policies in Europe developed by Gauthier (1996), which includes four models of family policies: pro-natalist, pro-traditional, pro-egalitarian and non-interventionist. We then set out to compare the key features of the policies in place in several relevant European countries for each of these models. The methodology relies on secondary analysis of studies and national level policy documents and sources on family support policies. The comparative framework includes (1) the nature, objectives, and goals of the policies, (2) the content, i.e. benefits and services, (3) a review of the recent research findings on the impact of these policies. Regarding the content of family policies, we will focus on the main types of support: cash support for families (allowances, tax credits, and means-tested cash benefits), leave benefits for working parents (maternity and parental leave schemes), and childcare services for families (provision and subsidies). Since policy outcomes vary according to different social context, we also pay attention to social, political and demographical trends. In addition to the abovementioned points, the analysis of the Romanian family support policies takes into account the changes made in 2010-2011. Like many other European Union Member States, Romania opted for austerity as the policy response to the recession triggered by the crash of 2009. In terms of policy decisions, this translated in a reform of the social benefits system and of the labour laws, resulting in cuts to cash support schemes for families and reduced leave benefits for working parents. The paper argues that the overall outcome puts Romania in the non-interventionist model of family support policies.

Keywords: family support policies, Romania, Europe, population decline, fertility, cash transfers, leave benefits, childcare service

Introduction

With nearly all European countries experiencing a long-term decline in fertility, the interest for policies related to demographic changes is on the rise. Europe's demographic decline raises major economic, social, and political issues. Compared with a decade ago, these issues are visible at present and likely to be more so in the future. For the economy, an overall population decline and aging societies bring fundamental changes to the labour market, as well as a reduction of the potential for economic growth. With less people to pay taxes, the sustainability of public finances and social insurance systems, especially pensions and healthcare, is under question. Issues arising from immigration and emigration are reeling in politics and society at large. Against this backdrop, the European Union's (EU) 2020 agenda of smart, sustainable and inclusive growth faces a risk of going the way of its predecessor, the failed Lisbon Strategy.

This paper is intended to contribute to the emergence of a climate of informed debate in Romania on the relationship between social policy, especially family support policies, and demographic change. The main aim is to assess which model best describes the current policy setup in Romania. Based on an overview of the main models of family policies in Europe - pro-natalist, pro-traditional, pro-egalitarian and non-interventionist - the paper intends to provide a setting for the choices available to the Romanian policy makers in order to mitigate the effects of low fertility and population decline.

Method

The methodology relies on a secondary analysis of studies, policy documents and other sources regarding family support policies. We start from the main models of family policies in Europe out forward in the typology developed by Gauthier (1996). Alongside a brief overview of these models, covering their main features, attention is also paid to the social, demographical and political context. Another aim of the overview is to develop a comparative framework based on the key

abovementioned elements with the following structure: (1) the nature, objectives, and goals of the policies, (2) the content: cash support, benefits for working parents, and child care services, (3) the outcome, via a brief review of recent research findings on the impact of these policies. In turn, each of the content elements features its own categories. Cash support for families includes allowances, tax credits and means-tested benefits. Leave benefits for working parents comprise maternity and parental leave schemes. Childcare services for families consist both of in-kind provision and cash subsidies.

The second part of the paper looks into the Romanian family support policies through the abovementioned comparative framework. Since Romania, like many other European Union member states opted for austerity policies as a response to the Great Recession triggered by the crash of 2009, we consider sensible to look at the policy setting before and after the 2010-2011 cuts in social spending and overall austere overhaul of policies.

Population policies versus family policies

The terms used to describe public policy aimed at influencing demographic change provide an interesting issue. The most common terms used are population policies and family policies. Of the two, the former is the first in terms of chronology. Its original scope included measures aimed to have an impact on the population structure, explicitly linked to indicators such as birth rate or fertility rate (Grant et al., 2004, p. 19). However, just referring to the indicators without the mechanism of change might seem vague, even devoid of content. While the policy goals refer to the population as a whole, the area of intervention is at the micro-level of family unit or the individual. For instance, a broader definition put forward by Livi-Bacci (1974, p. 192) describes population policy as "legislation, and measures of economic and social policy [that] influence the behaviour of the individual and contribute to modify the environment, considered in the broad sense of the word, in which decisions are formed and taken: among them the decision to marry, to have children, or to migrate either within or abroad."

In broad terms, family policy covers areas of government intervention regarding family well-being and measures aimed towards families with children (Aldous and Dumon, 1980). In practical terms, the distinction between population and family policies is blurred. Despite the stated general policy objective being different – population versus family – there is a source of overlap in that the crux of population policies regarding fertility entails changes in a family's perceptions and attitudes of the costs and benefits of having children (David, 1992). Perhaps the main difference comes from an ideological point of view. On the one hand, the matter of the government's intervention in decisions taken by individuals and families is debatable. This argument is compounded by the experience of the strict procreative policy of former Communist regimes in Central and Eastern Europe, particularly Romania and East Germany, encapsulated in the term pro-natalist policy. Therefore, it becomes more politically risky for a government to explicitly set as a primary policy objective a rise in births by encouraging families to have more children. It is in this context, that family policy, instead of population policy, could be perceived as a more neutral framing of a policy mix geared toward the same goal. Another viewpoint on the framing issue, is arguably in Kamerman and Kahn's (1978) observation that family policies could be explicit, implicit or not exist at all. An explicit policy is one that stems from a strategic policy document that states the goal and sums up all the measures intended to attain it. As a result, family or population policy tends to be implicit or lacking at all.

Typology of family support policies

A large difference in family policies across nations is to be expected. The existence of policy goals, level of state intervention and support vary from country to country. Based on a comparative analysis of 22 industrialised countries, Anne Gauthier (1996) put forward a typology of family support policies comprising four models: pro-natalist, pro-traditional, pro-egalitarian, non-interventionist. This section will briefly explore the main trends of each of these models, before moving to assess which of them best describes the policy setup in Romania as of 2014.

The pro-natalist model features a situation of government concern with low fertility and a policy setup with an explicit goal in raising the birth or fertility rate with a broad range of measures. The main task is to encourage families to have children, which is to be achieved through decreasing the costs of raising children and changing, in the medium and long term, general attitudes towards the idea of having children. Decreasing the cost of child raising means high levels of cash support, both in terms of child allowance and tax credits for working parents. Strong legislation is in place for maternity and paternity leave. Child care facilities are provided and generous subsidies are in place for covering its cost in the family budget. France is the best example for this policy model. Having faced the issue of low birth rate from the 19th century, France engaged in the early 1990s on a renewed pronatalist policy. Close to the mid 2010s, the policy is a qualified success, with France enjoying one of the highest fertility rates in Europe and very close or around the replacement rate (2.1) (Thevenon, 2009).

In terms of financing, this was possible public spending on family policy of around 4% of GDP (Heran, 2013). A political consensus around this policy ensured its endurance regardless of the ideological orientation of the government of the day. The current policy course was initiated by the conservative Gaullist government of Eduard Balladur in the early 1990s, and continued by all subsequent governments.

The pro-traditional model derives from a policy goal of maintaining the family. In this case, there is an implicit goal not linked with increasing fertility of the birth rate, but with a rather paternalistic of preserving the traditional family. In broad terms, while the state emphasis family support, families and voluntary organisations (community organisations, the church) are regarded as the most important sources of material support. The level of cash support tends to be medium at best, as well as the benefits for working parents. Maternity and parental leave is short, just 1 year. The provision of child care services is low, due to the traditional view of the mother as responsible of raising the children. Germany is the best example for this model. Its impact on the birth rate was negative, with Germany having one of the lowest birth rates in Europe and a rapidly aging society. Being a major debate issue in Germany, the government has recently taken some measures linked to raising the birth rate and away from the traditional model (Spiegel, 2011).

The pro-egalitarian model main goal is to achieve gender equality through an environment designed to help women balance employment and family life, while at the same time increasing the role of the father in child care. As a result, this model features medium levels of cash support, and high levels of benefits for working parents and especially child care services. Ideologically, it is highly influenced by the feminist movement, in the sense of achieving gender neutrality and a better work-life balance for women. Northern European countries associated with the Scandinavian social model and gender equality, such as Sweden and Denmark, provide good examples of the model (Chiu et al., 2008). In terms of effect on the birth rate, while lower than the pro-natalist model to around 1.7-1.9, it places the Northern European well above the European average, thus mitigating the long-term effects of population decline.

The non-interventionist model, as its name suggests, has no goal at all regarding the birth rate. Usually explicitly, its goal is to provide some support for families at risk of poverty and social exclusion. Therefore the level of support in terms cash transfers, benefits for working parents, including maternity and paternity leave and child care services is at a very low level. The participation of working mothers in the labour market is encouraged by limiting benefits. Poor families are provided only with selective, means-tested benefits. Businesses enjoy financial incentives for providing child care services. This model is strongly linked with a neo-liberal ideology, with its emphasis on the role of the market, individual and family self-sufficiency and belief against state intervention in society and individual life. Britain during the 18-year period of Conservative governments led by Margaret Thatcher and John Major in the 1980s and 1990s is the leading example for this model (Chiu et al., 2008).

Population trends in Romania

During the 20th century, Romania experienced all the phases of the demographic transition, from high birth rates and high mortality to the current situation of low birthrate and low mortality, and negative population growth (Zamfir, 1999). After the fall of Communism in 1989, the transition to capitalism sent the economy went into a freefall and increased poverty, which led to severe social pathologies (Zamfir, 2004, p. 51). In turn, this led to a massive decline of births and marked increase of mortality (see tables 1 and 2). This development is not unique in Romania. All former Communist countries experienced the same phenomena, caused by the "shock therapy" strategy for the transition to capitalism (Stuckler et al., 2009). A quarter of century since the 1989 Revolution, Romania's population declined by 16%, from 23.2 million down to 20 million, the main causes being emigration and the natural population decline. Regardless of the future emigration dynamic, current projections point to a total population of less than 15 million in 2050 (Ghețău, 2012p. 47-48). Obviously, this has massive economic and social consequences. The total fertility rate collapsed from around the replacement level in 1989-1990 to 1.3-1.4 for much of the past 20 years. Any discussion about a family or population policy in Romania needs to be set in this context.

Policy goals: the nature and objectives

Family policy in Romania has three main goals: (1) to enable a better work-life balance through increase access to child care services, (2) to provide support poor families through mainly through means tested benefits, and (3) to provide social care for abandoned children through the child protection system. All three are mentioned in the Government's investiture program. Policy documents outlining the government's strategy regarding poverty reduction, employment and child

protection for 2014-2020 are either in place or in development. There is no implicit or explicit goal within family policy regarding the birth rate or fertility, despite the country's dire demographic trends. The term population policy is avoided altogether. Two main reasons could be considered. First, the backlash following almost 25 years of harsh pro-natalist policy enforced by the Communist regime. In the mid 2000s, Romanian social policy experts stressed this argument and the lack of financial resources during the transition (Mărginean, 2004, p. 212-218). A second reason has to do with low policy development capability, the Labour Ministry being heavily dependent on outside policy content supplied by international institutions such as the World Bank and UNICEF or overly reliant on the recommendations of the European Commission.

Policy content: benefits and services

The policy content follows the abovementioned goals. The family support system was built around cash support. By far the main benefit was child allowance. After the 1989 Revolution, its value severely declined in real terms, from 10.5% of the average wage in 1989 to 2.4% in 2007 (Popescu, 2008, p. 247). In 2008, the child allowance for children up to 2 years old increased by more than eight times. In 2009, child allowance for children from 2 to 18 doubled. This kept the latter below 3% of the monthly gross wage, but increased the former to 10.5%, virtually the same level as 25 years before. Besides child allowance, other means tested allowances, such as for the single parent family were introduced in the 2000s. In addition, the income tax system provides a tax credit for children. However, these measures amount to around 20 euros per month each (Stănescu et al., 2012).

The main benefits for working parents are maternity or parental leave and a labour code provision guaranteeing the parent's job for up to 6 months after returning from leave. The rules leave changed during the 2000s from a quota (85%) of the average monthly wage for the previous year of the parent taking leave, usually the mother, to a quota (85%) of the national average wage to a fixed sum set by the government around a quota (75%) of the national average wage (Popescu, 2008, p. 250). The reason for these changes lie with the fact that women were paid less than the national wage and on and off budgetary constraints. In 2008, a significant change occurred. Once more, the benefit was set at 85% of the previous wage, but with a low and high mark. The duration of parental leave was 2 years, with another year available for children with disabilities. The lower mark was marginally higher than the minimum wage. In 2010, austerity policies imposed cuts on the parental leave benefit. For the first year, the benefit was cut to 75% of the previous wage, while also reducing the maximum level. For the second year it was further cut to a maximum of around 60% of the gross national average wage (Stănescu et al., 2012). In terms of public financing, the value of all cash and benefits for working parents amount to around 1% of GDP, with child allowance and parental leave benefit covering close to 90% (Popescu, 2008, p. 246).

Child care services went into decline in the 1990s, as nurseries and kindergartens no longer received financial support from state owned enterprises or public financing. A severe and quick reduction in births in that period further added pressure for the closing of many units. As a result, there was a crisis in kindergarten beds in the 2000s, with the mild recovery of births in the latter part of the decade. The provision of child care services, either in kind in nurseries or subsidized is a major problem in Romania. On the other hand, the authorities have put in place a system of sanctioned vouchers for child care services provided or supported by businesses.

Policy outcome: impact during boom and austerity

The birth rate and fertility indicators did show a mild recovery during the boom years of the late 2000s. On the one hand, this was made possible by a change of policy with the substantial increase of existing benefits, mainly child allowance and paternal leave, and the introduction of new universal benefits. This allowed the fertility rate to recover from 1.3 to 1.6 and the birth rate to remain steady around 10.4 per 1,000 inhabitants, despite ever reducing fertile cohorts and emigration. In addition to social policy, the economic boom obviously acted as indirect policy reinforcing these trends. The austerity response to the economic crisis involved massive cuts to cash support, a reduction of the real and even nominal value of benefits and a turn towards means-testing. Coupled with a recession during 2009-2010, the result was a fall in the birth rate and the fertility rate back to the lowest levels during the past quarter century. From an ideological standpoint, it is closer to neoliberalism, with its emphasis on individual and family self-sufficiency and belief against state intervention in society and individual life, except for minimal support.

Discussion

This aim of this paper was to identify which model best describes family policy in Romania. Using secondary analysis of studies and policy documents, a comparative framework was developed comprising three categories: (1) the nature, objectives, and goals of the policies, (2) the content: cash support, benefits for working parents, and child care services, (3) the outcome, via a brief review of recent research findings on the impact of these policies. Our particular area of concern was family policy with an explicit or implicit goal in raising the birth or fertility rate with a broad range of measures. Population policy is another term used for this kind of policy, although it is less widely used.

Out of the four models – pro-natalist, pro-traditional, pro-egalitarian and non-interventionist –we argue Romania is in the non-interventionist category. First, this comes from a non-existent family policy linked to an objective of raising the birth rate or the fertility rate. Indeed, family policy in Romania is mainly concerned with other objectives, such as work-life balance, support for poor families and social care for abandoned children. Secondly, although a system of cash support and benefits for working parents is in place, it not in a position to change in the perceptions and attitudes of the costs and benefits of having children due to the low level of the benefits. Moreover, the recent austerity policy drive delivered cuts in these benefits and more means testing. Last but not least, support for child care services is low. Availability and access to child care is very low for nurseries and still problematic for kindergarten. The overall approach of government could be summed up as non-interventionist. The enforced pro-natalist policy of the previous regime and low policy development capabilities compound a lack of response to the great challenges stemming from population decline and an aging society. In this context, this paper intended to contribute to the emergence of a climate of informed debate in Romania on the relationship between social policy, especially the link between family support policies and demographic change. A secondary objective was to provide a setting for the choices available to the Romanian policy makers from other models of family policies.

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Tables

Table 1. Total fertility rate in Romania 1989-2012

1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
2,2	1,8	1,6	1,5	1,4	1,4	1,3	1,3	1,3	1,3	1,3	1,3
2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
1,2	1,3	1,3	1,3	1,4	1,4	1,4	1,6	1,6	1,6	1,5	1,3

Source: Romanian Statistical Yearbook 2013

Table 2. Birth rate, crude (per 1,000 people) in Romania 1989-2012

1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
16	13,6	11,9	11,4	11	10,9	10,4	10,2	10,5	10,5	10,4	10,5
2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
9,8	9,7	9,8	10,1	10,4	10,4	10,3	10,8	10,9	10,5	9,7	9,0

Source: Romanian Statistical Yearbook 2013

Twitter User Behaviors In Turkey: A Content Analysis On Turkish Twitter Users

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Abstract

Social media, as an interactive and digital communication medium that is relatively free of time and place boundaries, is transforming the way we communicate. Since the Internet fully commercialized by 1995, web based technologies those constitutes social media have been developed with an accelerated pace. Relatively proportional to technology development pace, adoption rates of social media tools such as web logs (blogs), online social networks, social bookmarking sites, etc. are extremely high and Twitter, an online social networking and micro-blogging service, is a significant example with its hundred millions of users. Since the most of the Twitter penetration rates are from Turkey, obviously Twitter has been a popular social media channel in Turkey. In this article; at first interaction, the fundamental concept of social media, will be defined in depth and then a content analysis on Turkish dataset from Twitter will be shared to identify the user behaviors in Turkey.

Keywords: Social Media, User Behaviours, Twitter Content Analysis, Behavioural Research, Interactivity

Introduction

Marshall McLuhan's famous quote "Medium is the message.", with the influence of Social Media, is transformed into "User is the message.". We are living in a age that individual's influence on media is rising every passing day. Social Media, as a multi-directional new communication medium that is relatively free of time and place boundaries, enables users to create, share and interact with the digital content thus each user is a part of the audience and also broadcaster at the very same time.

The dynamics of the social media allows user-generated content to be amplified and spread to the mass. The flow of content diffusion starts with creating and sharing the content, however interactivity makes social media literally social thus content epidemically diffuses with interactions.

Twitter is one of the major social media tools that enables to create, share and interact with digital content. The structure of the online social network gives users a potential to be heard. In this research, it is aimed to understand user behaviours on creating, sharing and interacting with the content. According to this aim, at first social media as a new media, interactivity concepts and also Twitter as a social media tool will be defined in depth. Then a content analysis on #TwitterforICSS hashtag and participants' Twitter usage data will be analyzed and shared to actualize the aim.

Social Media, Interactivity and Twitter

New media is a term that was suggested in researches about social, pschpsychological, economical, political and cultural studies by 1970s. But in 1990s, the term of new media became clear with the developments on computer and internet technologies. Because new media cannot be thought without digitalization. New media has the ability to collect all of multimedia such as text, image, video, audio and, transforms audience to users. Because users can create, share and transmit content. New media provide to users interactivity. Interactivity create individuality. Because every user transforms a source, content creator.

Lev Manovich formulates new media via five principles: (Manovich, 2002)

Numerical Presentation: A new media object can be described mathematically. For instance, an image or a shape can be described using a mathematical function.

Modularity: New media sub-elements such as images, sounds, movies are represented as collections of discrete samples.

Automation: New media objects can automate many things without user.

Variability: New media allows us to create versions of the same object that differ from each other in substantial ways.

Transcoding: Computer data is represented in variable formats. Mostly formats are recognized by each other.

The most pervasive type of new media is social media. Social media is formed user generated contents and interactivity.

The global system of networked computers, servers and routers known as the Internet has transformed many aspects of modern society and social interaction. The online distribution of goods and services, for instance, has influenced almost every industry and has radically transformed many. Alongside commerce-oriented technological development has been a rise in what has been termed "social media." One of the most significant developments connected to social media is the rise of social network sites, such as Facebook, LinkedIn, Twitter and Google Plus. (Boyd&Ellison, 2013)

Boyd and Ellison assert that Social Networks have three essential components:

- 1) a user-constructed public or semi-public profile;
- 2) a set of connections to other users within the system;
- 3) the ability to view one's own list of connections, as well the connections made by others in the system. (Boyd&Ellison, 2007)

In new media, interactivity creates a control field to users and behaviours of users became quality of source. Thus, communication became user-oriented. Interactivity is the key element for understanding user-generated social media.

Interactivity

Interactivity is two or more way communication. Messages between source and receiver forms some sort of influence. This influence causes the receiver to react and give feedback. The feedback forms another message. Thus receiver becomes the source and source becomes the receiver. It goes on until the end of communication. (Öğüt, 2004)

Interactivity is a process-related, variable characteristic of communication settings. Interactivity can lead to sociability. Interactivity is not a characteristic of the medium. It is a process-related construct about communication. We note that communication is mostly about and for the purpose of interaction. Interactivity places shared interpretive contexts in the primary role. Interactivity describes and prescribes the manner in which conversational interaction as an iterative process leads to jointly produced meaning. Interactivity is the condition of communication in which simultaneous and continuous exchanges occur, and these exchanges carry a social, binding force. (Rafaelli & Sudweeks, 1997)

The aim for interactivity in new media is obviously the need of user involvement. This is an extension of the need for reaching information quick and accurately. (Öğüt, 2004)

According to Mathematical Theory of Communication, information source produces a message; transmitter that operates on the message to create a signal which can be sent through a channel; channel carries the information that composes the message; receiver transforms signal back into the message intended for delivery; and finally destination takes the message. If there is a noise in channel, message cannot be transmitted accurately (Shannon, 1948) This mathematical approach disregards content of the message. In the aspects of social sciences, content of the message is significant and message should have the effectiveness. According to Umberto Eco, if receiver could not understand the content of the message, there is a kind of noise.

The aim of communication is not only transmit a message to receiver, and also create content. Thus, interactivity is the most significant feature of new media, because it makes the content effective.

The definition of interactivity according to Rafaelli recognizes three pertinent levels: (Rafaelli, 1988)

Two-way Communication (noninteractive) is present as soon as messages flow bilaterally.

Reactive Communication settings require later messages refer to earlier ones.

Fully Interactive Communication differs from reaction in the incorporation of reference to the content, nature, form or just the presence of earlier reference.

Not all communication is interactive and even noninteractive communication may contain coherent responses. Interactivity is not a medium characteristic. Media and channels may set upper bounds, remove barriers, or provide necessary conditions for interactivity levels. But potential does not compel actuality.

Interactivity is feedback that relates both to previous messages and to the way previous messages related to those preceding them.

Wiberg states that the concept of interaction and interaction support could be defined in relation to the concepts of communication and collaboration. Wiberg clarifies his model on defining the terms, communication as the exchange of information between people via a tool / medium and collaboration as two or more people operating a common object or artifact. In collaboration, operations produce "feedback" to the operator, but also "feed through" to co-workers. He states that in the context of his suggested model, communication and collaboration could be conceived as subsets of interaction. (Wilberg, 2004) (Ögüt, 2011)

From Passive Audience to Active User By New Media:

With new media, audience of mass media transforms user. The user is the key element in new media. Because, receiver becomes source again, and users create content in new media. Content creation provides the user perception of freedom and selection opportunity.

Differences between active and passive users will be given over Biocca's audience activity approach (Biocca, 1988). Because, differences between active and passive users also show the differences between new media and mass media users.

Freedom of selection: User activity is portrayed as the funneling process of media and content selection.

Utilitarianism: The audience member is the embodiment of the self-interested consumer. Beyond selectivity, which in some cases implies a certain defensiveness on the part of the user, the utilitarian version of the concept suggests a certain level of rational choice in the satisfaction of clear individual needs and motives.

Intentionality: It is in this form that the concept emphasizes the more cognitive dimensions of activity. Intentionality points to schematic processing and structuring of incoming information. Patterns of media consumption and memory bear the clear imprint of the user's motivation, personality and individual cognitive processing structure.

Involvement: Involvement characterizes both the level of affective arousal and a level of cognitive organization and information structuring. The same activity term is further used to label behavioral manifestations of active involvement such as parasocial interaction.

Imperviousness to Influence: It functions as a kind of goal of activity by reference to the degree to which the user limits, influences and controls the effects of media.

Twitter

Twitter is an online [social networking](#) and [microblogging](#) service that enables users to send and read short 140-character text messages, called "tweets". The first Twitter prototype, developed by Dorsey and contractor Florian Weber, was used as an internal service for Odeo employees and the full version was introduced publicly on July 15, 2006. <http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Twitter> - cite note-launch-9 Twitter describes itself as a best way to connect with people express yourself and discover what's happening. Twitter has become a news reporting, coordination and social media marketing tool. Features of Twitter:

Tweets: Tweets are publicly visible by default, but senders can restrict message delivery to just their followers. (Wikipedia, 2014):

Retweet (RT): A retweet is someone else's Tweet that you chose to share with all of your followers. (Twitter, 2014)

Favourite: Users use this feature for tweets that they like. (Twitter, 2014)

Format: Users can group posts together by topic or type by use of [hashtags](#) – words or phrases prefixed with a # sign. Similarly, the @ sign followed by a [username](#) is used for mentioning or replying to other users. (Wikipedia, 2014)

Trending Topics: A word, phrase or topic that is tagged at a greater rate than other tags is said to be a "trending topic". Trending topics become popular either through a concerted effort by users, or because of an event that prompts people to talk about a specific topic. These topics help Twitter and their users to understand what is happening in the world. (Wikipedia, 2014)

Direct Messages (DM): Users can directly send or take messages from followers. These messages are not be seen on the timeline. (Twitter, 2014)

The most commonly used social networking platform of the five measured by Duggan and Smith. Facebook also high levels of engagement among its users: 63% of Facebook users visit the site at least once a day, with 40 % doing so multiple times throughout the day. Instagram and Twitter have a significantly smaller number of users than Facebook does, but users of these sites also tend to visit them frequently. Some 57% of Instagram users visit the site at least one a day (with 35% doing so multiple times per day), and 46% of Twitter users are daily visitors (with 29% visiting multiple times per day). (Duggan&Smith, 2013)

Overall, 42% of online adults use two or more of these social networks, while 36% use only one. Among those who only use one major social networking platform, 84% say that Facebook is the single site that frequent. However, other single platform social networking site users have adopted a site other than Facebook as their platform of choice. Among those who use just one social networking site, 8% use LinkedIn, 4% use Pinterest, and 2% each say that Instagram or Twitter is their social networking site.

Content Analysis on Turkish Twitter Users

Methodology

For determining Twitter user behaviours in Turkey an experiment is designed; a hashtag, #TwitterforICSS, is created and tweeted by the authors to ask users to participate with the research with a straightforward question such as "Why do you use Twitter?". Users has been told that the participation will allow authors to collect users' data from Twitter. In a week, 63 users participated with 76 tweets; #TwitterforICSS hashtag's and participants' twitter usage data is gathered from 22.06.2014 to 28.06.2014, the data collection categories can be listed as:

a. #TwitterforICSS

a.1. Tweets

a.1.1 Tweets' Time and Date

a.1.2 Interactions (Quantity of Retweets, Favorites and Mentions for each Tweet)

b. User Twitter Usage

b.1. Tweets

b.1.1. Tweets' Time and Date

b.1.2. Interactions

b.2. Users' Information

b.2.1. Quantities of Retweets and Favorites

b.2.2. Quantity of Total Tweets, Photo/Video Sharing, Followings/Followers

b.2.3. Twitter Registration Date

b.2.4. Location

b.2.5. Gender and Age (Gathered from Users' themself)

From dataset a, participants' Twitter perception will be identified by concentrating responses. From dataset b, interaction behaviours will be identified according to topics, distributed multimedia elements, gender, age and time.

Participants

63 Twitter users participated with the #TwitterforICSS hashtag. The demographics of the participants is shown at table 1.

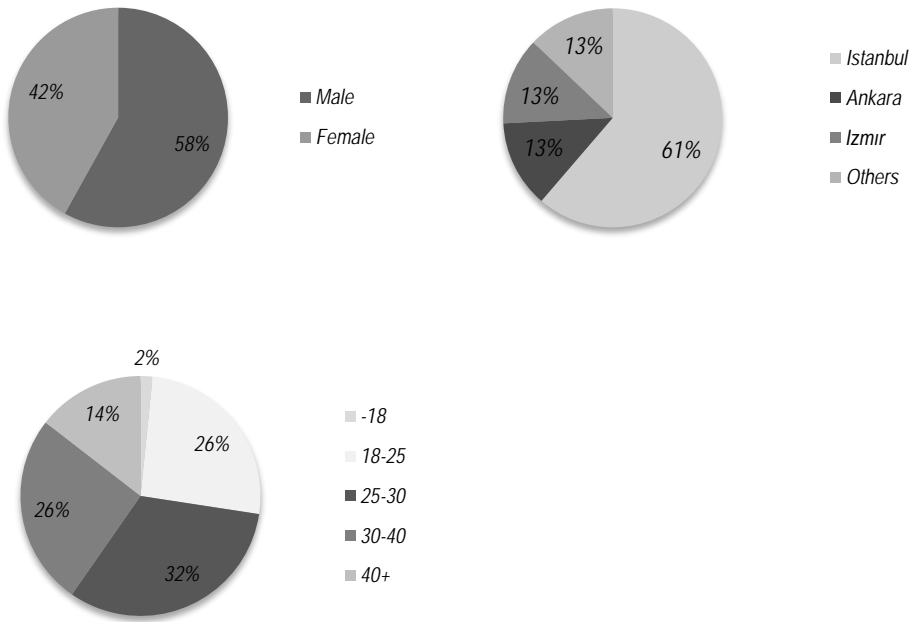


Table 1: Gender, Location and Age Distribution of Participants

Results

a. Content Analysis on #TwitterforICSS

Participants responded to the "Why do you use Twitter?" question with their tweets, after concentrating the responses 14 headings became distinct;

Self-expression tool	17	13%
Free media	11	8, 45%
Fast	22	17%
Only one of the social networks	4	3%
Filtering by interests	8	6.15%
Source of information/news	22	17%
Not an efficient online social network	1	0, 75%
Public Sphere	9	7%
Entertainment/Humor	5	3.85%
Actuality	14	10.75%
Discussion/Learning	6	4.7%

Opportunity to reach opinion leader/celebrities	3	2.3%
Reliable	3	2.3%
Simple/easy to read	5	3.85%

Table 2 - "Why Twitter?" Responses at #TwitterforICSS

do you use

According to this research, most of participants expressed that Twitter is a fast social network and is a source of information/news. For each of two features has 17% participation. Twitter as a self-expression tool is seen by 13% of participants. Actuality of Twitter follows these features with 10.75% and, 8.45% of participants think that Twitter is a free medium. 7% of participants comment Twitter as a public space. From this point of view, Twitter is perceived as a fast source of news and free public space.

6.15% of participants emphasized the filtering feature of Twitter. Because Twitter provide the opportunity of filtering for interests by hashtags. In addition, 4.7% of participants see Twitter as a learning platform by discussion with the others. Thus, Twitter is a medium that provide communication with people who has the same interest and learning something with discussing about these interest fields.

3.85% of participants emphasize Twitter as an entertainment or humor medium. Especially sharing photos and videos provides this feature of Twitter. And also 3.85% of participants expressed that Twitter is a simple and easy to read. It makes this medium easy to follow. 3% of participants think that Twitter is an only one of the social networks. According to 2.3% of participants, they reach the opportunity to communicate with opinion leaders and celebrities. And 2.3% of them point out that Twitter is a reliable platform. Finally only 0.75% of participant see Twitter loses its function as an effective social network.

b. Twitter User Behaviours

63 participants' Twitter data from 22.06.2014 to 28.06.2014, (Users' information and 588 unique tweets with their interactivity metrics) are gathered. Significant results are:

Total tweets tweeted by the user and follower quantity of the user is weakly correlated ($R=0.222$, $R^2=0.0493$): thus more tweeting does not necessarily mean more followers.

%58 of the tweets have humorous content. According to category distribution of humorous contents, users are tend to make humorous comments on politics.

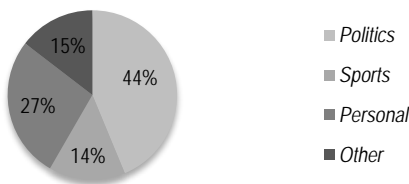


Table 3 – Category Distribiton of Humorous Content

Twitter Interactivity is provided by actions such as Favorite, Retweet and Mention; the overall interactions of 588 tweets is shown at table 3.

	Total	Average
Favorite	2718	4, 62244898
Retweet	2482	4, 221088435
Mention	613	1, 042517007

Table 4 – Interactive of Tweets Gathered

The quantity of interaction activities in each tweet (retweets, favorites and mention) is summed up with equal weight to generate an interaction score. Results according to the Interaction score;

Distributed multimedia elements effect on tweets' interactivity:

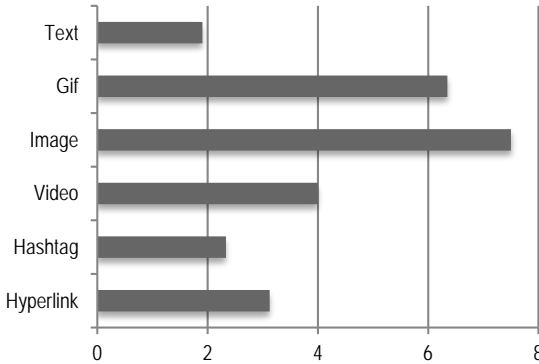


Table 5 – Multimedia Elements Effect on Interactivity [Multimedia Elements (y), Average Interaction Score (x)]

Humorous contents' effect on interactivity:

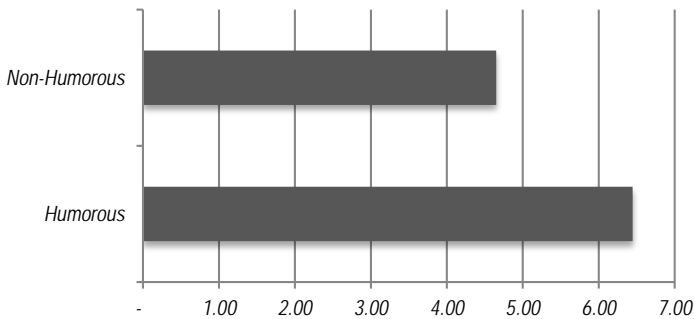


Table 6 – Humorous contents' effect on Interactivity [Content Type (y), Average Interaction Score (x)]

Research Limitations

The quantity of participants and gathered data within the corresponding time interval can not be considered as a sample for Turkish Twitter Users universe, in this manner the results will only enlighten a path for further researches with larger datasets. In further researches a digital tool, that enables gathering larger datasets from Twitter, will be used to provide a sample to represent the related universe.

Discussions and Further Research Questions

Social Media, as a New Media, is an interactive communication medium that enables users to communicate digitally relatively free of time and place boundaries. With the power of social media tools such as Twitter, individuals' voices is getting heard more every passing day as considerable amount of participants emphasize. Interactivity in social media is an amplifier that amplifies the opinions so understanding the dynamics of interactivity will allow individuals to reach the mass.

According to this point of view, our research is shaped. From the considerable amount of participation in #TwitterforICSS hashtag, Twitter is considered as a free medium that enables users to express themselves effectively. Twitter usage data of the participants gathered significantly showed us more tweets does not necessarily means more influence. Humorous contents interactivity effect is emphasized and in researched universe strong relationship between humor and politics contents is came forward. According to distributed multimedia elements effect is shared and content that contains images' significant interaction potential is observed.

Because of the time and resource limitations, our research covered only a small universe and results shared are not responding our aim of understanding the dynamics of interactivity. However this research enlightens a path for further researches; with a sufficient dataset and time interval, quality of tweets' effect on interactivity, motivations of user interactivity, typology of users according to their tweets and interactions and interactivity according to content types will be covered in depth.

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Investigating Facebook Friendships through Five Similarity Dimensions

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Abstract

The unprecedented evolution of social media has led to the exploitation of the new technologies with the purpose of encouraging closer social relationships at the individual and group levels. One of the most prolific cooperation forms was objectified through the online social networks, a catalytic form of interaction that allows individuals to stay constantly connected and to exploit the complex nature of the communication devices and services. Starting from this point, the paper discusses the main forms of similarity which stand for the basis of interaction and communication among the members of Facebook social networks. The proposed approaches to similarity address the mechanisms which encourage the formation and the development of strong online social networks: the similarity as a condition, the similarity as a context, the similarity as a catalyzer, the similarity as a consequence and the similarity as a connection. The configuration of these dimensions in the context of the online social networks was tested by analyzing the case of Facebook online social networks. Each of the five dimensions was marked out from the perspective of a sociological interview-based inquiry conducted with fourteen students from a communication college. With a view to better illustrate certain findings, an online social network analysis was performed. As the preliminary results showed, Facebook, as an online social network, is used by the respondents especially for social searching and bonding social capital rather than social browsing which concerns the initiation of new contacts with unknown individuals in the direct interaction. In fact, the most important function of these communities is to allow members to discover other sources of similarity and to potentiate the similarity discovered in the offline environment through consistent communication and interaction.

Keywords: Facebook, Similarity, Online Social Networks

Introduction

The unprecedented evolution of the facilities ensured by the social media has led to the exploitation of the new technologies with the purpose of encouraging closer social relationships at the individual and group level. One of the most prolific interactions was shaped as online social networks, a form of communication that allows individuals to stay constantly connected and to exploit the complex nature of the communication devices and services.

The interest in analyzing the online social networks has grown significantly in the past years and has reunited researchers from multiple fields, leading to the development of various methods of studying the relationships among people, groups, organizations and other entities. Hereby, social relations and the relating processes within an online social network or community have become key components of human activity even though, in time, they have been limited by temporal and spatial coordinates. The respective restrictions have partially faded away due to the evolution of social media and due to their availability generalized by the use of revolutionary technologies. In particular, the emergence of the new technologies and the progress towards Web 2.0 have allowed people to organize themselves into online social networks in a manner similar to the one in which people organize themselves into social networks in the physical reality.

The differences between the early social networks and the online social networks generally consist in the mechanisms used by the members to communicate among themselves. For the communities in the physical reality, the face-to-face interaction represents the main form of interrelating, whereas for online communities the privileged place is occupied by the information and communication technologies that facilitate interaction and promote communication among individuals, anytime and anywhere. In other words, the online social networks have developed based on the hardware and software that allow individuals to share information through simple, immediate, universal, inexpensive and reliable interaction.

Literature review

Facebook facts and figures

The term of "online (virtual) social network" refers to a Web-based service that allows individuals to build a public or semipublic profile, to articulate a list of persons with whom they share a certain connection, and to view and to explore one's own list and the list of other members from the community (Boyd & Ellison, 2007, p. 210). At this level, there are several descriptions of the concept, depending on the perspective of the definition which often relies on a multidisciplinary approach – sociological, technological, economic, commercial-electronic etc.

Social networking sites represent a natural extension of these studies as they connect individuals in a geographically unrestrained way. On most social networking sites, individuals do not seek to meet or to establish connections with new people but, on the contrary, the prevailing intention is that of maintaining contact with the existing groups of friends and acquaintances (Boyd & Ellison, 2007; Boyd & Heer, 2006; Donath, 2007; Donath & Boyd, 2004).

Facebook is a social networking site created in 2004 by a Harvard student (Mark Zuckerberg) and made available to the wide public towards the end of 2006. Its technological design allows users to add friends, send messages, update personal profiles to keep friends and acquaintances informed on any recent change, to upload and view photos. Facebook users may also create or join virtual groups, explore or develop applications, host content, find information about the interests, hobbies and statuses of other members starting from the online profiles that may be publicly or semipublicly available.

Researches on Facebook have a short history but are growing at a fast pace and are adopting, most of the times, an interdisciplinary approach. In this respect, researchers have focused upon various issues that may be organized according to several major lines: presenting the self online and managing one's image on Facebook (Boyd & Heer, 2006; Liu, 2007; Buffardi & Campbell, 2008; Back et al., 2010; Papacharissi, 2009; Walther et al., 2009; DeAndrea, Shaw & Levine, 2010; Georges, 2010), confidentiality and privacy of Facebook communication (Boyd, 2008; Tufekci, 2008; Van Manen, 2010; Ledbetter et al., 2010), exploring the civic and political potential of Facebook (Smith & Rainie, 2008; Zhang et al., 2009; Watt, 2010), the psycho-social effects generated by Facebook among teenagers (Lewis & West, 2009; Pujazon-Zazik & Park, 2010), the impact of the uses and gratification theory upon Facebook relating (Quan-Haase & Young, 2010), differences among perceived audiences and real audiences (Barnes, 2006; Stutzman, 2006), relationships between teachers and students (Mazer, Murphy & Simonds, 2007), friendships among teenagers (Lenhart & Madden, 2007), maintaining interpersonal relationships as a maximum attraction point (Donath, 2007; Ellison, Steinfield & Lampe, 2007; Tufekci, 2008; Baym & Ledbetter, 2009), the impact of social networks such as Facebook in terms of organization (Balagué & Fayon, 2010), the construction of online identities (Tinnell, 2014; Barba, 2014; Wessels, 2012; Davis, 2012; Jin, 2013; Goode, 2010; Macek, 2013; Schandorf, 2013; De Luna, 2011; Buffardi & Campbell, 2008; Kramer & Winter, 2008; Walther et al., 2008, 2009 etc.

The studies on the patterns of using Facebook suggest that this is used mainly to keep in touch with offline friends and not to develop new relationships (Ellison, Steinfield & Lampe 2007). A study involving 2000 students concluded that Facebook is used by students for reasons related to social searching that implies learning new information about persons one knows offline and much less for social browsing that refers to using Facebook to establish new contacts. Most of the students answered that they use Facebook "to stay connected with old friends or with persons they met during high-school" (Lampe, Ellison & Steinfield, 2006, p. 168).

Ellison, Steinfield and Lampe (2007) obtained similar results indicating that students use Facebook to maintain preexisting close relationships (bonding social capital) and to stay in touch with various colleagues and acquaintances from high-school (maintaining social capital). Regarding the maintenance of social capital, Ellison, Steinfield and Lampe highlight the fact that Facebook ensures the relatively easy maintenance of contacts by the constant updating and viewing of information related to friends' activities, important events in their life etc. Concerning the maintenance of the social capital, the authors emphasize that Facebook allows users to maintain weak ties with known persons that may turn, in time, into sources of information or valuable resources. As a conclusion, it has been highlighted that Facebook fulfills an important social function that aims at facilitating the maintenance of connections with offline friends or acquaintances, both the close and the distant ones.

Facebook offers the possibility of increased social contact by a process called "friending", by means of which users create personal profiles and accumulate friends through mutual acceptance. Creating and maintaining friends has proved particularly important for young people, but in the literature there is considerable debate on the value of the often weak

relationships existing between the members of online social networks. In this respect, Jane Lewis and Anne West (2009) conducted a study in the UK during which 16 students from the second and third year were interviewed, students that owned a Facebook account ever since Facebook was launched in all UK universities, in October 2005. According to Jane Lewis and Anne West (2009), most of the researches focused upon social networking sites are North-American and quantitative in nature. The qualitative studies of Danah Boyd (2006, 2007) and Sonia Livingstone (2008) represent exceptions from this perspective. The emphasis was mainly lied upon "the matrices of preexisting social contacts" (Licoppe, 2004) and upon the "culture of friending" (Boyd, 2006), so that the present study may be regarded as a step forward by its exploratory and qualitative nature.

As Boyd (2006) observed, it is difficult to evaluate the weight of these relations or the metrics used in accepting or rejecting a friendship request, therefore, the lists of friends may contain a wide range of relations starting from the closest and ending with the least close relations. At this level, the research focused upon the way in which social and personal networks are organized in clusters. For example, McCarty (2002) revealed the fact that individuals have an average of six types of clusters; these groups include family, neighbors, current job acquaintances, previous job acquaintances, friends from school and friends from the networks of other persons. On Facebook, all these categories have been initially leveled to a single one designated through the notion of "friend" (Boyd, 2006).

Nevertheless, Facebook is significantly different from other types of computer-mediated communication and from other social networking sites as their users have been and still are dependent upon the geographic distribution to a large extent and because they tend to know their friends before (Lewis & West, 2009). Facebook allows interrelating in a variety of ways and makes up for other means of communicating with friends – offline communication, face-to-face or on the phone, supporting connections with persons that cannot be met on a regular basis and facilitating an open contact to find out relevant information on what the others in the network are doing without necessarily starting a direct communication with these. Adopting new communication technologies has raised, in time, serious problems related to their harmful effects upon the quality of interpersonal relationships. The occurrence of Facebook is no exception from this trend (Henry, 2007; Tilsner, 2008). Despite these reserves, empirical research has shown that Facebook communicational processes have healthy communicational results. Thus, Ellison, Steinfield and Lampe (2007, p. 1165) found that Facebook supports the building of social capital – "the online interactions do not divert individuals from their offline world unconditionally, but may become a support for relationships and for helping people stay in touch, even when the changes in their lives lead them far from one another". Other recent studies highlighted the fact that Facebook connects individuals despite establishing relationships on a local level or over a larger distance (Hargittai, 2007).

However, although there are numerous proofs according to which Facebook use causes positive relational results, this does not apply to all Facebook users. Certain motivations for resorting to online communication, such as social anxiety in offline contexts, may generate certain interpersonal online communication patterns that may cause harmful psycho-social results. According to Ledbetter et al. (2010), a neutral approach to Facebook communication should take into consideration both the positive, constructive results and the negative, pathological effects of using social networking sites.

Similarity issues

The issue of similarity occupies a privileged place in social sciences as many empirical studies have highlighted, in time, direct connections with other concepts of a major scientific interest: similarity – interpersonal attraction, similarity – social trust (credibility), similarity – group cohesion, similarity – conformity, similarity – social prestige, similarity – socio-economic status, similarity – persuasion etc. In this respect, researchers have systematically tried to test in various experimental contexts hypostases that may lead to the conceptual and multidisciplinary development of similarity. Whereas certain theorists have initiated new, daring hypotheses, others have chosen to reiterate previous methodological paths with a view to validating, respectively invalidating, the results obtained by their precursors.

From the perspective of cognitive psychology, similarity designates the psychological closeness or proximity between two representations – the smaller the mental distance between two concepts, the higher the similarity between them (Shepard, 1962, p. 126). Transferring the angle of analysis upon social psychology, similarity was and is defined as the high degree of correspondence between the personality, attitudes, values and interests of individuals. Moreover, experimental researches have shown that many forms of similarity are reified for determining the positive relationships among people: similarity of opinions, of interpersonal styles, of communication abilities, of socio-economic foundations, of physical aspect etc (Byrne, 1971).

Purpose and hypotheses of the study

Within this interpretative frame, the paper aims at outlining and investigating five complementary and interconnected elements / hypostases of similarity that have the potential to turn into investigation areas for the typology of interpersonal relationships: similarity as a condition (referring to the physical and psycho-social attributes of the individual as premises for identifying similarity), similarity as a context (referring to the contextual data that support the identification and accentuation of previously identified similarity), similarity as a catalyzer (referring to the amplifying impact of perceived similarity upon interpersonal attractiveness), similarity as a consequence (referring to the similarity derived from group and intergroup processes – cohesion and conformity) and similarity as a connection (referring to the emergence of some new areas of similarity between individuals situated at a distance in terms of space and culture that share, nevertheless, common interests and preoccupations, brought to the fore by modern communication technologies).

The main hypothesis lying at the basis of the research was that the configuration of similarity among the members of a community is the expression of the areas of similarity prefigured and assumed in the offline environment. In other words, the online environment objectified in the form of the social network Facebook reiterates within emerging or existing communities the hypostases of similarities regulated by and through direct interaction, by direct interpersonal communication, by unmediated discovery and knowledge. In fact, the basic role of virtual communities from an interpersonal perspective is that of maintaining and augmenting interaction, respectively communication among those that also interrelate constantly in the offline environment, that is, within classic communities.

Operationalizing the central hypothesis on the five dimensions of similarity, the specific hypotheses may be formulated as follows:

H1. Similarity – condition: Within virtual communities, constant interaction and communication among the members relies on the similarity of interests, activities, preferences that are revealed and assumed by the individuals in the offline environment.

H2. Similarity – context: The interaction and communication among the members of a virtual community represent a projection in the online environment of the offline interrelating contexts.

H3. Similarity – catalyst: In the virtual environment, similarity (the perception of similarity) on a certain level triggers, through a halo effect, the perception of several levels of similarity.

H4. Similarity – consequence: Within virtual communities, similarity (the perception of similarity) among individuals acts towards maintaining the group conformity and cohesion from the offline environment.

H5. Similarity – connection: Virtual communities act particularly towards maintaining or highlighting similarity with close but distant friends and not towards exploring similarity with unknown individuals.

Method

Participants

Fourteen students from a Romanian communication college participated to the study. The selection of students as participants to the study was determined by two main reasons: (1) to test the hypotheses by investigating the approach of the largest category of Facebook users (2) to conduct the interviews with students who initially did not have a Facebook account and were willing to make one. The participants were selected using a pre-test for identifying student without Facebook accounts. Two main criteria of selection were followed: (1) respondents should have consented to share their account personal information and facts with the researcher during the investigation process and (2) respondents should have agreed not to talk about the investigation with their Facebook contacts. The sample comprised individuals aged between 19 and 23 (8 females and 6 males).

Procedure

The research aimed at investigating the main forms of similarity among the members the online social network Facebook and relied on the sociological interview-based inquiry. Using the interview in scientific research has several purposes. First of all, the exploratory purpose of identifying the variables and the relations among the variables – with the help of interviews,

the information obtained being able to further guide the research upon psychological and sociological phenomena. Secondly, the interview may constitute the main tool for collecting data with a view to testing hypotheses. In this case, each question represents an item in the structure of the measuring tool.

The interviews took place at the communication college and were conducted during December 2013 – May 2014. Questions were posed in a relaxed informal manner so that the interview appeared more like a discussion or conversation. In order to test the formulated hypotheses, the current research was based on an intensive, thorough interview able to substantiate a pertinent qualitative research (the main criterion being the quality of the information). Each of the fourteen subjects has been interviewed twice (the criterion for selecting the moments being the period of existence of the Facebook account – three months and six months after creating a Facebook account), and the interviews lasted between forty minute and one hour, intervals that allowed the highlighting of the deep structures.

In terms of the continuum freedom – rigidity, the design of the interview was characterized by a reduced number of questions, a large amount of information, complex answers, centering on the interviewed person with possibilities of repeating the meeting (Chelcea, 2004, p. 304). There were indicated the theme of the interview and several major coordinates of the formulated questions were predefined: the criteria for choosing friends on Facebook, the typologies of friends from the virtual communities supported by Facebook, the nature and frequency of communication with each typology of friends, the motivations that underlined the communicational attitudes and the effects on the relational and communicational level of Facebook interaction.

Starting from these considerations and following the typology proposed by Ghiglione and Matalon (cited in Chelcea, 2004, p. 306), the inquiry relied on a semi-directive, thorough interview, centered on the person but aiming only at one aspect, a phenomenon or an element, not the person as a whole. Also, the interviews conducted may be regarded as semi-structured, having a higher level of validity than the structured ones – approaching previously established themes and hypotheses, but allowing for the highlighting of the relevant elements, the structure of the situation and the action models. A rough interview guide was made, indicating the major issues to be approached in the discussion focusing upon the subjective experience of getting involved in the analyzed situation. For each theme included in the interview, factual and opinion questions were formulated regarding the activity of the subjects within the online social network Facebook (please see the Appendix).

The sociological interview-based inquiry was corroborated with the method of online social networks analysis, which was liable to provide a pertinent view of the configuration of similarity within virtual communities. The analysis of online social networks referred to the study of the online social structure and of its effects in terms of a set of actors (nodes) and a set of relationships that connect actors and the pairs of actors (D'Andrea, Ferri & Grifoni, 2010, p. 14). The analysis allowed "to determine whether an online social network is closely tied, diversified or well bound, to identify its density and intensity and to study the way in which the behavior of the network members may be affected by their positions and connections" (Scott, 2000, p. 961). The objects observed were not mainly the members themselves and their attributes but the relations among members and the relational structure. The advantage of such a representation is that it facilitates the analysis of certain social processes as a product of the connections among social actors.

The collection of data consisted of three different steps (D'Andrea, Ferri & Grifoni, 2010, p. 10). The first step consists in analyzing the connections between each actor of the virtual social network and all the other actors. The second step consists in determining certain subgroups and whether the roles that each actor plays have an impact upon the online social network. The last step resided in studying the overall characteristics of the online social network. The focus is particularly upon the size of the network, in terms of density or interconnectivity, from the perspective of the number of connections within the network as a percentage from the total of possible connections. All these steps imply that each actor from the network may answer questions about each other actor from the online social network.

Data visualization was facilitated by means of graphs with nodes and connections, and the numbers from each cell represent characteristic relations among these values, matrices, where the rows and columns designate the actors and their characteristics or hybrid approaches (that combine all the three forms mentioned) (Caschera, Ferri & Grifoni, 2008).

An important issue was to determine the groups within complex social networks, the cliques (Ortiz-Arroyo, 2010) or clusters (Drazdilova et al., 2010). Groups are separate collectivities of individuals connected to one another by a certain type of relationship or interaction. Within a group, members have different positions – some of them occupying central positions, others remaining in the periphery and the rest being somewhere between the two categories. A group may have one or several key actors (players). Given the fact that the algorithms of clustering used today are much too complex, there began to be developed specialized software that may be able to manage efficiently the entered data, marking the areas of similarity by applying a partitioning coefficient of clusters according to similarity (Gueret, 2010, p. 286).

Findings

The first interviews were meant to gather information about the initial friends who are included in a newly created online social network on Facebook. To this end, participants were interviewed three months after creating their Facebook account. As the respondents reported, the average number of friends was 112 while for 12 out of 14 participants, most of their friends were of the same gender. For example, Andrei (21 years old) had 106 friends, most of them (91) males. When asked if gender distribution was random or if there were any clear reasons for this configuration, the answer was – “I have introduced in my Facebook list my best friends, those that I get along with very well, that I go out and have fun with and that are, obviously, boys. The girls from Facebook are friends and acquaintances that I like for various reasons, school mates, friends from high-school etc”. The reiteration of the question in the second interview – that lasted for almost fifty minutes (six months after the account had been created) – highlighted a rather similar situation. Andrei had 182 friends on Facebook, 142 boys and the rest of them girls. Mentioning the topic of his friends' gender distribution followed the same lines – “It is simple to explain why most of my friends are boys – it is with them that I have the most things in common, they are my bodies, those that I go to parties with, with whom I go and have a beer, see a movie, I feel good in their company and I am interested in staying in touch with them on Facebook if there is not enough time to talk when we meet or when there are strangers around. Just a few girls from my list are truly my friends and we go out together, the others are colleagues from the faculty or from the NGOs that I have collaborated with over the course of time, girls that I flirted with online because I did not want to approach them directly, ex girlfriends ...”.

The same situation was observed in Ana's (19 years old) case. At the time of the first interview, she mainly had girl friends (68 out of 117), the argument being that “girls are for friending, boys are for flirting, and too many boys would become a burden”. The rapport between girl and boy friends was quite similar when the second interview occurred, although the total number of friends increased to 173. As previously mentioned only two respondents reported a different situation, but the common pattern was that both male participants in the study were activists in a non-governmental organization with predominantly female members who were included ab initio in their personal Facebook network.

To sum up, the results show that the similarity as a condition occupies a very important part in choosing friends and in including them into personal online networks. The subjects consider from the start that they have most things in common with friends of the same gender, that they may have the most interesting and genuine communication and interrelation with the correspondent gender.

Analogously, the next questions highlighted the relevance of the age and of the socio-professional status within the similarity as a condition framework. As all the respondents mentioned, most of their friends had ages between 19 and 24, and were students. If during the first three months of the Facebook account, there were few friends outside this age interval, at the time of the second interview, their number increased but in an insignificant manner. According to the subjects' statements, these new friends have been met during volunteering projects, among the university tutors or among acquaintances from other specialized online social networks. It is worth remarking, at this level, the fact that the respondents' attention was focused firstly on friends with similar ages and with the same socio-professional status, the basic premise being the fact that the persons in this category are also those that they share the most common interests with. In other words, the similarity as a condition dimension included a fourth element, the similarity of interests.

Shifting the attention towards similarity as a catalyzer, the investigation proceeded with the analysis of the perceived similarity which potentiates interpersonal connections by enhancing interpersonal attraction. At this point, the following interview questions were designed to address this perspective on similarity. Thus, the fifth item from the interview guide aimed at highlighting the subject's interests and hobbies.

Focusing on Oana's example (22 years old) which is majorly indicative of the other cases, several coordinates may be traced. Within the first interview, Oana mentioned three major areas of interest – urban art, public relations and organizational culture – and two main hobbies – music and films. At the second interview (conducted three months later), the hobbies remained the same whereas the interests had been redefined – urban art, volunteering and public relations. Although the register was largely the same, the fact that organizational culture no longer constituted for Oana a primary field occasioned a novel approach within the second interview. The question was whether there was any link between shifting her interests and the communication with friends who subscribed to the previous area of interest (organizational culture). In this regard, a cogent aspect was underlined – a change in interests (namely a change at the similarity as a condition level) brought about a change in the permanence and consistency of communication with friends sharing the respective interest. Oana claimed that she had gradually stopped initiating conversations with her group of friends who

were focused on the organizational culture dynamics, giving more and more time to discussions with the volunteers she was collaborating with. In other words, a directly proportional relation between the importance given to a certain interest and the communication with the associated individuals may be observed at this point.

For the sixth question – “On what criteria do you initiate a friend request on Facebook?”, the subjects’ answers were evocative of the similarity dimensions, to the extent in which all the five hypostases of similarity have been highlighted. Almost in every case, the initiation of friendship requests was mainly done in the first three months and was aimed at the offline friends that the subjects wanted to have as Facebook friends and communication partners. It happened similarly with the friendship requests – these came from offline close friends, from faculty colleagues, former high-school colleagues and friends from the native towns. After the first three months, the main form of including new friends into the Facebook list was accepting friendship requests from friends met during new activities conducted in the offline environment and from persons unknown from direct interaction, but who shared the same interests and hobbies. Participants also initiated friendship requests with a view to establishing Facebook friendship with some of the friends of their friends, met or heard of during direct encounters. For example, as Alina (21 years old) mentioned. “my community especially gathers my dearest friends and then their dearest friends and so on. Of course, as I have been meeting new people during the past three months, I considered it natural to make them part of my online network. It is easier to develop our relations both virtually and physically”. Also, Razvan (22 years old) added that “in the past months, I initiated and accepted friendship requests to and from some of my team mates. Since I joined a handball team two months ago, I have been interested in discovering more about the other players and the best way to do it was searching through their Facebook profiles”. At his turn, Andrei voiced a common pattern among the respondents, namely the inclusion of friends from other online specialized networks into their virtual communities – “as the new faces are concerned, most of them are poker players with whom I use to play on Poker Stars platform. I am mainly interested in knowing better the winners of different tournaments, in finding out more about their lives and hobbies by searching through their Facebook profiles”.

Synthesizing, the architecture of the personal online social networks relied to a great extent on that of the classic communities. The members of these networks are generally the subjects’ offline friends, selected according to criteria derived from the similarity as a condition dimension (age, gender, socio-professional status, interests, activities etc). Then, similarity as a context becomes a milestone for the network reinforcement as the individuals’ attendance to certain formal contexts (the faculty, a NGO etc), respectively informal (the neighborhood, volunteering, hobbies) redirects their attention to the novel acquaintances. Each thematic event or interactional frame puts similar people into contact, potentiating their interest to intensify their communication and the need to expand the interaction in the virtual world as well.

The process of conferring the quality of a Facebook friend to persons that are unknown directly but share the same passion for online poker reveals both the role of similarity as a catalyzer and that of similarity as a connection. The virtual environment facilitates the creation of certain links among persons from other cultures and of other nationalities but based on a common interest that is relevant for both parties. The common hobby involves the perception of a new dimension of similarity so that including the game partner from a specialized online network looks like a natural thing to do. Not least, the fact that the interviewed students chose to include in his Facebook list friends of friends highlighted the issue of the similarity as a consequence, a form of consolidating the links with the group of belonging with a view to reinforce the cohesion by multiplying and developing the relations among its members.

In order to relieve the features of the personal online social networks, the seventh question – “What category do most of your friends fall into?” – addressed the configuration of the respondents’ communities. At this level, Andrei’s example is indicative of the overall cases. If after the first three months the Facebook list of friends contained only the friends that Andrei interacted with directly and frequently, and close friends that were far away (in the native town, in other universities from Romania or from around the world), during the second interview there were also mentioned the category of new friends that the subject tried to get to know better through Facebook and the category of friends that were met only virtually. However, though two new categories of friends appeared, the previous categories prevailed in terms of the friends number, most of Andrei’s Facebook friends remaining the ones with whom he interacts directly and regularly (close childhood friends that are still in Bucharest, faculty mates that the subject has closer relationships with etc). The motivation behind this configuration is expressed clearly by the subject – “I want to be surrounded on Facebook by the closest people in my life, by my most important friends. In fact, this is the role of Facebook, to give us the possibility to stay in touch when we cannot meet or when we want to announce something important without having to make a hundred phones calls. The event is announced and who is in favor answers by attending the party or any other type of activity. The signals on Facebook are 90% for those that we can meet with anytime, although I don’t mind if distant friends or friends that are too busy may also find out the news”.

To gain a more pertinent perspective upon the main clusters from the virtual community of Andrei, the method of online social networks analysis was used, highlighting several cogent aspects: the dimension and the nature of subgroups within the community, the direct friends (marked with 0) versus the friends of friends (marked with 1), the connections among the direct friends and the friends accepted by Andrei within his community or through direct friends (marked with red interrupted arrows), the numerical hierarchy of friends and the evolution of the network from the first to the second interview.

Analyzing the architecture of Andrei's community from the two moments we may notice, first of all, the evolution of the number of clusters from eight to eleven (there are three new clusters, respectively the cluster formed of the friends from the specialized online network Poker Stars, of the NGOs collaborators and of the university tutors). Secondly, by reorienting the interest towards other areas of activity (volunteering and online poker), the clusters associated with previous interests have remained the same in terms of numbers (see the groups of friends met during activities dedicated to extreme sports and marketing). Thirdly, two clusters have experienced a significant evolution – the group of faculty colleagues (from 37 to 89 members) and the group of current neighbors (from 5 to 16 members). The explanation is simple since during the three months interval between the two interviews, Andrei had the necessary time to make new offline friends at the faculty and also in the area where he lived in Bucharest. These friends have been subsequently integrated in his virtual community from the Facebook network. Not least, it should be noticed the fact that the number of friends of a secondary level (friends of friends), assumed by Andrei as his own friends grew five times in three months (from 7 to 35 friends). This evolution may be explained from the perspective of the similarity as a catalyzer and of the similarity as a consequence – meeting directly some of his friends' friends has allowed Andrei to discover certain areas of similarity that have turned into the basis for new connections both in the offline and the online environment. Thus, the expansion of the social capital is the result of a process of direct knowledge and assumption of the similarity discovered within virtual interrelating (as seen in the table and figures below).

Table 1. Summarization of the number of friends by categories

Typology of friends	Interview 1		Interview 2	
	(direct friends)	(friends of friends)	(total of friends)	(total of friends)
Faculty colleagues	37	0	37	89
High-school colleagues	26	0	26	27
Current neighbors	5	0	5	16
Native town neighbors	15	0	15	17
Sport friends	5	3	8	8
Public relations friends	5	3	8	8
Marketing Friends	4	1	5	5
Online Poker friends	-	-	-	5
University tutors	-	-	-	2
NGOs collaborators	-	-	-	3
Ex-girlfriends	2	0	2	2
Total	99	7	106	182

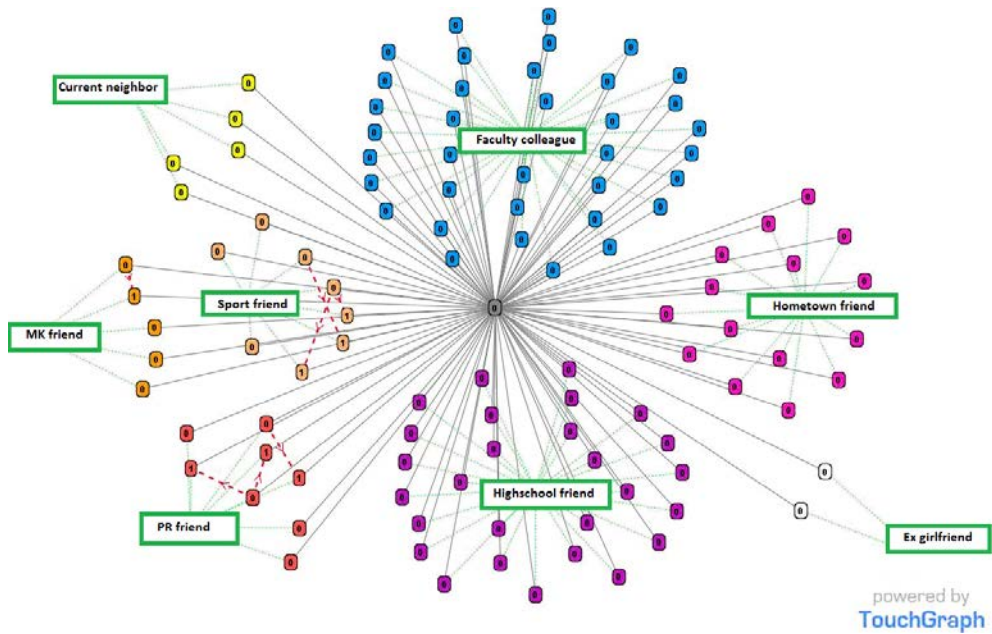


Figure 1. The architecture of the online social network at the moment of the first interview

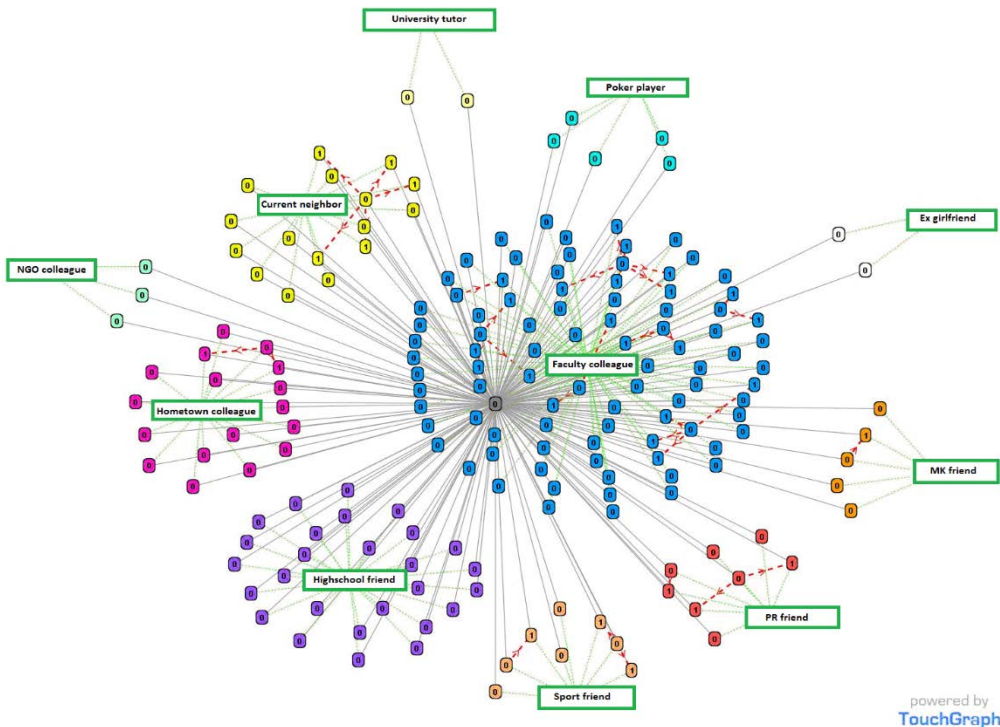


Figure 2. The architecture of the online social network at the moment of the second interview

The eighth question – “Which of your friends do you communicate with most frequently and for the longest time on Facebook?” – also highlighted the categories of friends that prevail in terms of number of individuals. In almost all cases, the participants in the study communicate most frequently with the close friends they interact with directly on a regular basis. In terms of duration, they communicate most with old friends that are away for a certain period of time. The conversation topics with the first category rely on discussing about opinions and the activities that they took part in together (meetings, parties, conferences etc), about the persons they know, about faculty related issues etc, whereas discussions with the second category of friends focus on sharing experiences, soul problems, major dilemmas. At this level, it is revealed the fact that friendships established in the distant past, based either on the similarity as a condition or on the similarity as a context are those that prevail from the communicational perspective. Such relationships have a particular essence that is extrapolated from the offline environment towards the online social networks. As Mara (19 years old) mentioned, “rarely have I talked about my deep feelings with new friends from Facebook. There are things which cannot be shared with others, except for my childhood bodies.”. Consistent with this perspective, Radu (22 years old) posited that “the time spent with my Facebook friends depends on the issues to be debated. Sometimes, we have school tasks to discuss, other times, we plan spare time activities and hangouts. Still, I use to spend more time solving heart dilemmas with my best pals from highschool.”.

The next question – “What are, according to you, the advantages of Facebook communication as compared to communication on other online social networks?” - took into consideration both the synchronous communication by means of the live chat and the asynchronous communication by means of the comments posted on the personal wall or on that of friends. From this perspective, Oana mentioned several aspects that place communication on Facebook in front of the communication from other online social networks: first of all, Facebook provides simultaneously the opportunity of communicating privately and publicly according to the particularities of the situation; secondly, friends may express their opinions regarding numerous aspects that may be seen by the entire community – from commenting upon photos or status updates to endless wall messages; not least, on Facebook everything communicates – the photos, the comments, the information available on the user’s profile etc.

From a bird’s-eye view, it should be mentioned that the answers provided by respondents to the eighth and the ninth questions within the two interviews have reflected the same perception upon reality, the interview conducted after six months reiterating the opinions presented three months earlier. Moreover, due to the similarity of answers given by the subject during the two interviews and the absence of future mutations, the presentation of the statements on succeeding items will be done in a corroborated and not comparative manner.

Most of the participants’ answers to the tenth question – “Did you ever join a group because your friends were already part of the respective group?” were negative, but additional questions revealed the fact that subjects preferred to initiate certain individualized contacts with persons from their friends’ groups, with the so-called friends of friends who, for various reasons, looked similar. As Andre stated, 35 from his Facebook list of friends were, in fact, acquaintances with whom he interacted directly as friends of his friends and to whom the subject sent friendship requests with a view to establishing unmediated connections. In this respect, the similarity as a consequence was a result of the similarity as a catalyzer. In other words, Andrei extended the similarity assumed in the relationship with his friends to his friends’ friends also.

The eleventh question – “Do you consider that Facebook helps you in developing your relationships with a certain category of friends?” – highlighted once again the relevance of the similarity as a catalyzer. Thus, according to Mara, Facebook helps particularly in developing relationships with faculty colleagues due to the opportunity of discussing upon various subjects that are not related to the faculty, topics meant to facilitate mutual discovery and knowledge that may also highlight other similar dimensions in terms of personality, attitudes, behaviors, beliefs etc. Also, Facebook helps in developing relationships with friends met through certain specialized online networks such as poker sites (Poker Stars, Full Tilt Poker), by sharing experience or by discussing post-factum upon certain situations experienced during the games, according to Andrei’s point of view. On the contrary, Facebook has no major impact upon developing relationships with childhood friends that are either far away or close. In this case, the role of Facebook is to maintain the communication channel open, the friendship connections being already closely tied.

The twelfth question – “What determines you to include in your list of friends a person that you have not yet met by direct interaction” – resumed, tangentially, certain aspects assumed by the preceding items, confirming the importance of similarity as a connection understood as similarity as a condition objectified in the virtual environment. The link between the interviewed students and persons unknown directly but that appear in their Facebook list was represented by the common passions, hobbies and interests. Hereby, a shared preference, relevant for both parties, constitutes a necessary

and sufficient condition to bind a relation of friendship in the online environment, although, as Radu admits, only a small part of his Facebook friends are included in this category.

Analogously, the thirteenth question – “What determines you to communicate with this person frequently although you have not yet had the chance of meeting him directly?” – gradates the overall problem. According to Andrei, communication with these friends relies on their common interest or passion – “The communication with friends that he plays online poker with and that refers to the experience lived and acquired during the games is essential. If you know how to make use of such information, you may become better at what you like”. Therefore, obtaining useful, often captivating information from more experienced persons becomes a motivating factor for the constant initiation of communication, the similarity as a connection based on sharing passions ensuring the coherence of interaction.

To a certain extent, friendships among individuals both in the offline and the online environment do not rely on a summation of the similarity areas, but on the degree of relevance attached to each area by each subject. The common interest in or passion for certain fields of activity may be only occasionally more important than the similarity of age, social gender, socio-professional status. Also, the desire to avoid conflicts and, implicitly, to preserve the groups' approbation and validation (similarity as a consequence) may act as a suppressive factor in accepting friendships with a conflicting potential.

The last question – “What would be, according to you, the profile of a friend impossible to accept on Facebook” – completes the perspectives proposed by the previous items. As a common pattern, most of the subjects described the impossible friend to accept as opposite to themselves (without being aware of this). At this level, Andrei's response is indicative of the general approach on this matter – “The friend that is impossible to accept is somebody I have nothing in common with, that attacks unconditionally and is never satisfied by anyone”. In other words, an individual that he would not accept on Facebook is a person with whom he shares no characteristic from the similarity as condition and similarity as a context dimensions, a person that would elude any principle of the similarity as a consequence (social validation, cohesion, group conformity), a person that would act as an obstacle for the emergence of the similarity as a catalyzer.

Discussion and conclusions

Investigating the Facebook online social networks has revealed the configuration of the various hypostases of similarity in the virtual environment. Moreover, the answers to the interview questions validated the main hypothesis and the five secondary hypotheses of the research. According to the findings, the emerging or existing communities on Facebook reiterate the design of the existing similarity from the physical communities, maintaining and enhancing interaction, respectively the communication among those that constantly interact within the offline environment.

Focusing upon the relations established in the offline environment, through direct interaction, the main dimensions updated in the online environment are also those influencing or determining the close connections from the physical reality: similarity as a condition, similarity as a context, similarity as a catalyzer and similarity as a consequence. All these elements are also extrapolated within virtual communities, the latter projecting and amplifying the similarity among individuals through communication, social co-presence, mutual exposure, sharing.

In this respect, a new concept may be advanced in order to explain the constitutive and functional basics of the Facebook online social networks – the concept of “projected communities”. The projected communities are ambivalent in nature, as they represent a projection of the offline social networks in the virtual environment, and, at the same time, they stand for an individual project, as he is fully free to include or exclude friends in and from his virtual group.

It should be noted that, on this level, the only hypostasis of similarity, organically associated with the opportunities offered by the virtual environment (similarity as a connection) does not occupy a crucial place in expanding the social capital from the online social networks. The items focused upon the testing of the similarity as a connection have revealed the fact that this does not constitute an important factor of forming connections and of interrelating in the online environment, on the contrary, in an eventual hierarchy of elements, the similarity as a connection would occupy the last position in terms of the relevance or of the degree of impact upon the crystallization of friendships. Generally, the subjects are only slightly interested in initiating contacts and establishing new relationships on Facebook, their attention being focused upon maintaining and developing the relationships that have already been established based on such criteria as: the similarity of socio-professional statuses, of the socio-economic environments, of opinions, beliefs, activities, formal and informal contexts etc.

In this light, the similarity as a connection is invested with signification, with the meaning of similarity as a condition unaffected by spatial restrictions. According to the results of the research, subjects accepted friendship requests or initiated

friendship requests after having viewed the information from the profile of a certain person, after having analyzed the basic information (for example, age, social gender, address) and the information referring to interests and preferences, education and job etc. Also, including an unknown individual directly in one's online network was the result of sharing certain common interests, highly relevant for both parties (the status of member in certain specialized online social networks) or common hobbies (the passion for interactive games, for example). At this level, the similarity as a condition is outweighed by the similarity as a catalyzer that multiplies and amplifies the initial areas of similarity.

In conclusion, as a social networking site, Facebook is particularly used for reasons related to social documentation (social searching) and maintaining preexisting close relationships (bonding social capital) that imply knowledge of new information about persons met offline, and less for social exploration (social browsing) that refers to using Facebook to initiate new contacts. Moreover, the most important contribution of this online social network is related to two central dimensions: the opportunity of developing the relationships crystallized in the offline environment in multivalent ways and of maintaining the communication channels open with friends from the offline environment that are away or that, due to limited time, do not have the possibility to interact directly constantly.

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APPENDIX

Interview guide

How many friends do you have on Facebook now?

What is the social type of most of your friends? Do you consider that this aspect is irrelevant or did you have clear reasons for such a choice?

What age interval do most of your friends fall within?

What are your interests and hobbies (give at least two of the most relevant for each category)?

On what criteria do you initiate a friendship request or do you accept a friendship request on Facebook?

What category do most of your friends fall into (former faculty colleagues, faculty colleagues, offline close friends that you frequently interact with directly, neighbors from your native town or from the hostel, persons you know only online etc)? Is there any motivation for the main percentage of this category?

Which of your friends do you communicate most frequently and for the longest time on Facebook? What do you usually discuss upon?

What are, in your opinion, the advantages of communicating on Facebook as compared to communicating on other online social networks?

Have you ever joined a group because many of your friends were already part of the respective group? Why?

Do you consider that Facebook helps in developing relationships with any of the categories of friends? If yes, with whom the most and with whom the least? What arguments can you give to support your opinion?

What determines you to include in your list of friends a person that you have not yet met by direct interaction?

What determines you to communicate with this person frequently although you have not yet had the chance of meeting him / her directly?

What would be, according to you, the profile of a friend impossible to accept on Facebook? Please mention five essential attributes.

How effective are the nutritional programs for schoolchildren in Romania?

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Abstract

The article assesses the analysis of the two European nutrition schemes in schools (milk and fruit) and how their implementation has contributed to the achievement of the specific objectives set for both programs, but also on the extent to which they can be used as support tools for children coming from poor families or for sustaining nutritional policies for schoolchildren. It provides a review of the evaluation reports of the European subsidizing programs for nutrition in schools (The European schemes for milk and fruit and vegetables) in schools and uses the main findings of the last evaluation of the main Romanian nutritional programme (Role and milk). The article shows that the deficiencies identified for the European nutritional schemes are even pronounced at national level, mainly because of the lack of any strategically approach. The article ends with a proposal for an alternative for the development of a nutritional program adequate for better positioning within the scope of a strategy aiming at reducing the obesity and excessive weight.

Keywords: school food policy, nutritional policies, children obesity and excessive weight, socially disadvantaged children.

Introduction

The first measure targeting to provide a nutritional support for schoolchildren was implemented in Romania starting 2002 under the name "Role and Milk" (Corn și Lapte). The programs reach all children attending different forms of pre-university education, the European legislation including high-school education as eligible since 2008, while most Member States provide access to children in pre-school, primary or secondary (lower secondary) education, same as Romania, which excludes however from the program also some schools that offer alternative dining programs, such as extended-day program kindergartens. In 2009 a new component have been added by providing fresh fruits to pupils.

Although it has an enormous potential for supporting a nutritional policy targeting schoolchildren, the programme still lack in identity and strategically approach and is weakly consistent with the objectives of the European schemes that co-financing the programme and provides a common framework of implementation at European level.

Defining elements of the European nutritional schemes targeting schoolchildren

The European schemes for milk and fruit in schools are two European programs with voluntary participation of the Member States, and receiving funding from the EU budget. Both schemes have similar objectives, aiming a) to support specific markets and contributing to the price stabilization for milk and milk by-products, namely fruit and vegetables and b) to increase the consumption of such products among children and youth by easier access to healthy food. Other significant changes made in 2008 are related to enhancing the educational component, more obviously in case of the fruit scheme, which since its inception has focused on the healthier nutritional behavior among children. Moreover, the fruit scheme explicitly stipulates mandatory implementation of educational activities, which still are not subsidized, being optional for the milk scheme. Another difference of the fruit scheme is that the products are distributed free of charge, the necessary budget differences for the procurement being borne by the participating states. The milk scheme allows free or low-cost distribution for the products.

European School Milk Scheme

The European School Milk Scheme is an EU program initiated in 1977 and aiming to support milk producers by encouraging milk consumption among children and young people and promoting a healthy diet. At first, the program focused on its

primary objective, but its subsequent successive amendments emphasized the educational component. As a matter of fact, at European level, the impact of the program judging from the objective of stimulating milk market is negligible, the amount of milk distributed by the program being in average 0.3% of the total amount of milk produced in Europe (2013). In Romania, the program has the largest share from local market among the European countries, the program ensuring the acquisition of 5.4% of the total milk production. The budget for the 2011-2012 school year was of 90 million at European level. The subsidy is modest, covering between 10-15% from the direct cost of the milk (Germany and UK) to 25% in Poland (2013), the differences being justified by the national prices.

The total number of children taking part in the program in Europe knows significant variations generated by the changes of the eligibility conditions within the states with a large number of school children (e.g. France, Italy, and Poland). From 21 million children in 2008-2009, the number of schoolchildren in the program dropped to 17.2 million in 2010-2011, and rising to 20 million in the 2011-2012 school year (2013). There is no limit for the subsidy coming from the EU budget, the amount of funding being conditioned only by the maximum number of children eligible for taking part in the program. At European level, 23% of the milk is distributed free of charge (for all eligible schoolchildren in Romania, primary schools in Poland), 33% at low price (Germany, secondary schools in Poland), and 44% is distributed in school cafeterias such as an added supplement for the served meals (France, Italy and Sweden).

The European Court of Auditors Report (2011) states that the scheme has a very limited impact. Initially it was estimated that, on short term, the school milk scheme will increase milk consumption among young people, and in the long run it will influence consumer behaviour (including among family members of the beneficiary schoolchildren). Both forms of impact were not confirmed by subsequent assessments (1990, 1999, 2005¹, 2011), in 1999 (1999) the termination of the program was even proposed due to negative conclusions on the impact and the achieved results. The recommendation of the evaluation report in 1999 was based on the fact that the impact of the program on the milk market was insignificant (the program representing 0.3% of the total milk consumption in the beneficiary countries); lowering the milk price, including in relation to other types of beverages (juices, mineral water) was not associated with an increase in consumption, but rather with a decrease; the program was not accompanied by educational measures promoting the consumption of milk and a healthy nutritional style. The European Court of Auditors Report (2011) notes some improvements from the time of the evaluation in 1999, but it shows that most deficiencies persist in varying degrees. The report also shows that the results are satisfactory only in the countries where milk is distributed free of charge.

School Fruit Scheme

The School Fruit Scheme was implemented starting with the 2009-2010 school year having an annual budget of 90 million in Europe, with different national funding corresponding to the degree of development of the component regions, 75% being allocated to the convergence regions and 50% for the rest of the regions. The co-financing is provided by the Member States so that products are distributed free of charge to children. Unlike the milk scheme, the Member States are obliged to implement accompanying measures in order to ensure children and young people knowledge about healthy eating and the importance of fruit and vegetables consumption.

The impact on the fruit and vegetable market is much lower as for the milk scheme, the produced consumption rising to 0.06% (5 times lower than for the milk scheme). Within the 2010-2011 school year the scheme had 8.15 million beneficiary children, representing 25% of the total of eligible children for the program (2012). But the program is in its early stage of implementation, the absorption degree at European level of the available budget (90 million) being of 61.6% for the 2011-2012 school year. The national co-financing was approximately 40%, much lower compared to the milk scheme, although there are funds allocated for accompanying measures aiming education, which are estimated at 4.5% of the total amount spent on implementing the scheme. Romania has one of the lowest acquisition costs for the fruits distributed in schools, but the efficiency is also a result of the sporadic distribution. In countries where there is a higher frequency for the distribution of goods (3-5 times per week) the price significantly increases due to the higher share of logistics costs (transport, storage). Some of the deficiencies of the school milk scheme at European level were taken in consideration for the fruit scheme, leading to positive results in implementation, as shown by the results of an evaluation in 2012 ((2012). The main change occurred in managing the educational component, compulsory for the fruits and vegetable scheme which allow a better impact on promoting a healthy eating behaviour.

¹ The evaluation in 2005 was accomplished only in UK

The implementation of the European schemes in Romania

The "Role and Milk" Program runs under Law 6/2012 amending and supplementing the Government Emergency Ordinance 96/2002 on providing dairy and bakery products for schoolchildren between the 1st and the 8th grade in both private and public education system, and also preschool children in private and public kindergartens with 4 hours normal program. At first, the program reached children in primary and secondary school, and was expanded in 2009 also to early school education. The initial maximum limit was of 0.7 RON (about 0, 15 Euro) amended in 2008 up to 1.17 RON (0, 26 Euro), which should have covered both the bakery and the dairy products. While the 2002 and 2009 the law was allowing limited distribution of milk-based products (up to 33% of the maximum quantity), from 2012 the milk by-product is restricted to yogurt, distributed under the same maximum limit. This is a restriction that the European Commission does not impose, the distribution of by-products being possible under certain conditions concerning the content of milk or individualizing the product. Another restriction, but which reflects the intention to streamline the management of the program, refers to the accountability of the coordination within the county councils, respectively local councils for Bucharest's sectors. The funding of the program is also in charge of these institutions.

From the total grant covered by the EU, Romania is being allocated 12% (for the 2011-2012 school year), the received amount being of 8.29 million euros and partly covering the costs on dairy products distributed to children. The contribution of the Member States is voluntary and focuses on the quality or the quantity of products children receive. For Romania, in addition to the co-financing for dairy products, the national contribution also consists in bakery products, distributed along with the first ones. According to the dimension of the grant received from the EU budget, Romania demands one of the largest amounts (in absolute terms) together with Poland, France and Sweden, although it has a considerably smaller target group (school population covered by the program).

Romania reports the highest consumption per schoolchild, along with Sweden, Finland and Denmark. While in Romania the number of eligible school aged children for joining the program is of 1.95 million, in Poland it reaches 6.55 million and in France 13.59 million. By contrast, when speaking about the general population, Romania has, along with Bulgaria, the lowest amount of the annual milk consumption per-capita: almost 20 times less than Finland or Ireland, the countries with the highest consumption in Europe (about 140 kg per capita, annual average for the period 2000-2010). In what concerns cheese consumption reported to the same period, Romania ranks last among the EU27, with an annual consumption of about 5 kg per-capita, nearly 10 times less than in the countries with the highest consumption (Denmark, France, Italy).

Also for the fruit and vegetables scheme, Romania has about 12.7% of the beneficiary children within the participating states, after Spain with 12.9% and Italy with 16.5% (2012). For fruits, the maximum cost is lower than for the "Role and milk" program, the maximum amount reaching 0.37 RON / day for each schoolchild. Data of the evaluation report for fruit and vegetables scheme (2012) shows that Romania had in 2010, along with Cyprus and Greece, one of the highest quantities of fruit and vegetables consumed per capita. However, the daily consumption in Romania has the most significant decrease comparing to 2006 (almost 30%). Also, a particularity in Romania is the high rate of rural population ensuring their agricultural needs in their own household, so it is likely that the high share of fruits and vegetables consumption isn't the result of a modern nutritional style but that of practicing the subsistence agriculture with a high share of self-consumption in the total consumption.

Romania does not show any discordance at European level regarding the impact of the two schemes, the results being modest. A particularity should be mentioned, however. Although the trend in other European countries is for the program to position itself as one of encouraging healthy eating, in Romania it is rather perceived as the main support tool for poor children, although it has no strategic direction defined, other than the opportunity of accessing European resources, when talking about public policies. Therefore, the implementation is rather focused on logistical and administrative aspects and ignores the schoolchildren as main beneficiaries and their nutritional needs. However, one of the main source of inefficiency is in serving the products and the lack of adjustment / diversification to the requirements of the schoolchildren (Arpinte et al., 2009). However, the same evaluation showed that the "Roll and milk" program (implicitly the fruit scheme introduced after) is significant for children coming from poor families, especially for those whom their families cannot provide the nourishment need. Surprisingly, among with children from poor families, the poor children in rural areas represent a significant category for which the program means a main source of food, although is commonly known that in rural area even the poorest families are able to cover their minimal feeding needs.

Even if the program proves to be helpful for poor schoolchildren, periodically the policy makers propose different alternatives for changing the program, the main reason being the lack of interest of most schoolchildren (except the poor ones) for the

distributed products. The assessment report ([Arpinte et al., 2009](#)) shows that only a small proportion of the schoolchildren consume the dairy and bakery products, mostly because of their poor quality.

Policy options for the effective implementation of the two European schemes

Despite the deficiencies analysed above, some of them being common for the most participating countries, while other are specific at national level, the schemes have some incontestable advantages:

They are supported with EU subsidies – although the received funds from EU budget are not significant (for role and milk programme the subsidies cover about 20% of the cost of programme, but the share in the cost of the milk, the subsidized product, is even higher). By stopping the participation into the programmes are lost important resources for supporting a nutritional programme in schools regardless the way of the implementation (in current formula or developed as a more complex nutritional programme).

The schemes have an important awareness component, more emphasised for fruits and vegetables scheme, which might be further used as a tool for various nutritional awareness activities in schools that are deficient in the Romanian educational system.

They are supporting the milk and fruits markets, aspects that are more important in case of Romania than for other participating countries. If at European level the average of the milk used for the school scheme is about 0.3% from total market, in Romania represents about 5.4%.

However, implementing the programme in current formula (providing the products free of charge and addressing all eligible schoolchildren allowed) should be changed at strategically approach level. As explained above, the implementation of the schemes in Romania lacks in vision that negatively impact on final beneficiaries. From addressing schoolchildren belonging to poor families, the scheme are useful but inefficient considering that they addresses all school children, most of them not consuming the products. Therefore, the opportunity of using the schemes as a tool for promoting a healthy lifestyle and reducing the obesity is lost.

Alternatives for the development of an effective nutritional policy in schools

The importance of a school food policy targeting all children, and including adequate measures for including pupils belonging to socially vulnerable groups is demonstrated by various evaluations. Such programs have both a positive impact on improving the nutritional intakes of the all participating children and reducing the inequalities in diet for children from different social backgrounds ([Adamson et al., 2012](#), [He, 2012](#), [Hinrichs, 2010](#)).

Considering the actual needs, a possible alternative of nutritional policy for schoolchildren should be focused on:

Addressing all schoolchildren by promoting a healthy lifestyle through improving the existing schemes subsidized by EU funds (milk in schools and fruit and vegetables)

Developing an additional system for meals in schools addressing all schoolchildren, but free of charge only for children belonging to families with low incomes.

Addressing all schoolchildren by promoting a healthy lifestyle

An important category for the two nutritional schemes might be represented by children at risk of nutritional diet imbalance (mainly because of consumption of high calorie, but nutrient poor food products), their number increasing rapidly during the last years.

Data coming from WHO Initiative of child obesity surveillance in Europe for the 2007-2008 school year show that the prevalence of overweight (including obesity) among children aged 6 to 9 years included ranges between 19 and 49% in boys and 18 and 43% in girls within the 13 European countries where data were collected, Malta having the highest share, and Netherlands the lowest ([Wijnhoven et al., 2013](#)). WHO Initiative has expanded to the subsequent school years, with Romania part of the third wave (the 2012-2013 school year), the data being not yet available.

Although the common perception of poverty is associated with the lack of food, so children's access to European schemes would supplement such poor nutritional supply, a number of studies ([Branca et al., 2007](#), [Low, 2010](#)) show that obesity affects in a higher weight the poor, reducing their chances of social reintegration. In fact, WHO estimates that 75% of overweight or obese children will come from small and medium-income countries, where malnutrition will continue to affect

a significant proportion of children (Low, 2010). The objectives of the two schemes are related to the European strategy for nutrition, overweight, obesity and health related problems¹, showing that most of the health problems are associated with a poor, unbalanced diet. At European level, in 2007 it was estimated (Branca et al., 2007) that 22 million children are overweight (20%) of whom 5.1 million are obese (data don't include Bulgaria and Romania). WHO shows that the obesity prevalence is 10 times higher than in the '70s, and the projections for 2010 were showing almost three times increase in the number of obese children (15 million) (Branca et al., 2007). The effects of obesity are being felt on long-term. Overweight or obese children aged 3 to 8 years already have vascular lesions and are at risk of being victims of bullying or social isolation (McBride, 2010, Low, 2010). Other authors show that there is a double risk for obese children than for the normal weight children to deal with overweight as adults (Oude Luttikhuis et al., 2009).

The concerns of the public institutions for population's nutrition and diet, especially children's, are not enough clearly outlined in order to confirm the priority of the domain and the importance of the nutritional imbalances (malnutrition or obesity) problem and related health risks. An initiative is the Plan of action on food and nutrition developed by the National Food and Nutrition Committee, a document which is actually a draft of a potential strategy. The document recognizes the importance of nutrition and child feed, focusing on early age. The "Roll and milk" program is mentioned as a measure within the course of action aiming to reduce deficiencies of calcium, vitamin A, vitamin D, vitamin B complex. The brief legislative framework is represented by four pieces of legislation that regulate hygiene rules within the institutions for the care, education and training of children and youth (Order 1955 from October 18, 1995), the establishment of the National Food and Nutrition Committee (Order 687 from March 27, 2008), the list of un-recommended food products for children and teenagers and of the principles underlying on their healthy nutrition (Order 1563 from 2008) and healthy eating in pre-university education schools (Law 123 from 2008). Thus, except for the order 1563 from 2008, which stipulates a set of rules on child nutrition and lists food types that can't be sold or distributed in pre-university education schools, the legislation proves to be poor and insufficient for the regulation of a strategy on nutrition and food for children and teenagers. A major difficulty for a detailed strategic plan, addressed in a realistic manner, is the lack of data on diet habits and the prevalence of obesity in children.

Some measures for sustaining the strategic option should be considered:

increasing the role of school in choosing dairy products or fruits to distribute schoolchildren. This way, a better response to consumer preferences of schoolchildren is provided.

Assuring a flexible integration into complementary programs implemented in school.

differentiated approach depending on children's age (e.g., increasing the attractiveness of the packaging or content for younger children and in accordance with their consumption habits).

reviewing the approach of the nutritional supplement based on the latest recommendations coming from the nutritionists

Developing an additional system for meals in schools addressing all schoolchildren, but free of charge or provided at reduced price only for poor children

The most common proposals coming from the teachers (Arpinte et al., 2009) for reviewing the program aimed at improvement by providing the nutritional supplement exclusively to poor schoolchildren. Such option is budgetary affordable in the context of scarcity of the resources for the development of new social programs, but has a series of disadvantages, the most important ones being the difficulty of implementing the test meaning system for selecting the poor children and exposing the beneficiaries to potential prejudices. In this context, the most suitable solution is to provide a meal for all children, but free of charge or at a reduced price for children belonging to vulnerable groups. The main advantage for such option is that may become the main pillar for the nutritional policy targeting the children. However, the access differentiated, free of charge or at a reduced price for vulnerable pupils, is the most common practice in the other European countries. Excepting the Sweden and Finland, where the meal is provided free of charge for all schoolchildren, in the other countries (UK, France, Spain, Italy) where a meal is provided in schools, only poor pupils are entitled to receive the meal free of charge or at a reduced price (Clare Harper et al., 2008). For instance, in Italy the meal price is reduced by 25% for the children belonging to the families with low income (10.643 euro annually) or free of charge for families with incomes lower than 3.537 euro. Such differentiated system would eliminate some disadvantages associated to the alternative designed only for the poor pupils that may expose them to the risk of discrimination and prejudices. Also, it will keep the advantages

¹ COM (2007) 279 final. White paper on a strategy for Europe on nutrition, overweight and obesity related health issues

for supporting further policies aiming at reducing obesity and weight excess among schoolchildren and promoting a healthy lifestyle.

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A Research on Authority Relations in Organizations

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Abstract

This study aims to investigate employees' general attitude against the authority. It has been voiced for a few decades that management has been much more participative and employees have been more autonomous. This paper will discuss employees' reaction to authority in-between obedience and self-determination. For this aim, 46 employees from 5 different organizations were interviewed to get data and then it was analyzed. Results show that employees working in public sector obey much more to the authority. And high-skilled work force is more autonomous than low-skilled ones.

Introduction

One of the main issues of organizational life is authority relations and almost all of the managerial accounts are somewhat linked to this issue. Even it is viewed and analyzed from different perspectives, we generally see a consensual simple definition for the concept of authority when we glance at management and organization text books; "it's the right to give order" (Hatch, 1997; Daft, 1998, 2000). Though it sounds like a very ordinary statement; its "deconstruction" helps us to see a different phenomenon. The meaning of the phrase "giving order" mainly refers to the "act of command". On the other hand, it includes a second connotation transcending the primary meaning: it is the desire to give "order" that aims to overcome chaos, complexity and disorder. The will behind implementing authority rises on this desire. It seems that the homophony and overlap on the act of "giving order" makes visible the main controversial part of authority relations in the organizational environments which correspondingly positions processes and people in between two main polar.

On the one hand, an authority structure is usually seen to be a fundamental organizational answer to systemic needs for control and coordination; on the other hand, authority-obedience relations carry with them axiomatic possibilities of subjugation, loss of freedom and loss of self-direction (Limerick, 1976: 56; Barker, 2005). This represents one of the old tenses among organizational processes. And this paper aims to interrogate this issue from the view point of employees who do not have but controlled by authority.

People of our age are called as "organizational man" that refers to the reality in which human life is surrounded by organizations (Presthus, 1962; Whyte, 1956). This reality is associated with an historical period goes at least one century back. However, the last quarter of this period is generally characterized by some differentiated conditions that have eventually changed the nature of "organizational order" in which authority relations portray a different mode of being. What makes the new mode different from the former one basically lies under qualities of work, scope of competition and structural positions hold by both superiors and subordinates. It is believed that, since the last quarter of the 20th century, strict role differentiations and close control of superiors (who holds the authority) over subordinates (who are controlled by authority) have tended to be moderate so that subordinates are encouraged to involve in processes which, in turn, raises "participation and autonomy". It can be seen as a result of fact that authority relations created by solid hierarchical structures have been incompatible with zeitgeist.

Thus, in terms of the tense between control and freedom it can be read in many texts that, during the last few decades, game has developed in favor of the freedom. In other words, non-authority employees of recent times have been identified as much more free and autonomous. This implies that as long as participative management get stronger, authoritarian approaches and accordingly control and conformity more likely lose land. Namely, "organizational order" now corresponds to a new reality and, in turn, it entails a different authority mode enabling subordinates to participate much and to conform less. However, it still seems a matter of debate and claims on this direction don't sound too much realistic. Because, in general, the move towards participation in the workplace has shown greater diffusion at the level of principle than of practice

(Romme, 1997; Stewart and Manz, 1995; Wall, 1982). The purpose of this paper is, in a sense, taking authority relations under consideration to develop an insight about the attitudes of employees against the authority within the organization.

Thus, this study will attempt to answer the following questions; i) how employees react to authority?; ii) to what extent they feel freedom to act autonomously and to what extent they obey or resist to authority? These questions will help us to understand and analyze the attitudes of employees against authority and to reach some abstraction about authority relations.

Authoritarianism and Organizational Authority

Authority is, as a phenomenon, of course undetachable part of human life; since all ordered systems are in need of authority. But its reputation, as an academic issue, has expanded in the last century. It should be because of disappointments of modernity experienced in the first half of 20th Century, such as, world wars, genocides, colonization and so on. Most of these disappointments have been interpreted as the results of destructive authoritarianism (Fromm, 1973, 1942; Milgram, 1974; Adorno, 1950) and in the following period it has kept attracting attention by many studies (Weber, 1978; Mendel, 2002, 2005; Kojeve, 2007; Sennett, 1993).

Authority penetrated to management literature especially after Max Weber. But practically hierarchical structures can not be thought without authority. Even a number of authors have pointed at certain benefits of the authoritarian system (Romme, 1997; Carley, 1992; Jaques, 1990) some studies in the past demonized the bureaucratic authoritarianism (Bauman, 1989; Fromm, 1973). As it is stated by Bakunin, founder of the anarchist movement, all exercise of authority perverts and all submissiveness to authority humiliates (quoted by Limerick, 1976: 56). And that's why bureaucratic organizations, for some authors, are the source of this kind of submissiveness and humiliation. One of them was Erich Fromm who psychologically examined the impacts of authoritarianism in destructiveness and discredit bureaucracies as one of the entities creating authoritarian personalities:

Roughly equivalent to the sadomasochistic character, in a social rather than a political sense, is the bureaucratic character. In the bureaucratic system every person controls the one below him and is controlled by the one above. Both sadistic and masochistic impulses can be fulfilled in such a system. Those below, the bureaucratic character will hold in contempt, those above, he will admire and fear. One only has to look at the facial expression and the voice of a certain type of bureaucrat criticizing his subordinate, or frowning when he is a minute late, or insisting on behavior that at least symbolically expresses that during office hours he "belongs" to the superior (Fromm, 1973: 294-295).

However, when human being reached the last quarter of the 20th Century some authors (Drucker, 1970, 1993; Toffler, 1971) heralded the end of demonic bureaucracies. In late twentieth century, as many things and bureaucracy, authority has been an issue of inquiry stems from dramatic changes in social, economic and politic accounts. This new era is defined with different names; such as postmodernity (Kumar, 1978; Harvey, 1990), new economy (Gershuny and Miles, 1983), second industrial divide (Piore and Sabel, 1984), post-industrial society (Bell, 1973), information society (Masuda, 1981), knowledge society (Stehr, 1994) etc. Some theorists claim that "post-conditions" have changed the management paradigm and practices that makes bureaucratic administration obsolete. Particularly effects of flexibilization and shift in economy have let to some changes in the employment of managerial power.

When they were discussing the postmodernism, for example, some authors (Rosenau, 1992; Barthes, 1977) declared the death of author/authority. Of course, this is an overstatement and does not refer to the inexistence of authority. Instead, a new mode of authority that is less effective than it once was (Pfeffer, 1997). So new tendency in how work is organized involves a shift to participative and cooperative way in the workplace (Romme, 1997) which is found inevitable because the issues faced tend to be too complex and interdependent to be solved by a few people in authority (McLagan and Nel, 1995). And participation is based on self-determination, which involves the power to act autonomously (Dahl, 1989; Emery, 1980).

If we accept all those true, we normally see much less authoritarianism in the organizations. However as it is state before this exist as a "discourse" more than a practice (Romme, 1997). Thus, this study attempts to interrogate this issue, whether new management is less suppressive and employees are more autonomous.

Methodology

Sample

Since the business environment is heterogeneous and includes several different types of organizations, I attempted to contact at least one organization from each sector. In this respect, four main fields had to be considered; public, private, service, manufacturing. In other words, to be able to see differences and make some abstractions sample was planned to include employees from public and private ownerships and also from service and manufacturing industry. For the first step, organizations were selected by the reliance on availability. And 5 organizations were agreed to contribute for the research: three from private and 2 from public sector. However, organizations just represent the first step and the basic components of the sample are real employees, especially if it is a research on authority. And then employees were selected among those working under management. To do this most correctly, the manager (human resource manager, director, group manager, coordinator or whoever else is in cooperation with us) to whom research team was in contact was requested to provide staff list from which employees working at the middle or lower level of management were selected randomly. Totally, 46 interviewees participated in the research. From each of three organizations 10 employees were interviewed; and from the each of other two ones, 8 employees were involved.

Procedure

A number of organizations were personally contacted. And they were asked if they would like to participate in a research. To make sure them, first draft of the research plan was sent them via e-mail. And a meeting was arranged with those who were eager to take part in the research for an agreed date. After we visited organizations employees were selected randomly among those who were enthusiastic to participate. To conduct the interviews, organizations provided a private office which enabled a free conversation with the participants.

Instrument

Research was framed within a qualitative design. A semi-structured interview was conducted to gather the primary data. It was composed of two distinct parts, i) demographic questions, ii) interrogation related to reactions against authority. Interviews were arranged between April and June, 2014. Apart from the demographic questions, 6 questions were asked to interviewees and they were framed, to some extent, in reflective forms. However, when the conversation gets deepened, extra questions emerged and they provided additional data. Most of them were stated to ask about attitudes towards the authority. Each interview averagely lasted 30-35 minutes

Results

Demographic data

Interviews provided data from totally 46 employees working in 5 different organizations located and operating in Ankara, the capital city of Turkey. Two organizations are from public sector of those one is in production (food industry) and the other one is in service (finance). On the other hand, three organizations operate in private sector. One of them is in software sector, one is in health industry and the last one is in communication. Alongside white-collar employees, the blue-collar workers were also interviewed to more likely make some comparisons. Blue-collar workers were from each sector, one public (food industry) and one private (communication).

Data obtained by all these interviews were analyzed and the attitudes on authority were basically categorized in seven groups. But they were reduced to four groups at the end, since three of the groups, to a large extent, had similarities with one of the others, that's why they were combined. Thus, based on the reaction against authority participants were typified, from the conformist end to the participative end, in four groups: obedient, silent, recommender, and objector.

Table 1. Frequency distribution of demographic data

	n = 46	%
Gender		
Male	33	71,7
Female	13	28,3

Age Group

18-24	6	13
25-34	15	32, 6
35-44	16	34, 8
45-54	5	10, 9
55-...	4	8, 7

Education

Elementary	3	6, 5
Secondary	9	19, 6
Tertiary	34	77, 9

Job type

Office worker	24	52, 2
Technical support	7	15, 2
Production labor	9	19, 6
Coordinator	6	13

Obedient

The data provided by respondents reveals that some of the employees totally conform to the authority. They can be identified as "authoritarian". The term defines not only people dominating the others but also those who voluntarily accept authoritarian control by others. In psychology they are diagnosed as sadomasochistic (Fromm, 1973, 1942).

From asserts that these people "quite regularly show a marked dependence on powers outside themselves, on other people, or institutions, or nature. They tend not to assert themselves, not to do what they want, but to submit to the factual or alleged orders of these outside forces" (Fromm, 1942: 122). A few responses enabled to conclude that there are some employees showed the signs of this kind of personalities. P4 is one of them. He is working in the food industry as a production worker. He is in late thirties and has secondary level education.

One of the questions directed was that; "If you think differently than your supervisor in doing things, do you express your ideas?". P4 responded this questions with only a few words; "Its not necessary.". When he was asked a more detailed explanation he continued with a common cliché, "He is more educated than me. He knows what he has to...". Adorno (1950) believes that authoritarian personalities apply to stereotyping so often due to the lack of self-confidence and anti-intellectualism.

Another one, O2 working as an officer in the public bureau answered this question like the following: "I do what I am ordered, if something goes wrong I don't want to be in trouble". And this is also another sign of the authoritarian tendency and we remind here again what Bauman said (1989) on the reality of bureaucracies which enforces the authoritarian personality by creating a hierarchical mechanism to "obliterate the responsibility". And also another characteristic of this group of people is not to counteract even against the oppressive behaviors. It includes even not to think about complaining to the upper levels of management.

Silent

Second category defined within this research is the group who don't prefer to show a manifest reaction. It's concluded that those employees are not actually content with some decisions made by their supervisors. And what they have in common is that they have not been working in the current organization since a long time. One of them is O14. She is a sales representative and working for two years in this organization.

Same question about expressing personal ideas was asked and she answered this question that she "doesn't want to 'intervene' in making decisions and taking them in practice". What we literally named as "participation" turned into

"intervention" in her language. This indicates that they are prone to think that "intervention" is an unnecessarily big reaction. Instead they prefer not to react or keeping silent. But this should be indeed a kind of obedience or for an optimist interpretation it's just "inaction". Or even it can not be seen as a passive resistance.

To be able to make sure why they thought so, they were asked how they deal with the inconsistency if they do not "intervene" though they are not happy. How they answered this question put them in a position which includes some cues inspire us to separate them from the obedient ones. One of them is working as a coordinator in an office job. Basically, he is an office worker but as he is appointed at a kind of leading position responsible of seven people with whom he works together, he is titled as "coordinator". He responded this question as like: "Actually there is no inconsistency. It's not true that there is no reaction. To be silent is a reaction. If you don't contribute verbally what is being done, this shows that you are not in the same route. And also we don't have to forget that when we are silent our body language talks".

Another reason of silence was also explained with the insensitivity of the management. One of the respondents states that his words are carefully listened but no action is taken by his supervisors. That's why he prefers not to say anything but to show his dissent. It is concluded that employees in this group reluctantly perform what they are asked. But they work in a context in which silence is interpreted as disapproval or a kind of "soft opposition". And also, to a large extent, verbal reactions are substituted by body language to show discontent with the management.

Recommender

Depending on the data obtained from interviewees, it is found out that some respondents take place in a category which can be defined "recommender". This group of employees' relations to authority seems to be at a moderate level of resistance. In other words, they generally prefer to "participate" the processes or show of their opposition in the form of recommendation.

They believe that it's a kind of contradiction and a refuse of "absolute authority". Since they prefer to exhibit a sensitivity not to create a conflict, they attempt to show their reactions in the form of recommendation. When they are ordered to do something they turn with an alternative solution. And they believe that this is a sort of "emasculatation" of the "hard authority". If, especially, the recommended step brings the success power imposed by authority starts to decline.

One of the questions asked to the respondents was that; "Are you always in congruence with your supervisor?" A number of employees answered this question in almost same direction. It can be coded that they are of course not always in congruence... And even most of time they are in the opposite edges. But they (subordinates) manage to package their disobedience in a more acceptable and agreeable way.

Objector

Objectors take the other polar opposite the obedient one. They represent the most contradictory position against authority and they can easily stand against domination. Existence of this group is especially felt in the private organization operating in health care industry. It might be because of the sensitivity of the service and the target customers that it seems a democratic culture can grow there easily.

One of the questions asked to interviewees was that; "Do you obey to the orders of your supervisors, even if you somewhat guess following the order creates bad results?" Interviewees, which are then coded in high level of objection group, emphasize the words "definitely not" when they are answering the question. They rationalize why they can easily stand against authority with the quality of work and also qualification of job holders. They perform a job which requires high level of expertise and participation to be able to manage to make critical decisions.

And also it seems, in private software company, that an anti-authoritarian work climate has been alive. Even there may be some conflicts, everyone interviewed both superior and subordinate believe that works should be operated in a democratic and participatory way. A fact supporting this belief was the "unbearable lightness" of the hierarchical levels. Superior and subordinate employees work in the same office together that shows no privileges for superior in terms of physical conditions. On the other hand even they formally hold different hierarchical levels, both superior and subordinate, who were interviewed sequentially, it seems this status difference exist nominally.

Conclusion

Present research is planned to investigate and develop an insight, at least at a minimal scale, if the resonating claim is true that in the recent times work force's attitude against authority is developing in favor of the freedom. In other words, employees' relations to authority are taken under consideration moving from the claim that anti-authoritarian behavior is growing in business life. This means that authority relations shifted from obedience- like it happened during the sovereignty of bureaucratic periods- to the participation and freedom. So, moving from this point, where employees stand in-between obedience and freedom in their relation to their superiors is interrogated.

It is not easy to exactly set the position of employees in this line and to generalize what has been found out with this study. Because, this research was conducted on a quite limited scale. Even though the heterogeneity of the sample is regarded to reach more reliable results, it is not enough to generalize the findings obtained from only five organizations. And also as it is emphasized by some authors that there should be of course a relation between authority structure and management subsystem (Katz and Kahn, 1966) or generally social system (Limerick, 1976). Present paper omitted this fact. Despite these limitations, it is possible to argue some points in developing an insight.

First of all, it is quite easily concluded that in public organizations, both production and service, authoritarian spirit seems stronger in comparison to the private ones. This may stem from a few reasons. First, even the public sector is being restructured for some years in recent times; it still stands on bureaucratic ruins. And it is specified by some authors (Bauman, 1989; Fromm, 1973) that bureaucracy creates a climate which is ideal for keeping alive the authoritarian nature. Second, in contrast to the private sector, public sector does not still work with performance principle. In other words, the most useful principal is to be in good relation to the management. This motivation most often prevents people to voice opposition against the authority.

Another point is about differences between white-collar and blue-collar workers. It is not a big deal to predict the role of qualification in determining the attitudes in relation to authority. Employees who have competent skills are more confident and feel of freedom to be in opposition to the superiors. And this research provided similar results about them. However, even semi-skilled or unskilled worker could be participative and free when they develop an informal relation to the superiors. One of the production worked told that he had an informal relation to foreman, that's why he could freely talk and they generally decide together.

Some unexpected results should also be specified. An office worker provided some information that his supervisor is flexible in defining the operational steps to be followed. However, he says, it is not because of manager's participative and democratic approach; it is because supervisor don't want to be blamed if something goes wrong. That's why he loosely determines the way and steps of the work to be done.

And finally, stating the main questions again, is it possible to confirm the claim that since the last quarter of the 20. century participative management has been in power and that is why employees' attitudes in authority relations are generally towards self-determination and freedom? Depending on the data obtained with this research, it is not possible to exactly confirm this claim. However, findings provide some signs that yes, especially in "knowledge" businesses, where personal expertise and qualification are so high, employees do not let to be suppressed by a strong authority. And they don't like to obey totally to their superiors. However, in public sector and especially blue-collar workers exhibit, to a greater extent, obedience to the authority. Because, carrier advancement is mostly determined by the extent of congruence to the authority.

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THE ROLE OF "IT" IN "ESP" LEARNING

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Abstract

This paper aims to describe the current use and the impact of different technology equipment. in language learning . The advanced information technology of the last decade has not only changed our world but has also become a part of our everyday life. Information technology as a product and as a service that no one could have imagined its impact in the past, nowadays has become a product without which life can not be lived as it is lived now. The use of some technology tools , you tube programs, video recorders etc, enable teachers to differentiate instruction and adapt classroom activities by giving learners the change to hear pronunciation directly by the English speakers , thus enhancing language learning experiences. Regardless of where we live there is a burden of human and material resources available to us to expand our language-learning opportunities through distance learning programs and communication. IT has a great importance in assisting teachers of English language and other foreign languages as well in facilitating and mediating language learning for their students. The use of computers , mobile phones and other learning methods help learners achieve better results in schools, easier travelling and communicating. IT is saving a lot of translators time due to the google translation programs. Internet is the one that brought the world to our fingertips. Regarding internet we can share all sorts of things with the world, get authentic materials from anywhere, and interact with people in distant locations as never before. Free computer programs help learn language skills such as writing, reading, correct mistakes, translate different articles etc.

Key words; information technology, language, learners, internet, classroom etc.

Introduction

Communication is an essential part of the human experience.

The role of language in communication is to express and share ones feelings and ideas. Language allows us to express what we think and feel to another group of people. It enables us to learn, teach, express our preferences, agree on certain norms and standards within a society in order for us to co-exist. Language is instinctive even in cavemen who expressed themselves by sound, body language and even simple drawings.

English is such an important language because it is spoken by millions of people world-wide. Its prominence makes it a good choice for multinational businesses that need an international language with which to communicate. Fluency of language allows businesses to bridge an increasingly diverse workforce with a single language. This single-language model encourages much greater efficiency in communication. English is important since it is a well known language and has frequently been referred to as a world language.

English for specific purposes (ESP)

Learning a language is something we're born to do. As children, we learn to think , learn to communicate and understand grammar rules in our mother tongue, or native language. From then on, we learn all new languages in relation to the one we first knew—the one that we used to understand the world around us for the first time ever. English for specific purposes (ESP) is a needs based concept to determine which language skills should be profitably developed for professional success of students. Learning English as a foreign language (EFL) or general English indicates the use of English in a non - English speaking region. Nowadays it is widely accepted that learning to speak English in general may be the best thing one can do to improve everyday life. How can one have access to information that other people can not get, how to travel without being accompanied by a translator, and the most important of all, how to leave the others miles behind us? The answer is;

simply by learning general English. But it is even more important for the learners of English to be able to learn English for all sorts of transactions, as the learners of ESP already have the basics of the English language and are learning the language in order to communicate a set of professional skills and to perform particular job related functions. (Singh: 2005).

When teaching ESP there are certain basic questions to be taken into account such as: who the learners are, what their view towards language learning is, what particular skill will they be needing in their account, on the job situation, what their linguistic background or level of competence is, what their purpose and expectations are, and similar .

Rosenberg (in Netiksiene: 2006) has written an article in which she has analyzed the differences between English for specific purposes and general English. In her article she considers where English for Specific Purposes, respectively Business English and General English overlap. To address these questions specifically, the author of the article has conducted a survey. She has asked a group of University teachers of the English language to brainstorm the differences and the similarities between general English and Business English. A number of ideas suggested by the participants in the brainstorming activity are listed below:

Business English	General English
Specialized vocabulary	Free time activity
Motivation related to job	More freedom in deviation from plan
Teach negotiation and presentation	More time for games
Techniques	Literature
Students very goal-oriented	Songs
More serious	More relaxed atmosphere
Business correspondence	General writing skills

According to Rosenberg, when the two lists are analyzed it may be concluded that general English and English for Specific Purposes have in common the following: Grammar and functions - grammar rules are the same everywhere; general vocabulary, and anxiety about capabilities, everyday English, small talk, travel vocabulary, survival English, and current events. ESP (English for Specific Purposes) according to Dudley - Evans (in Anthony: 1997) has been referred to as "applied ELT" (English Language Teaching) as the content and aims of any course are determined by the needs of a specific group of learners. ESP is often divided into EAP (English for Academic Purposes) preparing students for academic studies in universities around the world. Students learn skills such as writing academic papers, taking lecture notes and studying for exams, and EOP (English for Occupational Purposes) teaching English in general or particular workplace training and development. Further sub-divisions of English for Occupational Purposes are sometimes made into business English, professional English (e.g. English for doctors, lawyers) and vocational English (e.g. English for tourism, nursing, aviation, and bricklaying). The characteristics of ESP summarized by Dudley – Evans are as follows:

ESP is designed to meet the specific needs of the learners, ESP makes use of the underlying methodology and activities of the specialism it serves, therefore it is centered not only on the language (grammar, lexis, register), but also the skills, discourses and genres appropriate to those activities. Nowadays ESP practitioners are also becoming increasingly involved in intercultural communication and the development of intercultural competence (Gatehouse).

Traditionally ESP courses were typically designed for intermediate or advanced adult learners. Nowadays many students can start to learn academic or vocational English at an earlier age and at a lower level of proficiency. ESP concentrates more on language in context than on teaching grammar and language structures. It covers subject varying from accounting or computer to tourism and business. Therefore the defining characteristic of ESP according to Dudley-Evans (Gatehouse) is that teaching and materials are based on the results of a needs analysis. Consequently the key questions are:

What do students need to do with English?

Which of the skills do they need to master and how well?

Which genres do they need to master either for comprehension or production purposes?

English for Specific Purposes has become increasingly important as there has been an increase in vocational training and learning throughout the world. With the spread of globalization has come the increasing use of English as the language of international communication. More and more people are using English in a growing number of occupational contexts.

Students are starting to learn and therefore master general English at a younger age and so move on to ESP at an earlier age.

In some English speaking countries for instance Great Britain, Canada, America etc. governments are launching initiatives to help economic migrants obtain the practical English skills necessary to function in the workplace. For example, the new English to Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL) for Work Qualifications in the United Kingdom are designed to help employers and employees access courses which offer them the functional language skills demanded across a variety of employment sectors. Content includes topics such as customer care and health and safety (Dudley-Evans, 2001 in British Council). Kiktauskiene (2006) states that teaching language for specific purposes is determined by different professional/occupational, social and other – needs of the learner. Therefore, English for specific purposes (ESP) includes specialized programmes which are designed to develop the communicative use of English in a specialized field of science, work or technology. To be able to speak on a professional subject is not enough to know general vocabulary.

Technology and ESP learning

As humanity evolves, technology is evolving with it too, and impacting the way the communicative aspect of our lives functions. The effects of modern technology on how we communicate with one another are vast and varied, with both negative and positive impacts for our business and personal lives. Learning a second language whatever it may be especially the language that adults have as the language of their profession called language for specific purposes (ESP), both pronunciation and writing in last decades based on some studies resulted that some adult learners scored as well as native speakers. All this because of having the newest technology at home, starting from mobile Phone, iPad, computer etc. Modern technology is drastically altering the speed at which we communicate. An email is delivered in a matter of minutes. Text messaging allows us to send short messages to each other's phones in seconds. We can reach anyone by telephone almost anywhere with the continued development of network coverage. Instant messaging and video conferencing allow groups of people to speak in real time from all over the country and world

The fact that learning a little every day by using one of these equipments is actually more effective than learning for hours at a time, can be proved by the fact that children have their favorite programs on their tablets, iPads, TV etc all day long even when going to sleep, while adults repeating almost same and new things everyday on mobile phone by using different language programs to express themselves, when chatting to the others or when wanting to write an academic letter or application, by having possibility of finding a sample of it on the internet just by google searching and the next time another sample. Social networking sites, such as "facebook", "skype" and "tweeter", are making information quicker, shortening forms of full words, and fully developing sentences and thought. This major social trend in the use of technology has a tremendous positive effect on education, especially for English language learners. These social networks facilitate the learner being able to meet friends who speak the language they are learning. Within this format they can tweet to new friends, make comments on their tweets and postings and also chat with them. So it is much easier to keep things in mind by seeing, reading or hearing them more often. In networks one can meet native and non native people online and have an interesting conversation with them in either groups or individuals by a call system. In this way everyone will learn the customs and traditions of the others nationalities and countries. In a short period of time they will learn new words, and different forms and structures from each other. In this way you are more comfortable with any mistakes in speech and the advantage of native speakers who are well versed in their language offering you correction. An interview transmitted on a TV channel showed that one in a five adults prefer to stay hungry rather than without a mobile phone, they are ready not to watch a TV but have a mobile phone, which means their life is totally addicted to mobile phones and internet. A large number of respondents have declared that they wake up at night just to see if there is any news on their phones, and the first thing they do in the morning is open their social networks and chat with their friend from different places. When asked of the advantages of these activities all of them have answered clearly that apart from being socialized they learn foreign languages. Most of their time is spent listening to MP3 player, reading lessons from LingQ on iPad, or iPhone, during the day. Respondents have also added that they don't necessary need to go to a classroom, or to a language lab to learn English, don't necessary need to spend a lot of money on language courses any more.

Classroom and technology

In recent years we have witnessed a significant advances in technology, which have changed our world and have also become a part of our every day life. Technology is something that can not be viewed as our optional resource or something that can be dispensed with but, it is a reality which to an increasing extend together with the science dictate our language in which we think and speak, because we either speak that language or remain mute. English for specific purpose (ESP) like any other aspect of our lives, has also been transformed by technology, especially by the use of computers in our

classroom tasks as teachers and researchers. The role of the teacher is to coordinate the context surrounding language learning in order for students to succeed in improving their language skills (Day & Lloyd, 2007). New technologies are becoming essential to the learning of a second language in general especially language for specific purposes. Therefore, a fundamental issue that needs to be resolved is how to integrate these new technologies into the classroom setting. The resolution of this issue is largely the role of the teacher as an educator and one who guides the learning process. Multimedia teachings enrich teaching content and make the best of class time and break the "teacher-centered" teaching pattern and fundamentally improve class efficiency towards "student-centered". Due to large classes it is difficult for the students to have speaking communication. The utilization of multi-media sound lab materializes the individualized and co-operative teaching. The traditional teaching model mainly emphasized on teachers' instruction, and the information provided is limited due to traditional classes. On the contrary, multimedia technology goes beyond time and space, creates more vivid, visual, authentic environment for English learning, it stimulates students' initiatives and economizes class time meanwhile increases class information. This way the role of computers in language instructions has become an important issue all around the world. The computer can play a useful part in the language class only if the teacher first asks: What is it that I want my students to learn today, and what is the best way for them to learn it? In most cases, the answer will probably not involve the computer, but there will be occasions when the computer is the most suitable and, for the students, most enjoyable way to get the job done. In addition, computer teaching is also flexible. It is obvious that the context can be created not only in the classroom, but after class too. Multimedia language teaching can also create a multimedia language environment for the purpose of conducting language teaching. English teaching itself must focus on the guidance of teachers and be student-centered (Holec, 1981), which is one of the principles for language teaching, because students are bound to have some problems in classroom teaching, which can be addressed under the guidance of teachers. In such circumstances, students can use the new technology to their advantage, such as manipulating the network to contact teachers, and receiving answers by email. It is rare to find a language class that does not use some form of technology/computer. In recent years computers are used to both assist and enhance language learning. Teachers at different levels incorporate various forms of technology to support their teaching, engage students in learning process, provide authentic examples of the target culture, and connect their classrooms in a certain country in other countries where the target language is spoken.

It is helpful to think of the computer as having the following main roles in the language classroom:

teacher - the computer teaches students new language

tester - the computer tests students on language already learned

tool - the computer assists students to do certain tasks

data source - the computer provides students with the information they need to perform a particular task

communication facilitator - the computer allows students to communicate with others in different locations

Further, some technology tools enable teachers to differentiate instruction and adapt classroom activities and homework assignment, thus enhancing the language learning experience. Distance learning programs can enable language educators to expand language-learning opportunities to all students, regardless of where they live, the human and material resources available to them, or their language background and needs. In sum, technology continues to grow in importance as a tool to assist teachers of foreign languages in facilitating and mediating language learning for their students.

Computer effectiveness in classrooms

While technology can play an important role in supporting and enhancing language learning, the effectiveness of any technological tool depends on the knowledge and expertise of the qualified language teacher who manages and facilitates the language learning environment. In some cases however, school and university administrators have permitted technology to drive the language curriculum and have even used it to replace certified language teachers.

The use of computers in language learning is a well-researched field, with studies on different computer applications and their pedagogical value to language learning. In order for a learner to achieve the four skills: writing, reading, listening and speaking, during language learning it has to play an active role. In a computer based language learning environment the computer "will act as an aid to the learning process, facilitate learning to the provision of learning materials and resources and enable interactions between all learners and teachers involved in the environment." (Barr. P. 29) According to some existing literature the effectiveness of technology used in language education is very limited in four aspects: a) The number

of systematic, well designed empirical evaluative studies of the effects of technology uses in language learning is very small, b) the settings of instruction where the studies were conducted were limited to higher education and adult learners, c) the languages studied were limited to common foreign languages and English as a foreign or second language, and d) the experiments were often short-term and about one or two aspects of language learning (e.g., vocabulary or grammar). However the limited number of available studies shows a pattern of positive effects. They found that technology-supported language learning is at least as effective as human teachers, if not more so. Technology is an ill-defined concept that encompasses a wide range of tools, artifacts, and practices, from multimedia computers to the Internet, from videotapes to online chat rooms, from web pages to interactive audio conferencing. These technologies vary a great deal in their capacity, interface, and accessibility. It is thus misleading to think the effects of videotapes are the same as those of the online chat rooms just because they are all called "technology." Second, the effects of any technology on learning outcomes lie in its uses. A specific technology may hold great educational potential, but, until it is used properly, it may not have any positive impact at all on learning. Thus, assessing the effectiveness of a technology is in reality assessing the effectiveness of its uses rather than the technology itself. Since most information and communication technologies (ICT) can be used in a variety of ways, some more effective than others, it is inappropriate to over generalize the effectiveness of one way of using the technology to the technology itself. Third, to further complicate things, the effectiveness of an educational approach is highly mediated by many other variables—the learner, the task, the instructional setting, and of course the assessment tool. Thus, even the same use of a particular technology in different instructional settings may result in different learning outcomes.

The effectiveness of technology on language learning is dependent on how it is used. Certain technologies are more suitable than others for certain learning tasks for certain learners. Therefore research about appropriate ways and contexts of technology use is much needed (Salaberry, 2001).

The benefits of adding a computer component to language instruction include

- (1) multimodal practice with feedback
- (2) individualization in a large class
- (3) pair and small group work on projects, either collaboratively or competitively
- (4) the fun factor
- (5) variety in the resources available and learning styles used
- (6) exploratory learning with large amounts of language data
- (7) real-life skill-building in computer use

Programs available for language learning

There are still a great many grammar and vocabulary drill programs available, but at least the vocabulary ones have started to be contextualized and to incorporate graphics, audio recording and playback, and video. Drills do have a place in language learning, particularly in the first stages of vocabulary acquisition where giving the same information in multiple modes, such as visual plus aural plus textual, enhances recognition and recall. More sophisticated error-checking can provide students real help in the feedback they receive, directing them to further practice or moving them to the next stage. Those who do need extra help with those aspects of language that improve with practice can use small, focused programs to give them additional time and assistance outside of regular class time.

Pronunciation work in particular has benefited from technology. Most pronunciation programs now incorporate some sort of voice recording and playback to let students compare their recording with a model. (Warschauer, M., & Healey, D. (1998)). Many of the English pronunciation programs, such as Ellis Master Pronunciation from CALI, American Accent Program from Ford Language Institute etc, have video clips and animations of the mouth making specific sounds. Some vocabulary programs, such as Practice Makes Perfect and Vocabulary Builder from The Learning Company, See It, Hear It, Say It! from Courseware Publishing International, use speech recognition technology to help students see how close they've come to the target pronunciation in several languages. A few programs, such as SpeechViewer from IBM and VideoVoice from MicroVideo, let students try to make the graphical representations of their speech overlap a teacher-recorded template. These visual cues work in conjunction with aural cues to provide sophisticated feedback.

Most drills now include games, as well, using the power of the computer and competition for or a collaboration toward a goal--the fun factor--to motivate language learning. Notable among the drill-as-game are Blackbelt Japanese from Educorp; English, French, Spanish, and German versions of Hangman (Hangman, La Guillotine, La Corrida de Toros, and

Apfelschuss) from Gessler; Matchmaster from Wida; and Word Attack! from Davidson. These programs provide a varying amount of instruction along with the games, but all expect the teacher to do most of the work in introducing the concepts that students will practice.

Technology verses teacher

Although much of what is done at the computer can be done in other ways, some activities are far more productive with the resources that the computer can bring to bear. Text reconstruction is a good example. A teacher can create a sentence jumble by cutting up pieces of paper, but programs such as NewReader from Hyperbole can do it painlessly. With a paper cloze, students who get stuck on a word have to give up completely and look at the whole text (or ask the teacher individually for a specific answer); on the computer, they can get a letter or word as a hint and go on. Both NewReader from Hyperbole and Text Tangles from Research Design Associates can create a variety of text reconstruction activities for a plain-text word-processed document, greatly expanding any classroom reading that the teacher has prepared. Crossword and word search puzzles are examples of activities that take a great deal of time to prepare by hand, but very little time to do on the computer. The teacher types in a series of words, and the machine formats them appropriately. With a crossword puzzle, the teacher is then prompted for each clue, and the machine formats the whole crossword with clues on the page to be worked on the computer or printed out. Because the process is easy, students can create crosswords for each other. A program like Crossword Creator from Centron adds a thesaurus, making it even easier for students and teachers to formulate clues.

The writing process is another area where computers have added a great deal of value. Some programs, such as IdeaFisher from IdeaFisher Systems and Inspiration from Inspiration Software, help students in the pre-writing stage to generate and outline ideas. Most word-processors now come with spelling checkers, giving weak spellers some help in finding their errors and recognizing the correct spelling from a list of options.

Dictionaries, both translating ones have sound and video clips to help learners recognize a word when it's spoken and put it into context. The Computer Screen can't Substitute the Blackboard Some teachers use the computer screen as the blackboard. They have input exercises, questions, answers and teaching plans into the computer and display them piece by piece, without taking down anything on the blackboard or even the title of a lesson. It is known that teachers are supposed to simulate situations based on teaching and guide the students to communicate in English. Beside traditional writing on blackboard is concise and teachers can make adjustment and amendment to it if necessary. Furthermore, experienced teachers know well that a perfect courseware is an ideal project in mind, and that in practice, they need to enrich the content on the blackboard with emerging of new question raised by the students.

Some teachers may possess the improper concept that they would totally apply multimedia technology in their teaching. It is also believed that the more utilization of multimedia technology, the better class atmosphere may grow, the more actively the students get involved in class participation, the more easily the material access to the students. Apparently, the students show some interest in leaning, but actually, they feel like looking on. In practice, the more unconscious attention the students pay, the more interference of teaching information during transmission, the less the students take from the language materials. It is impossible to effectively train the students' language expression in class time. It is clear that in spite of advantages of application of technology, it assists in teaching. During practical teaching, it is part of a complete teaching procedure. In practice, if multimedia technology would be properly implemented in English teaching, the students could make full use of English speaking and listening materials and develop their overall capacities, which is the objective for us to introduce multimedia technology to modern teaching thus, this leads to systematic training on students' listening, speaking, reading and writing, makes teachers' instructions come into great play, help the student gain basic knowledge as well as language training at classes, improves their expression ability in English and lays a fundamental basis for their English communication.

Conclusion T

Everyone learns a foreign language using a range of methods they find best. In this modern era we have a range of new technologies at our disposal that can help learners in the language learning process so why not use them to their full potential, but never forget the role of the teacher in classrooms. We believe that in future, the use of technology in English teaching and learning will be further developed, and hopefully focused more on student-centered but less time-consuming.

In conclusion it should be added that one more technology opens a new window to the world.

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CULTURAL CHANGES IMPACT IN KOSOVAR STILES OF LEADERSHIP

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Abstract

The use of the word culture in organizational analysis includes the effects of interactions between environmental organizations and the culture of the country where they are located. In Kosovo businesses styles of leadership differ from one another depending on the environment and organizational culture. Cultural differences play important roles in the organization, particularly in motivating subordinates and increasing the performance. In Kosovo businesses the impact of cultural change has not affected particularly good in terms of motivation and in adapting new cultures in our country especially since the after war period until now. Good business relationship have been developed through cultural groups and geographic boundaries, Kosovo is a in transition country with an unstable economy has not yet developed organizational culture due to the lack of various mechanisms as training, adoption and acceptance of new cultures. Is important to note that the adoption and creation of a new culture in our country depending will increase employees' performance that are influenced by democrat leadership style. The aim: Given the fact that the culture study is especially important today in terms of globalization and in Albanian culture there are few researches on cultural values and their influence in terms of management and for this reason is important to be focused on enhancing the sensitization to acceptance new cultures and adapt them in Kosovar companies. Performance evaluation aims, performance evaluation data are important information in order to judge validity of selection methods, to evaluate if such methods ensure a good selection of employee for organization. Performance evaluation can lead towards identification e needs of employees for further improvement. Performance evaluation ensures information for employees regarding their performances, information which will serve to employees as a foundation for improvement. Performance evaluation is tightly linked with motivation of employees. Coordination of knowledge and the talent of our consultants followed with experience is the most applied from human resources in the region, it allows you to implement Oracle HRMS within your organization rapidly.

Key words: Leadership, Organizational culture, business ethics, performance

Introduction

Based to the fact that leaders finish their duty in different styles, autocratic, democratic, participating laissez faire (liberal) and often the leadership style depends from the situation including organizational cultural changes and which style do leaders use based to the culture and business label in Kosovo.

In Kosovar businesses there is a direct link between ethical leadership and moral organizational culture based to the researches main focus stands at the way of thinking that is after many changes including foreign by generations, in Kosovo dominates more aristocratic style, the period after the war time followed many changes including foreign stake holders that dominate also the transforming style of leadership, this approach of transforming leadership strong emphasizes pays to the paradigm of the level of the leadership lining on the charisma and personal sensitiveness of the leader. According to this approach the leader changes as all other people do, so the emotions, value, ethics, standard, are included in the group of motives of proponents so that the leader becomes part of their group in one transforming process it means the exchange is being done between the charismatic and visionary leadership.

The important matter is the combination of these two styles that in continuation of the leading of Kosovar businesses are growing the performance creating the new cultural era and ethical code applicable in all leading points

Organizational Culture and Kosovar Leadership

Organizational culture as a whole represents the values, norms, standards of behavior and common expectations, which control how individuals or groups in an organization. ????

Managers in the organization through values and norms control the results. Values are the trust and idea for the type of aims that the members of one society should follow as well as for the behavior that people should apply to reach their aims. While norms are written rules or instructions to fulfill for reaching goals. Except values and norms is important also organizational socialization, which is a process by which new employees learn the values and norms of the organization and to gain knowledge for the necessary organizational behavior for reaching the effective results.

The organizational culture and leadership interact with one another, the leaders create and reinforce norms and behavior within the culture...An organizational culture affects its leadership as the leadership affects the culture. (Bass B.M., 1998:63) So "...to improve the organization, the culture should be improved, and to improve the culture, personal effectiveness and leadership must be improved."(Terrell&Nelson, 1998:1).

Organizational culture in Kosova conditioned by the leadership more transactional which work within their organizational culture following the existing rules, procedures and norms¹, methods which do not bring effective results because of the not adapting culture which is essential for the success of the leader and organization. The Kosovar leadership should focus more at the transforming one which change their culture first understanding it and then reconstructing the culture of the organization with a new vision and reviewing of the common assumptions of values and norms Bass (1985). According to the transforming leadership that includes some assumptions as:

Articulate a vision and sense of purpose to their followers, b) serve as role models, teachers and coaches, c) work for the socialization of new members within a epitome of an organizational culture transformation, d) challenges are the opportunities and threats etc ..., methods and models of this type are effective networking leadership and cooperation with other countries nationwide because we are dealing with adaptive culture and virtues of a creative personality, .

Cultural changes in Kosovar enterprises based to the norms of behavior in group

Studies and different articles considered leadership main and integral part of social and cultural structures of the organization. Enterprising leadership as important part of the organization should reflect and present best directing qualities in achieving success through communication with people, influencing in the manner and its actions, encouraging in directing and fulfilling of the duties in group. All together helps in supporting of cultural changes of the organization and further development of the leadership. Implementation and appropriation of these qualities enables a leader to prepare, with a clear vision for the present and future.²

The same fact of the group and group behavior affect growth performance and realism of organizational objectives, involvement enables the individual to achieve the objectives set, to decrease the barriers, anxiety, feelings of helplessness, helps individuals to check opinions for work environment, the most important for career advancement.

The use of mechanisms to avoid group problems which influence in organizational performance of the culture and increasing the values at work it is more than necessary to restructure the processes of functioning in group, with better focus on heterogenic groups where the decision making is high quality, are more efficient in complex duties, not routine and which would affect in cultural changes where these changes would bring effectiveness and would create networking with foreign countries.

Behavior at work presents:

PR*A*M= Behavior at work;

PR- Perceptions of the role;

A-Abilities and Mastering.

Based on researches done in Kosovo organizations we have a combination of group behavior whether they want leadership style and personality of its own, but the largest percentage of focus group style homogeneity groups, have less conflicts, are less effective in complex tasks and non-routine.

Purposes of evaluation of the performance in leading enterprises

¹Gjurkaj. E "National Culture in organizational culture", Tiranë, page 50,51, 2013

²www.mod.gov.al/publishing/html/army/2007/.../page.htm

To identify the level of the performance conditioned by the ethics and organizational culture.

To equip managers with a tool for identifying the strong and weak points of the performance for employers.

To provide a format that gives possibility to managers to recommend a specific program projected to help an employee to improve the performance.

To offer possibilities for the employers to get rewards for the given contribution for aims of the organization.

To have information regarding further planning.

The goals of evaluations aim first to see work implementation of the employees and the successes that they achieved during the implementation of work compared with standards of the performance within the certain period.

The new methods of the evaluation with emphasize on treatment and plans for development and growth of the employees. Treatment is aimed at improving the assessment of work behavior conditioned by organizational ethics. 1.

2.3. Reward of evaluated performance

The creating of the reward programs requests from all organizations to set specific goals as: retention of workers, labor compensation and budget support. The compensation should reward employees for the work being done serving as motivation for the performance of the employees on the future. The most common purposes of remuneration policy include:

To reward employees for past performance

To remain competitive in the labor market

To ensure equality of pay between employees

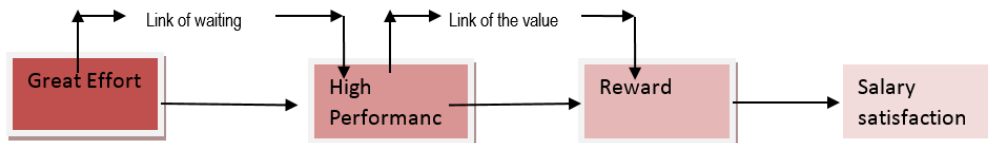
To motivate next performances

To attract new employees

To reduce unnecessary returns.

The main tool of reward of the achieved performance is salary for performance and that depends also from the politics and the budget of the enterprise, this we will show on the following drawing.

The process of the reward for performance 2



LEVEL OF ANALYSING OF TREATMENT

Registered enterprises in Kosovo based to the number of the employees -20103

Classification by size	Number of employees	Number of enterprises	Percentage in total
Micro	1-9	102, 070	98.37
Small	10-49	1, 406	1.35
Medium	50-249	221	0.22
Big	More then 250	58	0.06

¹ Sherman, Bohlaner, Snell, "Human Resources Management", 1997,page. 176

²Sherman, Bohlander& Snell "Human Resources Management", 1997, page.201

³ Strategy of development of NVMin Kosova 2012-2020, fq.17

Total		103, 755	100.00
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Source ARBK

From total 103.755 enterprises: 102.070 (or 98.37%) are micro enterprises; 1.406 (1.35%) are small; 221 (0.22%) are medium and only 58 (0.06%) are classified as big. Prevalence of micro-enterprises has implications for the SME Strategy.

The analysis of labor will focus in macro enterprises and the importance of the labor stands at the ethics and culture of the leadership in Kosovar enterprises where is necessary to have a bigger number of the employees in order to be measurable results achieved by the Kosovo leadership influence.

Crucial variables of the work are: ethics and organizational culture, based on these variables we will present a comprehensive survey that confirms the importance of cultural change and adaptation of cultures needed for a high performance based on transactional leadership.

Presenting of the results:

Number of managers in all enterprises in Kosova is 58 and the sum of these will draw results presented in table in %

Is ethical code recognized at your company?	No	Percentage
Yes	45	77.5%
No	13	22.4%
Maybe	0	0%
Is it being applicable the ethical code?	No	Percentage
More	40	69%
Less	18	31%
None	7	43%
Does the ethic of work have influence in performance of the enterprise?	No	Percentage
More	50	86.2%
Less	5	8.62%
None	3	5.17%
In your enterprise is it being used transforming or transactional model of leadership?	No	Percentage
Transforming	25	43.1%
Transactional	32	55.17%
None	1	1.72%
How much impact has the leader on enhancing group?	No	Percentage
More	38	65.51%
Less	18	31%
None	2	3.44%
What problems / obstacles foresee the leader in your company?	No	Percentage
Personal	4	6.89%
Neighborhood	18	31%
External	36	62%

What characterizes the culture of the organization?	No	Percentage
National culture	33	67%
Cooperating leadership	10	40%
Ethics	7	43%
Which culture is being developed in mentioned enterprises regarding effective decision making ?	No	Percentage
Adaptive culture	20	34.48%
Not adaptive culture	30	51.72%
None	8	13.79%
What kind of impact has cultural changes in your enterprise?	No	Percentage
Effective influence	30	51.72%
Not effective influence	22	37.93%
None	6	10.34%

Recommendations:

Based to these extensive questions in macro enterprises in Kosovo we come to the conclusion that:

Kosovar leadership should focus more in developing of the new culture as for example to use mechanisms which help in cooperation and exchange between Kosovar personnel and the international ones.

Enterprises to be adaptable to new cultures, to have more experiences about ethics and its implementation.

To request assistance from experts from abroad to this matter, since that the knowledge and experiences of developed countries can help build a better system of organizational culture which results process will create opportunities for better results in this enterprise.

Creating a positive and reliable atmosphere for employees and inform employees of the importance of performance evaluation process, in enhancing the quality of services, the fulfilling of the objectives of the enterprise.

Informing staff about conducted performance oriented more in the formal way and the informing about performance, to be provided in group meetings and since that the application of this form can be affected as a motivator in achieving high performance of work of the personnel.

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Work-Family Balance of Knowledge Workers In Poland

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Abstract

The subject of managing both work and family spheres has drawn a lot of academic attention in the last few decades. Various models of work-family balance have been created. Yet, the most widely used, and perhaps the most feasible are models that measure balance by its absence. In the study, we use the work to family conflict model to investigate how work interrupts the family life. We focus on knowledge workers, as among this group the boundary between work and family spheres continue to be more and more blurry, especially with the presence of new information and communication technologies. In the research, we show how different working patterns and work attitudes influence family life. Additionally, we analyze the impact of usage of ICTs at home for professional reasons on familial harmony. In order to conduct the analysis we use the secondary data from the Social Diagnosis 2013 Project. The analysis is conducted on the group of knowledge workers (nkw=1, 457) and the rest of the workers (now=5, 955). The knowledge workers who used the Internet and e-mail at home for professional reasons were found to be more likely to face family problems than ones who did not use the new technologies in this manner. The relation between working hours and struggling with family problems has turned out to be non-linear and changing depending on the work environment perception. The results suggest that in general knowledge workers, who report work problems, have higher probability of struggling with problems in family than individuals who do not. The workers, who do not perceive their work as problematic, are more likely to have problems in family long very long hours. The individuals who work long hours are less likely to be subject to family problems, if they do not struggle with work-related problems.

Keywords: Work-family balance, knowledge workers, Poland

Introduction

Work family balance (WFB) has drawn a lot of attention in the last few decades and has been widely empirically analysed. Our society is viewed as increasingly rushed and work-centred. The view that the work and family spheres are separate realms is outdated and deeply flawed (Currie & Eveline, 2010). These two spheres interact and intertwine between each other.

Various aggregated measures show that Poland falls behind the rest of Europe in terms of work-family balance. The average number of working hours in Poland is higher than in the European Union. Some groups of the workers in Poland, such as self-employed, work on average more than the persons from this group in most European countries (Eurofund, 2012). Also, Poles spend on average the least amount of hours in the week for personal care and leisure among all the European countries (OECD, 2014). Thus, it is noteworthy to establish a causal relationship between extended work-dimension and diminishing and harmed family dimension in Polish families.

A group especially seen as exposed to obstructions in reaching a balance between the work and family life are the knowledge workers, the persons who "think for living" (Davenport, 2005). Among this group the boundary between work and family spheres continue to be even more and more blurry, especially with the presence of new information and communication technologies. As the new technologies emerged, companies started to give professionals greater time flexibility, making them responsible for managing their life schedule. Quantitative studies showed that these new arrangements, together with employer high expectations and workers' job insecurity resulted in increased time and effort invested in work (Moen, Lam, Ammons, & Kelly, 2013; Perrons, 2003). The blurred boundaries are imposed by the working conditions of the knowledge workers, such as schedule and workplace flexibility, autonomy and accountability, teamwork, management by objectives and strict deadlines (Frenkel, Bendit, & Kaplan, 2012).

The aim of the research is to show how different working patterns and work attitudes influence family life of knowledge workers. Extended working hours may affect persons who have a positive image of work differently than persons who have

negative attitude towards work. Additionally, the impact of usage of ICTs at home for professional reasons on familial harmony is analyzed.

Literature Review

Work-Family Balance: Definition and Models

An intuitive definition of the term "work-life balance" is a point where a perfect harmony between work and private life is reached. However, this generic and vague definition does not suffice in a process of conceptualising work life balance for the means of empirical analysis. In fact, this raises more questions, for example what is the mentioned cut-off point of balance and how can it be captured? Another controversy associated with the subject of work/life balance is the specification of term "life" or "private life". Whereas "work" is, in most cases, a clearly defined dimension, "private life" is a conglomerate of different aspects of life such as family, leisure, health, etc. Even though the multidimensionality of the "life" part of the work-life balance concept is acknowledged, the research studies usually focus only its limited part, namely on the family aspect of life, e.g. Dyer, Mcdowell, & Batnitzky (2011). Indeed family aspect seems to be the most prominent of all the dimensions and probably the easiest one to capture. However, for the sake of accuracy, the relation between work and family life should be denoted as work-family balance (WFB).

There are various models of WFB. The approaches most often taken by researchers measure either spill-over of work to family life or vice versa, or conflict between the two spheres (Guest, 2002). According to the spill-over model one world can influence the other in either positive or negative way. It can also combine both: work-to family life influence and family life-to work influence, to establish the WFB (Pichler, 2008). The even more widely used approach is the conflict model, which assumes that extended activity in one sphere occurs at the cost of the other. The widely used definition of work-family balance complies with this model. It defines the term as a "satisfaction and good functioning at work and at home, with a minimum role of conflict" (Clark, 2000).

An interesting question associated with this issue is whether working long hours by choice is the situation of balance. Maybe it is worthwhile separating this category from the workers who work long hours as they feel obliged to do so. Peiperl & Jones (2001) divide workers who work long hours into two categories: "workaholics" – ones who feel they get appropriate benefits (both tangible and intangible) from working more than average and "overworkers" – ones who do not feel the reward from their work is adequate.

Yet, work-family balance does not solely focus on the individual. It should also capture a family perspective. For instance "workaholics" may be satisfied with the time and attention they devote to both family and work spheres, yet it may affect how other family members share the time between these spheres. For this reason it is important to capture the other working family members' view on the work-family balance of the analysed individual.

Another potential doubt associated with this approach is the question whether measuring work family balance by conflict is appropriate. The literature sources suggest that individuals are more aware of work-family balance in the case of its absence (Guest, 2002). It can serve as a rationale for using this negative rather than positive indicator of work-family balance.

Another issue stressed in the literature is the fact that the dichotomy assumption in relation to the subject of work-life or even work-family balance is deeply flawed (Currie & Eveline, 2010). The boundaries between work and private zone are being constantly blurred, and with the ubiquitous information and communication technologies this process is progressing even faster.

In general, the measures of work-family balance can be divided into objective and subjective ones. Among objective measures we can distinguish: normal weekly working hours, evening and weekend work, working overtime on short notice, free time, family roles and others. The subjective indicators usually measure self-reported balance, conflict or interference between the two spheres. Often the objective and subjective measures do not converge. Although a considerable correlation between working hours and self-reported work life (or family) balance is usually reported, it is not sufficiently high to use these two measures interchangeably. It brings a question about how well objective criteria can serve as indicators of subjective experience and whether we can rely on subjective accounts as valid indicators of balance without some evidence of others (Guest, 2002). A plausible solution to these issues would be to combine objective and subjective measures. This would allow the extraction of the group of "workaholics" who objectively work more than an average person, yet do not feel overwhelmed by this situation. Another technique to make the measure of work-family balance more robust

is to use the reports not only from the individuals in question, but also accounts of persons from their closest environment. The ideal situation would be to have opinions of persons from both realms: a family member and a co-worker or a superior.

Work-Family Balance in Poland

The international accounts of work-life and work-family balance show that Poland falls behind in this area comparing to other European countries. Polish workers work on average 40.7 hours per week, 3.5 hours more than the European average (European Commission, 2013). Polish self-employed have the second longest working hours in Europe – 53h/week (Eurofund, 2012).

On the other hand, Polish workers spend significantly less time per day on leisure and personal care (i.e. eating, sleeping, socialising with friends and family, hobbies, games, etc.) than individuals in other European countries. Among OECD countries, Poland scores as the third lowest in this measure, after Turkey and Mexico (OECD, 2014). Also, a study on country clusters shows that individuals from Central and Eastern European countries (CEEs) spend on average the least time on domestic activities, including care activities (Eurofund, 2012).

These individual time-use measures suggest that Poland is a country, where the “work” component is prominent in work-life or work-family mix. There can be various reasons for this proportion, including individuals’ preferences. However, when we compare these outcomes with some accounts from area of work organization, we can conclude that the work-life or work-family balance is hardly a priority among Polish labor market policies. For instance, the percentage of part-time jobs in Poland is considerably low – it constitutes 7.1% of total employment, whereas the EU average equals to 19.5%. The part-time work can be viewed negatively, as it can be associated with exclusion from benefits and access to promotion. Nevertheless the possibility of working part-time is often a solution to manage work and family life. It is especially valuable for young parents, in particular mothers who often spend much more time on care activities than fathers (Eurofund, 2013). The recent results from European Working Conditions Survey show that there is a negative relation between average working time of women and female employment rate (Eurofund, 2012). It is worrying, as women who have exited the labour market upon entering the parenthood phase, tend to have lower well-being than the ones that remained in the job market. Also, these unfavorable conditions may hinder already low population growth.

Another issue is employers’ induced job flexibility. Among all Polish workers, 31.6% work shifts. This percentage is among the highest in Europe. The EU average of shift workers as a percentage of all employment equals only to 18% (European Commission, 2013). These atypical working patterns may have an adverse impact on employees’ satisfaction from work-life balance (Eurofund, 2012). Additionally, Poland is characterized by highest in Europe percentage of temporary contracts (26.8% compared to EU average of 13.8%) (European Commission, 2013) and high job and employment insecurity (Dixon, Fullerton, & Robertson, 2013). Although the unemployment rate (10.5%) is not exceptionally high in comparison to other European countries, the unemployment among youth (15-24) is substantially higher than the OECD average (26.5% and 16.2% in 2012, respectively) (OECD, 2012). These factors may force, especially young people, to focus on professional life and neglect personal life.

Knowledge Workers and ICT Usage

In majority of the European countries, the amount of time spent at work increases together with earnings (Guest, 2002; OECD, 2011). Also, the probability of facing work-life balance problems grows together with the educational status (OECD, 2011; Pichler, 2008). One of the occupational groups that reports the most problems with WLB are managers and some groups of professionals (Ford & Collinson, 2011; Guest, 2002; Shanafelt et al., 2012). This suggests that a cluster, which is exposed the most to the work-family conflict are highly educated workers, on well-paid top occupations. These characteristics are specific for knowledge workers. For them, the boundary between the two spheres are even more blurry, also because of the solutions brought by ICTs, that allow the workers to work from any place and communicate for work matters at any time, in other words be constantly bounded to the work milieu. The growing body of research shows that use of ICTs, even though may enhance the work performance, has significant adverse impact on the time devoted to family and the quality of this time (Boswell & Olson-Buchanan, 2007; Currie & Eveline, 2010). This study aims to shed a light on patterns of work-family balance among Polish knowledge workers and the factors impacting it, including the use of ICTs at home for work.

To analyze the work-family balance in the context of knowledge economy, it is crucial to establish a definition of a knowledge worker. However, a unique or straightforward definition of a knowledge worker does not exist. An occupational approach

defines knowledge workers as "professional, managerial and technical people" (Drucker, 1993). Another way to define knowledge workers is to specify the content of their job, i.e. describe them as individuals whose work requires high levels of creativity, intellectual skills and theoretical rather than purely contextual knowledge (Warhurst & Thompson, 2006). However, this type of conceptualization is difficult to operationalize due to scarcity of the data about the actual character of the activities individuals carry out at work. For that reason the occupation-based approach, closer to Drucker's definition of knowledge workers, is often used to operationalize this concept. According to this classification knowledge workers are persons who work in the International Standard Classification of Occupations (ISCO) top three occupational classifications (managers, professionals, associate professionals) (International Labour Organization, 2010), have high level skills indicated by higher education or equivalent qualifications and perform tasks that require expert thinking and complex communication skills with the assistance of computers (Brinkley, 2006). The categories are not exclusive and may overlap. This occupation-based classification, as well as education-based classification is vulnerable to mistakes, as many of the workers that would be included in these categories usually would not be regarded as knowledge workers (i.e. managers of small firms, higher education graduates not working in the knowledge sector etc.). The way to minimise the error margin is to classify persons as knowledge workers if and only if they fulfil all three of the above-mentioned classification conditions.

The advantage of this way of using the occupation-based approach together with education-based approach is that it is a standard, used in most of the studies, as well as in the macro-level accounts. Thus, applying the three above-mentioned conditions in the study will allow its results to be comparable with outcomes of other studies of similar interest. This is why we have decided to use this standard for defining knowledge workers group.

Methodology

To analyze the work-family balance of knowledge workers, data from the Social Diagnosis 2013 (Rada Monitoringu Społecznego, 2013) are used. The dataset comprises a large number of cases and many relevant variables. However, the variables measuring work-family balance per se are not present in the dataset (also the time use variables measuring "family time" and variables measuring work-family interaction are missing). Yet, other widely available surveys that include the question about the work-family conflict, e.g. European Working Conditions Survey (EWCS), include a relatively small number of cases from Polish individuals with marginally small number of knowledge workers among them. For this reason another approach has been taken. Namely, a causal relationship between problems in family sphere and work sphere, time devoted to work and working from home with use of ICTs has been modeled.

The main objective of the research is to investigate if an extended work dimension may harm quality of family life. Particularly, the aim of the study is to test the following hypotheses:

- H1 Family problems are more probable among workers who work long hours.
- H2 The adverse impact of working long hours can be mitigated by the work perception (workaholics report less family problems than overworkers)
- H3 Family problems are negatively influenced by the extensive use of ICTs at home for professional reasons.

As mentioned before, the work-family balance has been widely empirically analyzed. However, this study is run on a specific group, namely knowledge workers from Poland. So far the majority of the empirical research dealing with the work-family balance, especially in the context of knowledge economy, focused on the western countries. However, the knowledge sector in the CEEs, including Poland, is growing faster than in the western Europe (European Commission, 2012), thus the insight about the quality of life of this groups is also needed. The results for this group may be significantly different from the results obtained in the previous studies.

The usually taken approach is either to investigate the subjective perception of the hegemony of the work dimension, or to focus on objective measures, normally expressed by the number of hours spent on work. In this analysis the two approaches are combined to investigate the joint impact of subjective perception of the work sphere (i.e. self-reported work problems) and the time spent at work. The hypothesis H2 (H2: The adverse impact of working long hours can be moderated by the work perception) suggests that relation of long working hours on family life is ambiguous and changes depending on the work perception.

Data Description

Social Diagnosis Project - Description of the Sample

The analysis employs secondary data from the project *Social Diagnosis 2013*. (Rada Monitoringu Społecznego, 2013). The Social Diagnosis project, initiated in the year 2000, is a diagnosis of the conditions and quality of life of the Poles. The dataset from year 2013 is the latest wave of the panel comprising seven waves.

The Social Diagnosis dataset contains vast amounts of data, coming from a large and representative sample. The data have been collected by Polish Central Statistical Office. The two-stage stratified sampling has been applied to find households that took part in the survey. Firstly, households have been stratified by voivodeships and then within voivodeships, by the size of agglomeration. The first stage sampling units were statistical regions (covering at least 250 apartments), and rural strata statistic circuits. In the second stage two flats were drawn systematically from a randomly ordered list of apartments, independently within each of the layers formed in the first stage of sampling. The appropriate weights, calculated with the use of set of variables (household size, voivodeship, rural or urban area of living, gender and age group) are provided for the sample to make it representative on the national level (Czapiński & Panek, 2013). The weights are used throughout the presented analysis.

The research is focused on the specific subgroup of the population – knowledge workers. The group of the rest of the workers (excluding farmers) is used for comparison. The subgroup of interest has been separated from the whole sample in two steps. First, all the individuals that have a job were selected with help of four variables: Any paid work (or a helper without pay in the family business) performed during the last 7 days; An employee, a self-employed person or a helper without pay in the family business, but has temporarily not performed his/her work during last 7 days; Main source of income; Secondary source of income.

The first two variables determine if an individual performs any job (paid or unpaid). The latter two help restraining the dataset to the observations from respondents who gain any profit from their work activities. In the second stage knowledge workers are retrieved from the dataset. Knowledge workers are found by their educational level, ISCO occupational classification and by the usage of ICTs for work or educational purposes.

According to the used operationalization of the concept of knowledge worker and given the mentioned variable-setting criteria, the persons who belong to the group of interest are individuals with higher education (Bachelor's degree or higher), working in the top three occupational classifications (according to the ISCO classification) – Managers, Professionals or Associate Professionals and use information and communication technologies for work. With the described criteria 2, 160 (22.7% of the all workers) knowledge workers were selected from the whole sample. The remaining 81.3% (7355) are the other workers.

Another condition set on the analyzed group is having a family. The family is understood as at least having a spouse or a partner. Consequently, the sample has been further reduced by excluding all the single workers. There are 1, 503 cases of knowledge workers comprising given criteria. After reducing the incomplete cases, 1, 457 observations have been used. There were 5, 955 of other workers remaining in the analysis

Family Problems Index

The family problem index is the dependent variable used in the causal model. The measure has been constructed using nine variables denoting self-reported issues associated with marriage, children and elderly relatives and one item related with the problems in marriage, reported by the partner. Namely, there are three variables denoting issues within marriage:

- Expectations of spouse so high, impossible to meet them;
- Spouse spends shared money in a careless manner;
- Problems of spouse worries and makes life harder.

The record of the latter has been also taken from the spouse of the individual. Another group of familial variables are ones associated with issues with children:

- Having to hear complaints about one's children from others;
- Financial costs due to action of children;
- Children ignore and reject one's help and advice;
- Feeling one loses control over/ influence on children.

The last group of family-related variables deals with the worries over elderly family members:

- Feeling responsible for care and well-being of parents or elderly relatives;
- Feeling worried about physical and mental health of parents or elderly relatives

All of these indicators could take one of four levels:

- 1 Often;
- 2 Once or twice;
- 3 Never;
- 4 Not applicable.

The two latter levels have been equalized. Another solution would be to exclude from the analysis the individuals who do not have children. However, the family problems proxy is to measure a spectrum of family issues an individual is faced with. A person without children will not report any children-related problems, which means she or he is not struggling with as many problems as a person with children. For this reason a control measure – number of dependent children has been included in the model instead of restricting the sample to the couples with children.

The results for each individual within the family-related indicators have been summed up. Subsequently, a dichotomous variable "family problems" has been constructed, using mean of the mentioned sum as a cut-off point. As presented in Table 2, according to the binary indicator, 49.3% (nkw=744) of the knowledge workers and 41.1% (now=2472) of the other workers is struggling with family problems

Work-Related Measures

The study is focused on finding relation between the working dimension of an individual and the imbalance in familial life. Three different work-related measures have been used in the article: work-related problems, working time and the Internet use at home for professional reasons. To construct work-related problems variable, three indicators were used:

- Feeling that the job is tiresome, dirty and dangerous;
- Overload of duties hard to cope with;
- Being treated unjustly by other at work.

Similarly as in the family-related variables, measures could take one of four values: "Often"; "Once or twice"; "Never"; "Not applicable". Also in this case, level "Not applicable" has been aggregated together with "Never", as it is assumed that there are kinds of workers to whom the situations described by the variables do not apply. Also, in the case of the work problems indicators, the scores have been summed up. Afterwards, a binary measure has been constructed on the basis of the mean of the resulting sum. In the analyzed sample, 37.8% (now=2237) of the other workers and 32.0% (nkw=460) of the knowledge workers report work problems (Table 2).

To capture the joint impact of the long working hours and feelings about the work, a new variable has been derived. The variable "worker type" has four levels "Carefree workers" – workers who do not report problems at work and work on average 45 hours a week or less, "Frustrated workers" – workers who report problems at work and work on average 45 hours a week or less, "Workaholic" – workers who do not report problems at work and work on average more than 45 hours a week, and "Overworkers" – workers who report problems at work and work on average more than 45 hours a week, presented in Table 1. As this variable is used in the model, the variable work-related problems has been removed due to partial collinearity. The 15.5% of analyzed other workers are workaholics (now=942), 25.3% are frustrated workers (now=1500) and 12.5% are overworkers (now=737). Among the group of the knowledge worker, there are 11.2% workaholics (nkw=159), 8.4% overworkers (nkw=116) and 23.7% frustrated workers (nkw=344).

The measure denoting time spent on work is a continuous variable measuring how many hours on average a person works during a week. On average knowledge workers work slightly less than other workers (Xkw=40, SDkw=10 and Xow=42, SDow=11, respectively). Apart from that, a variable denoting managerial position has been included in the model as a control variable. It has been empirically proven that the persons especially exposed to work-related stress, burnout and work-family conflict are individuals with managerial position (Ford & Collinson, 2011).

The last of the work-related variables is the use of the Internet and electronic mail at home for professional reasons. It is an ordered variable with three levels: "Never", "Ever" and "In the last week". Knowledge workers use new technologies to work at home out of their normal working hours much more often than the other workers. Almost 48% (nkw=687) of the

respondents from the knowledge workers group stated they had used ICTs for professional reasons no longer than a week before the survey, whereas only 15% (now=772) of the other workers admitted to use these technologies as frequently.

Apart from the work-related variables, the control variables: sex, age and number of dependent children have been included in the model. Females in general suffer from higher work-to family conflict, as they usually are responsible for majority of the duties at home (Eurofund, 2013). The family problems variable includes problems with children, therefore the suspicion that having children would increase the risk of having family problems. Also, the age squared has been added to the model. There is some indication in the literature showing there is a u-shaped relation between age and well-being (Blanchflower & Oswald, 2008) and directly between age and satisfaction from work-life balance (Allen et al., 2012). The distribution of persons with family problems across the age groups (Figure 1) in the used sample, suggest there is a bell-shaped relation between family problems and age.

Model & Results

To test the hypotheses H1-H3, the two logistic models, separate for the groups of knowledge workers and other workers have been estimated. Both of them are statistically significant, according to the Omnibus test ($\chi^2_{ow}(12)=680.128$, $p<0.001$, $\chi^2_{kw}(11)=278.803$, $p<0.00$). The models results, together with the odds ratios (OR) are presented in the Table 3.

The coefficients of the control variables have in general been consistent with the expectations. The female other workers turned out to be more exposed to the family problems than males (ORow=1.459, $p<0.001$). In the case of knowledge workers, sex has turned out to be an insignificant factor in the model of familial problems. In the both groups, it has been shown that there is a bell-shaped relationship between family problems and age. In the both groups, having children increased the odds of having problems in family, by one fifth with every child in the case of other workers and by half in the case of knowledge workers (ORow=1.222, $p<0.001$; ORkw=1.508, $p<0.001$). The managerial position turned out to be an insignificant factor in both groups.

As suspected, using ICTs at home for professional reasons increases risk of family problems. In the case of knowledge workers, the higher the frequency, the greater were the odds of having family problems (ORkw=1.552, $p<0.001$, if individual ever used the Internet or e-mail at home for work reasons and ORkw=1.791, $p<0.001$, if he did so not earlier than one week prior to the survey). Also in the case of the other workers, using ICTs at home for work increases the risk of having problems in family, yet it does not grow linearly. The odds increase by half for other workers who have done so at least once (ORow=1.509, $p<0.001$). Yet, it grows by slightly less -0.369 (ORow=1.369, $p<0.001$) for persons who assumingly do it more frequently, comparing to the individuals who never use ICT at home for work. In the case of other workers, the model has shown that not using Internet slightly decreases the odds of having family problems, yet the result is not significant at the confidence level of 95% (ORow=0.881, $p=0.076$).

As hypothesized, not only working hours and having working problems, but also interaction between these two variables influences the family life. In the case of other workers, being "workaholic" is not significantly different from being the "carefree worker". In other words, the long working hours do not have an adverse impact on individuals from this group provided he or she does not has work problems. On the other hand, other workers who reported the work-related problems are at a significantly higher risk of facing family problems. Also, in this case, the difference between "frustrated workers" and "overworkers" is much bigger (ORow=2.797, $p<0.001$ and ORow=4.061, $p<0.001$, respectively). It shows that in the situation when the work is problematic for an individual, the long working hours strengthen the adverse impact on the family life.

In the case of knowledge workers, "workaholics" are at more risk of having family problems than "carefree workers" (ORkw=2.871, $p<0.001$). It means that for this group, unlike for other workers, the prolonged working time has an adverse impact on the family life even when an individual does not report work problems. Also in this case, the impact decreases with the working time.

The "frustrated workers" and the "overworkers" have even higher odds of having problems in family life (ORkw=3.689, $p<0.001$ and ORow=3.785, $p<0.001$, respectively). In comparison with the group of the other workers, the difference in odds between the "carefree workers" and the "frustrated workers" is much higher. On the other hand, unlike in the case of the other workers, among knowledge workers there is a small difference in the strength of the impact between the "frustrated" and the "overworkers". In fact, taking into account that the difference diminishes together with the working time (ORkw=0.976, $p<0.001$), in most situations, the group of frustrated knowledge workers is more likely to struggle with family problems.

Conclusions

The hypothesis H1 (H1: Family problems are more probable among workers who work long hours) has not been confirmed. Especially in the case of the knowledge workers the influence of working time is ambiguous. Whereas the "workaholics" are more likely to struggle with familial problems than the "carefree workers", the "overworkers" are in most cases less likely to have family problems than "frustrated workers".

The second hypothesis (H2: The adverse impact of working long hours can be moderated by the work perception) has been confirmed. In both cases, persons with no work problems, who work the same number of hours, have less family problems. In the case of other workers, when the individuals do not report work problems, the long working hours do not increase the probability of having the work problems. In fact, the risk slightly decreases with each additional hour worked. In this group, "workaholics" – persons who work long hours, but assumedly do so from their own choice, are much less likely to experience family problems than the "overworkers" – assumedly the group, on whom the long working hours are imposed. In fact, in terms of family problems, there is no statistically significant difference between the "workaholics" and the "carefree workers". Thus, one can conclude, that working long by choice is a form of balancing between work and home. However, to draw a definite conclusion, the analysis should be complemented by the model focused solely on the reports of the significant others who are often affected by the working schedule of the "workaholics". Also in the case of the knowledge workers, the "workaholics" are much less likely to have family problems than the "overworkers".

In the both groups the third hypothesis (H3: Family problems are negatively influenced by the extensive use of ICTs at home for professional reasons.) has been confirmed. The result replicates outcomes of previous studies which show the possibility of working from any place, including home, brought by emergence of ICTs, may be advantageous for the job performance, but it also is likely to be harmful for the family life of an individual.

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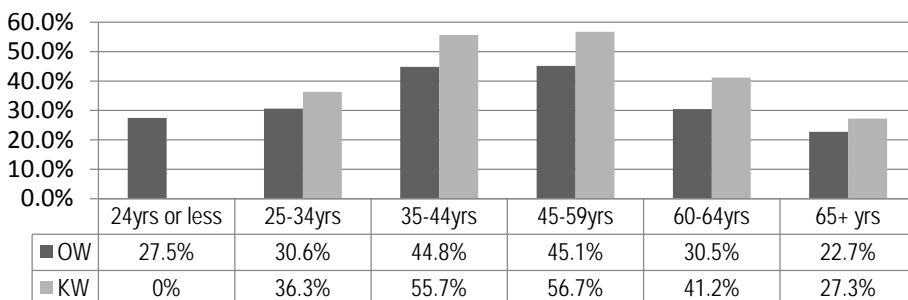
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Figures

Fig 1 The Percentage of the Persons with Family Problems Among Six Age Groups (Separately For Knowledge Workers and Other Workers)



Tables

Table 1. Presentation of the Variable "Worker Type"

	Working Time	
	45h or less	More than 45h
No Work Problems	"Carefree" workers	Workaholics
Work Problems	"Frustrated" workers	Overworkers

Table 2. Characteristics of the Sample Separately For Knowledge Workers and Other Workers.

	Other worker				Knowledge worker			
	X	SD	N	Col %	X	SD	N	Col %
AGE	44	10			40	9		
CHILDREN	1.20	1.11			1.15	.91		
W_HOURS	42	11			40	10		
SEX	MALE		3412	59.8%			559	41.3%
	FEMALE		2543	40.2%			898	58.7%
MANAGER			488	9.2%			384	25.9%
W_PROBLEMS			2237	37.8%			460	32.0%
F_PROBLEMS			2472	41.1%			744	49.3%
F_PROBLEMS (SPOUSE)			2728	46.2%			688	45.6%
WORKER_TYPE	CAREFREE		2776	46.7%			838	56.8%
	WORKAHOLIC		942	15.5%			159	11.2%
	FRUSTRATED		1500	25.3%			344	23.7%
	OVERWORKER		737	12.5%			116	8.4%
ICT_HOME	NEVER		2205	38.2%			241	13.8%
	EVER		907	18.4%			529	38.5%
	LAST WEEK		772	15.0%			687	47.7%
	NO INTERNET		2071	28.4%			0	0.0%

X – mean; SD – standard deviation;

N – unweighted count; Col %, - column percentage (weighted).

Table 3. Results of The Logit Models For The Predictors of Self-Reported and Spouse-Reported Family Problems (Results for Knowledge Workers and Other Workers)

	Other Worker	Knowledge Worker
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	Est.	SE	OR	Est.	SE	OR
FEMALE	0.378***	0.058	1.459	0.135	0.106	1.145
AGE	0.222***	0.026	1.261	0.204***	0.047	1.226
AGE2	-0.002***	0.000	0.998	-0.002***	0.001	0.998
CHILDREN	0.201***	0.028	1.222	0.411***	0.062	1.508
W_HOURS	-0.011***	0.004	0.989	-0.015***	0.118	0.976
MANAGER	0.024	0.097	1.025	-0.024	0.118	0.980
ICT EVER	0.411***	0.079	1.509	0.439***	0.159	1.552
ICT LAST WEEK	0.314***	0.084	1.369	0.583***	0.157	1.791
NO INTERNET	-0.126*	0.071	0.881			
WORKAHOLIC	0.143	0.103	1.154	1.055***	0.194	2.871
FRUSTRATED	1.028***	0.067	2.797	1.305***	0.124	3.689
OVERWORKER	1.402***	0.108	4.061	1.331***	0.216	3.785
Constant	-6.307***	0.560	0.002	-5.780***	1.001	0.003
N	5,955			1,457		
Log Likelihood	7,715.265			2,372.472		
Akaike Inf. Crit.	4588.506			2,252.500		

*p<0.1; **p<0.05; ***p<0.01

n.s. – non-significant; Est. - estimate; SE – standard error; OR – odds ratio

Utilization Of Solar Energy For An Ecological Tourism In The Region Of Durrës In Albania

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Abstract

This study involves the use of vacuum tubes collector with solar power for heating water for sanitary needs of hotels in the region of Durrës in Albania. Renewable energy resources exist over wide geographical areas, in contrast to other energy sources, which are concentrated in a limited number of countries. Solar energy is a renewable source of energy in our country because Albania belongs to a sub-tropical zone, so it has relatively high levels of solar radiation during the year. The lowlands in the western part of the country have the highest values of irradiation and can produce 139 kWh/m² electricity monthly. Durrës region is characterized by a Mediterranean climate where the average air annual temperature is 16°C and enters in the area with a high solar radiation with an average 2026 h/y. Solar energy is clean, reliable and renewable source of electricity and it does not pollute the air by releasing harmful gases like carbon dioxide, nitrogen oxide and sulphur oxide. For this study are obtained tourism hotels in the coastal area of Durrës with a high level of solar intensity, by calculating the cost for heating water using an electric boiler (traditional method) and a solar panel. In the study is selected the collector with vacuum tubes for heating water, which constitutes a new technology with an efficiency 40% higher than other types. Results show a significant reduction of annual expenses up 3 times, compared with the use of electricity. The results obtained will serve to sensitize residents of the area of Durrës, for the necessity of using solar energy for hot water in residential buildings, where there is sun and the possibility of placing the solar panel. Use of solar panels can also be done in many apartments, which have balcony oriented from the south.

Keywords: Renewable energy, solar panel, solar radiation, efficiency.

Introduction

Albania has favorable conditions for development of solar energy. Albania's solar radiation is calculated at more than 1,500 kWh/m²/yr. The average daily solar radiation is about 4.1 kWh/m², reaching more than 4.6 kWh/m² in the south-western part of the country. The country has an average about 2,400 hours of sunshine per year, 2,500 hours in the western part and a record of about 2,850 hours in certain locations. Albania is considered as a country with a better mode of solar energy with high potential of solar radiation. As a country with over 245 day solar radiation intensity, Albania guarantees efficient use of renewable solar energy by significantly reducing the cost of electricity consumption in homes, hotels, service facilities etc. The using solar panels for hot water has years that is started, mainly in villas and tourist hotels in coastal and low areas.

Durrës district is one of 36 districts of Albania with 242,801 inhabitants, an area of 433 km² and an average height of 2-6 m above sea level. The city occupies the western part with coordinates 41°18'40' north latitude to 19°26' and 21' east longitude with 1,626 ha. The table 1 shows the daily average solar radiation (in kJ/m²) and the table 2 shows sunshine hours according to measuring stations in Durres area.

Studies and applications of recent years¹ show that using renewable energy sources of solar, wind and hydro and geothermal, the reliance on fossil fuels can be minimized, leading directly reducing CO₂ emissions. So on average for every kWh of energy produced from a coal power plant, is produced 1 kg CO₂. Combustion of natural gas for electricity production or water heating produces about 450 G CO₂ for every kWh energy produced. By installing solar panels for water

¹ <http://www.meidasolar.com/service.asp?keyno=113>

heating can provide 50-70% of energy needs for hot water and it can reduce CO2 emissions more than 20%. The use of solar panels provides electricity saving, environmental protection and results with economic benefit in the housing sector and services. For this purpose, it is taken in study the coastal area of Durrës, as the tourist area filled with hotels and private experiences are more numerous than in other areas of Albania.

Below are analyzed the solar panels used today, in terms of effectiveness, to choose the most effective type. The effectiveness of the use of solar panels in an average hotel resort is relatively treated with electricity for water heating. This study takes into account only tourist hotels in Durrës.

Methods and Materials

The study includes 50 hotels with a capacity of about 1600 rooms equipped with shower baths, and a total 60 coffee bars and 60 restaurants. In fact hotels range from the largest with 70 rooms equipped with bathrooms and other fixtures as 2 coffee bars, a restaurant, a night club and a sauna (Hotel "Adriatic"), to the little ones with 12 rooms (Hotel "Ani ") with a coffee bar and a restaurant. The existing hotels are with 3 to 6 floors, with 1 or 2 coffee bar and 1 or 2 restaurants, but there is too with 7 floors and a ground floor area up to 1000 m² (Hotel "Dolce Vita"). The average number of rooms results to be 32 for a hotel and 1.2 coffee bar and restaurants. It is taken to an average hotel, with all double rooms equipped with showers with hot water, while at the ground floor there is a coffee bar, a restaurant and the reception.

In this study is used the traditional system, the establishment of an electrical boiler in each bathroom. For all the hotel are planned: 32 boilers and 4 boiler for coffee bar, restaurant etc. So should be 36 electrical boiler with capacity of 80 liters and 2 kWh electricity power each. At the under hand is taken into consideration the use of the solar panel with vacuum tubes, as the model with higher effectiveness. The size of the collector is determined by absorber surface formed by vacuum tubes. The absorber surface for vacuum tubes is given by size of the tubes as follows [8]: For tubes with dimensions 58mmx1800mm have $S = 0.08\text{m}^2$ per tube. Collectors are standardized with 12, 18, 24, 30, 36, 48 and 60 tubes, which correspond to the respective boilers with hot water capacity 100L, 150L, 200L, 250L, 300L, 400L and 500L. Capacity over 300 L used for hotels.

Procedure

Energy for water heating in Durrës hotels

The effectiveness of providing hot water is calculated by analyzing two methods: 1.heating water using electricity with electric boilers and 2.heating water using solar panels with vacuum tubes. Average annual costs for heating water are calculated for each variant considering that all the hotel rooms are in operation. Also are estimated reductions of carbon dioxide emissions as result of solar panels for water heating and annual operating costs for electric heating and solar panels.

Heating water with an electric boiler

The need for a person must be 58 liters of warm water with 42°C - 45°C in the day. By assuming that all the hotel rooms are doubles, and consumption of hot water at the bar and restaurant is the same with room boilers, in total with losses of water for all the hotel have to be about 3600 liters per day. Assuming that the people in the hotel shower for the day is done, we can assume that the energy values for a boiler with all anticipated losses, amounts to 120 kWh/month. Consumed electricity for the entire hotel is 4320 kWh/month and for all hotels in the area of Durrës, 21600 kWh/month.

Heating water using solar panels

Having received an average difference of water temperatures at the entrance and exit about 30 °C, the number of vacuum tubes, required for water heating is determined:

$$N = k \text{ AED (BF) / S}$$

where: k is the coefficient, that gives the amount of solar energy, which have to heat one liter of water, which depends on the level of solar technology and hydraulic losses in the Network. Thus the total number of pipes for heating 3,600 liters of water, calculated in months, given in figure 2.

¹ Albania online travel Agency: www.edialtour.com

The average number of pipes to realize water heating, results 472 tubes. With reserve (for January and December is used and an electric heater, if the hotel rooms are all in place), are chosen collectors with 60 tubes with boiler 500 liters.

In this case the thermo-hydraulic scheme requires, that in the roof of average hotel it is placed 8 sets of collector with 480 tubes with a total area of 38.4 m². The total capacity of hot water boilers is 4000 liters. The time of depreciation of equipment and solar panels is greater than 15 years.

The energy amount produced by solar panels for water heating in kWh is calculated: $W = K \text{ EDS}$

where: K- is the average coefficient that determines the amount of energy equivalent to heating the water with one m² area solar panel, which depends on the level of solar technology and hydraulic losses in network. For hotel taken as example, the amount of daily and monthly energy generated from solar panels by months of the year, is given in figure 3. The average amount of daily energy saving for this hotel would be 120 kWh/day or 3600 kWh/month. For all tourist hotels in the Durrës area it will assure an electrical energy saving in the about 6000 kWh/day, or 30, 000 kWh/month.

Reducing carbon dioxide emissions

For hotel takes into consideration, the reduction of CO₂ gas is calculated by the given method¹, by months of the year (figure 4). The graph shows that the maximum amount of reducing gas CO₂ occurs during the summer months, when it is the tourism season, providing a significant reduction of environmental pollution from gas CO₂ to an average 48 kg/month and during the summer months to 55 kg. The average value of the amount of CO₂ gas will be 576 kg/year, only for this hotel.

Average annual cost analysis

Average annual expenditures are made by calculating for 10 years, for each option the costs for:

Initial investment of installing,

Expenses incurred during the annual usage,

Maintenance of installation

For heating systems with an electric boiler, investments for a bath go to 200 Euro, and the total for all hotel 7200 Euro (figure 5). The period of amortization for the hydraulic system and boiler goes up to 8 years. In expenses incurred during the annual usage, it is included the cost of electricity for 10 years. Electricity costs will be 432 Euro/month, acknowledging the current price of energy about 0.1 Euro/Wh. In maintaining of installation it is included changes of electric boilers and repairs of the tubes.

For systems with solar panels, all investments with fixing² will be: $8 \times 5100 = 40,800$ Euro, spending the use is free (solar energy). In maintaining of the installation it is included the change of broken pipe, and any faulty electrical equipment, which are too small.

Results

Results (figure 5) show that initial investment for electric heating is small, while for solar heating is 3 times larger. For electric heating annual operating costs are higher, while for solar panels are very small.

In conclusion we see that the annual average cost for 10 years to water heating with electric side is 3 times larger than it received through the use of solar panels. This coincides with the data of special literature, that the energy consumed for heating of 100 liters of water through solar panels with vacuum tubes, is 3.5 times smaller compared to electric heating. While it is noted that initial investment of solar panels can be deleted after 3 years. For all tourist hotels in Durrës area, we have a reduction of gas CO₂, to 240 kg/month, or 2880 kg CO₂/year, providing a major contribution in reducing global warming and in climate regulation.

¹ <http://www.meidasolar.com/service.asp?keyno=113>

² Multi Force shpk; multiforce_tirana@yahoo.com

Acknowledgments

The first parameter that must be defined to perform this study, is the demand for energy providing hot water for a typical day and it is calculated by formula 1:

$$E \text{ daily demand} = N \text{ people} \times V_{\text{warm water}} \times C_{\text{thermal capacity}} \times (T_0 \text{ output} - T_0 \text{ input}) \quad (1)$$

Monthly demand for energy for providing hot water is calculated from the formula 2:

$$E \text{ monthly demand} = N \text{ days} \times E_{\text{daily demand}} \quad (2)$$

Annual demand for energy for providing hot water is calculated from the formula 3:

$$E \text{ annual demand} = \sum E \text{ monthly demand} \quad (3)$$

Power supply for the provision of hot water per month is calculated according to the formula 4:

$$E \text{ monthly supply} = N \text{ days} \times I \text{ solar radiation} \times A \text{ solar panel} \times E \text{ effic. of system} \quad (4)$$

where:

N days = The number of days under each respective month

I solar radiation = Average daily solar radiation [kJ/m², day]

A solar panel = Surface solar water heating

E effic. of system = System efficiency solar water heating

Power supply for the provision of hot water per year is calculated according to the formula 5:

$$E \text{ annual supply} = \sum E \text{ monthly supply} \quad (5)$$

According to a study by ERE1, water heating in albanian households is with electricity. The average value of consumed energy for a family is 58 kwh/ month or 19% of all electricity consumed.

The burning of fossil fuels like coal to produce electricity and gas or diesel for water heating release large amounts of CO₂ in the atmosphere, but the use of solar panels for water heating also contributes to reducing environmental pollution.

On rainy days or overcast dense, the energy production will be reduced greatly. In determining the size of solar collectors needed to provide hot water should be given this information [7]:

A - daily needs for hot water

B - water temperature at the outlet

C - area of the installation of solar panel

D - maximum monthly solar level

E - average efficiency of solar collector in the maximum radiation

F - water temperature at the entrance

G - specific heat in kal/kg oC

Level of solar radiation is given available from the site of the sun. Maximum and minimum levels should be taken into account throughout the year, as well as the annual average value. Specifically in the area of Durrës, the level of solar radiation measured [5] in kwh/m², is presented in figure 1.

Temperature of hot water should usually be around 42oC to 45°C. Cold water temperature is usually in the soft regions varies from 10oC in winter to 20oC in summer. Besides the above used factors it should also be taken into account the optimum installation angle, which must be: 20-70° Vertical, -5 to +5° horizontal, the installation required site of the collector in the roof and part of days without sun, which makes that for the month to be taken 28 days and for year 336 days. Average

¹ Energy Regulatory Office; ; www.ere.gov.al

loss coefficient taken $0.8W/m^2 OC$, while the average efficiency of the absorber solar energy is taken $0.8-0.92$. Recognizing the latitude for the area of Durrës, referring collector tilt versus horizontal [6] it is fixed degrees of tilt of collectors.

Discussion

Solar panels with vacuum tubes, have an absorption efficiency of solar energy 40% greater than panels with mirrors and it does not depend on incline of the radius sun.

The using of solar panels systems with vacuum tubes to provide hot water in tourist hotels in Durrës area, lead to a saving of electricity and the total expenditure up to 3 times.

Using the vacuum collector tubes can also be used in apartments which have a balcony from the face of the sun and is very efficient for providing of sanitary hot water, saving energy and costs up to 3 times.

Central and local government in our country, should set rules to force the introduction of new technologies of using solar energy in the design phase of villas, hotels and buildings in coastal and low areas.

The use of solar energy by businesses or consumers reduces household electricity bills that is spent on heating water to the extent of 30%.

By replacing an electric water heater with a solar water heater, can reduced greenhouse gas emissions up to 3 tonnes a year, contributing to environmental protection.

These systems are usually located on rooftops and provide higher security by eliminating the risk of accidents due to electric water heating equipment.

The high potential of solar radiation and favorable geographical position is a possibility that nature provides for the use of solar energy to produce hot water for sanitary needs and electrical energy.

Measures for the use of solar energy, are investments in the right direction, and contribute directly to long-term sustainable development and the reduction of energy consumption costs.

This study will serve as an incentive for increased use of solar thermal panels for hot water because their use is currently in the very low range.

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Appendices

Table 1 Daily average solar radiation in (kJ/m²)¹

¹ <http://aea-al.org/wp-content/.../04/RENEWABLE-ENERGY-ALBANIA>

Month	Jan	Feb	March	April	May	June	July	August	Sept	Oct	Nov	Dec
Durrës	13205	13523	14347	17604	18637	20228	22277	23199	20305	17750	5347	14677

Table 2 Sunshine hours according to measuring stations

Hours with sun (h/year)

Year	1951-1960	1961-1970	1971-1980	1981-1990	Average, 1951-2005
Durrës	2666	2684	2717	2310	2595



Legend: The average annual radiation kWh/m2 sunshine

Source: Institute of Hydro Meteorology



Legend: Territorial distribution of hours of sunshine

Source: Institute of Hydro Meteorology

Figure 1. The level of solar radiation in the Durrës area

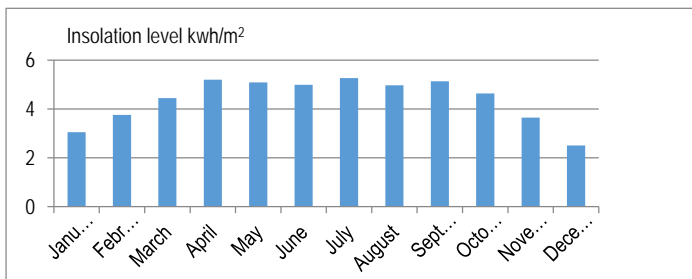


Figure 2. The number of vacuum tubes by months of the year

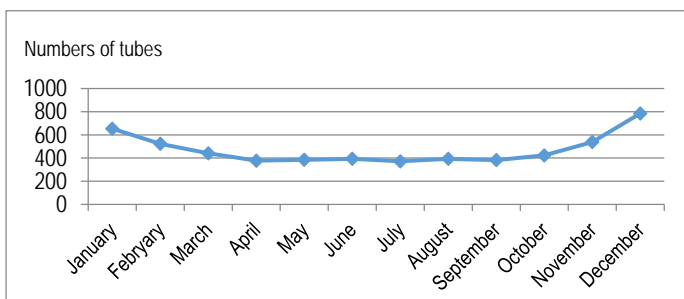


Figure 3. The amount of energy produced by solar panels

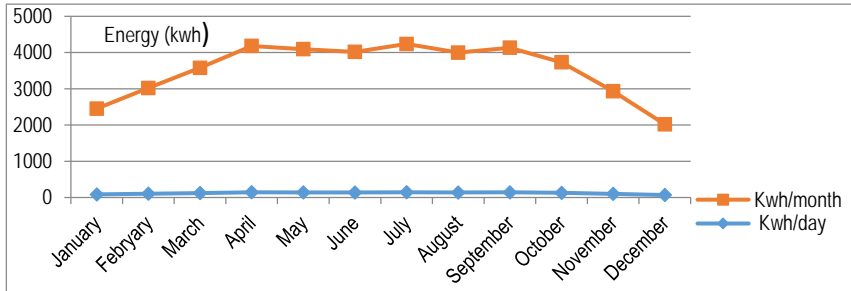


Figure 4. Reduction of CO2 gas during the year

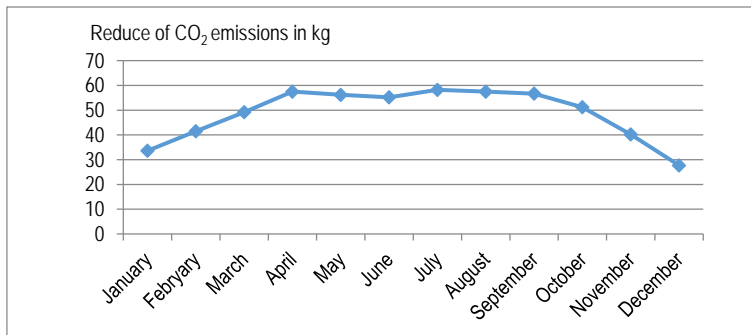
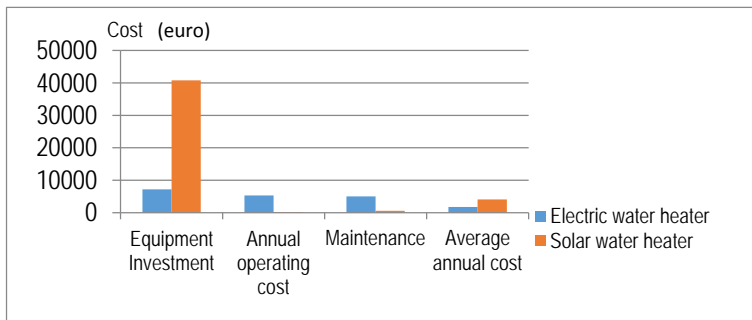


Figure 5. Expenditures for hot water with electric boiler and solar panels



Reflection of XI-XII century Turkic ethnographism in the dialects of the modern Turk and Azerbaijani languages

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Abstract

Language is the historical memory of a nation. The information that various historical-lexical layers of the language involve, indicates the past and the present, living style, the society and its layers which it shapes. One of these lexical layers is dialects. The fact of keeping features and characteristics of words in the process of turning to dialects while transferring from active dictionary to the passive one, make dialects the main source of both historical and modern literal language. Each dialect inculcates its conservatism and specific language features to new words. This tendency leads to the existence of the properties which are standardized or gradually lost, and also the properties that existed historically. The main role of dialects in historical development of the language emerges in the process of exploring ethnographic words. We can get precise information relating to XI-XII centuries' Turkic ethnographisms using dialects in contemporary languages. Besides saving historical meaning of words, in dialects, it is also observed creation of additional meanings. The word "ayak" used in the meaning of pot by XI-XII centuries' Turks, is noted using a "ya" "k" phonetic composition as bowl, glass in Uzbek language, in khami accent of Uygur language it is used as "wooden cup". In modern accents of Turkic language we can come across this word in both its meaning used in XI century, and also semantic version of Uzbek language. While using as "pan or basin" in the suburbs of Konya, Afyon provinces, it is also used as "bowl" in Istanbul-Yeniköy, in some villages of Tokat and Sivas "ayak" means "tea cup". In these accents "ayak" does not earn only ambiguity, but also homonymic. In the Compilation Dictionary of Turkic language 7 homonyms of "ayak" is accentuated. At the same time, the word of "ayakçu" which are used in meanings of copper basin in Gumushane region, is also derived from "ayak". According to V. Aslanov, "ayak" were massively used in Azerbaijani language until the end of XVII century, then was oppressed by Iranian synonyms and entered to the passive glossary of the language. Not all the XI-XII centuries' ethnographisms were survived in contemporary dialects. Some words continue existence approximate similarity of their meanings as a part of other words or phrases. For example, "agri" which is mentioned by Kashgari as "decorated silk cloth" is currently not used in its initial meaning. Based on the facts that in some villages of Afyon, Eskisehir and Ankara provinces the word of "ağı çalık" defines the name of the trousers that women wear, or "ağılı" means one of the cotton sorts in Afyon, we can come to this conclusion that all these words were formed on the semantic area of "agri". Consequently, in spite of the fact that ethnographism reflect so much ancient language layers, they continue their existence in dialects and they turn to the proof the historicity of the language and its dialects.

Keywords: Dialects, Turkic languages, Ethnographism, Words, semantic development

Introduction

Dialect is a limited territorial form of language. In other word, dialect is a form of communication, standing against literary language. Dialect is linguistic difference, characterized by a single language system. Historical-linguistic, socio-cultural and ethnic factors are the main factors for the formation of dialects.

Words can describe different historical-lexical periods of a language. The words reflect the way of life, the society in which they are used. It is surely that all these factors can't be reflected only in the literary level of a language. Because a literary language is a language which is formed according to a lot of norms and reflects the words used only by a part of a nation. As the literary language gradually renews itself a part of the literary language becomes archaically in the process of the development. While investigating the history of the literary language we face some obstacles which prevent the process of studying. The insufficient written sources, the limited usage of the meaning of the words in these sources are these kinds of difficulties. And dialects are the first sources which are referred to in such cases. "It's interesting that some simple or derivative words that have become archaic in the literary language are met in the dialects. While passing into the passive

vocabulary of a language words keep similar features and characteristic signs. This fact makes dialects the main source of both historical and modern literary languages. As E.Azizov noted:

«In relation to the development of the society and the language some words enter the lexicology of the dialects, later on some of which keep efficiency while some are forgotten and aren't used at all. But lexicology of the dialects are more conservative when comparing it with the literary one. Words belonged to the ancient times of the language are kept in the dialects much more.» (E.Azizov, 1995)

Some words showing the existence of the dialects and the period of the dialects' development form the idea of belonging these words to the same dialects. R. Gasimova also considering these ideas right notes:

"That is why we think the idea of belonging the words which were used in the ancient Turk monuments and which exist in the dialects to the very dialects but are in the passive vocabulary of the language right." (R.Gasimova, 2010)

But this idea has only unilateral character. Because while words pass from the dialects into a literary language the opposite process happens as a lot of words pass from a literary language into dialects.

Taking into consideration all these features of the dialects A.Damirchizadeh noted:

"As it is known, dialects preserve the traces, features of the tribes before the national language had been formed or after a national language was formed it became a branch of a national language. It keeps the features of a language which was defeated in the crossing and this language is kept as a language trace during some historical periods."

That is why it is important to compare written materials with materials of the dialects while investigating the history of any language, especially when some features found in the written sources of some periods are studied. Besides it, while some words, grammatical features, sounds, phonetical events which are not found in the modern national language while they or their traces can be met in the dialects.

Etnographisms in modern dialects

The main role of the dialects appears during investigating of the ethnographic words. It is connected with the reflection of ethnographic lexicology in the dialects. Detailed information of the ethnography of the XI-XII centuries can be achieved while referring to the dialects of the modern languages. Because not only the historical meaning of the words are kept in the dialects, but also the deriving of the additional meaning from them (from the dialects) are observed. For example, "ayran" given as a kind of soft drink in Mahmood Kashgarly's dictionary "Divan- luğat-it-türk", a XI century monument, preserves its historical meaning. However in Sivas, Tokat, Balikesir, Mugla, Aydin, Denizli dialects it means a painting substance or a liquid used in agriculture.

A word "ayaq" which means "qab-qacaq/ dishes" in the language of the XI-XII centuries Turks was noted as "piyalə/qədəh" in the Uzbek language in the "ayak" phonetical structure, "taxta fincan/a wooden cup" in Khamy dialect of the Uygur language. In the dialects of the modern Turkic languages this word can be met in the both meanings – in the meaning which was used in the XI century and in the meaning which was used in the Uzbek language. "ayak" used in the meaning tas/ around Afyon, Konya means "qədəh" in Istanbul. Yenikoy "çaystəkani" in some villages of Tokat and Sivas. "ayak" gained not only polisemantical but also omonymy in these languages. In the Dictionary of the Turk language "Derleme sözlüyü" 7 omonyms of word "ayak" were given. At the same time, "ayakci" in the meaning of "mis ləyən" used in Gumushhane district is a derivative form of "ayak". According to V.Aslanov's opinion this word was used till the end of the XVII century in the wide aspect in the Azerbaijan language but later was sıxışdırılmaq by the synonyms of Iranian origin and included into the passive vocabulary of the language. (Aslanov V., 2003)

"Etük" which means "shoes, boots" in M.Kashgarli's dictionary exists in the dialects of the modern Turk languages but with the different meaning. "etüklük sağrı/leather which is used to make shoe" and "etükçi" (K.B.) are used in the dialectics and related to this word (etük). In the dialects of the Uzbek language the word preserved its initial variant in the phonetical structure of "əğük-əgikç etiğ-ötüv-ötik-ötük".

In the form of phonetic variants "edik papuç, edik, etik" this word is used in the Turkic dialects and means "kəndli çəkməsi, uşaq ayaqqabısı, məst, yundan toxunan qısa corab, başmaq/a peasant's shoe, a child's shoe, slippers, woolen socks". The omonym of this word in Mugla district means "arıların ayğında toplanan sarı rəngli mum-a yellow substance which is gathered in the legs of the bees". Etnographism "etükçi" having the meaning of a profession and used in "Kutadğu Bilik" as "edikci" exists in Izmir Odemiş district in the meaning of a profession "pineci-a shoemaker". According to some specialists the usage of edük-etik-edik in Turk languages can be explained as the influence of the bulgar group.

The other entographism which was used by the Turks in the XI century and still exists in the modern Turkic dialects is "al". M.Kashgarli explained this word as "silk cloth with ornaments in an orange colour". This word is used in Tukic dialects in a more different meaning. In Isparta this word is used as "toylarda bəyin boynuna salınan qırmızı dəsmal /red cloth which is tied to the bride's arm" while in Burdur and Zonguldak dialects "al" means "gəlinlərin başına örtülən uzun qırmızı örtük, duvaq/ a long red covering for bride grooms".

In "Kutadgu Bilig" "belgü" and its derivatives "belgülük, belgü, belgür, belgürt" can be met. This word is used as "nişan, əlamət /a sign" in this work and can be studied as an ethnographism. Because in Turkic dialects "belgi" is used in the meaning of "nişan, hədəf/ aim" but it is used as "bəlgə" in the Azerbaijani dialects in different meaning. In Megri dialect two meanings of this word can be come across; 1) adaxlı qızın evinə aparılan xonça / a special present taken / sent to the fiancée; 2) boyaq üçün istifadə olunan xüsusi ağac növü/ a special kind of wood used for painting. Surely the first one of these meanings was formed by the derivative of the initial meaning and gaining of the new semantical sphere.

"Aguz" used as first milk of cow after birth in XI- XII centuries. In some of Azerbaijan dialects as Zaqatala, Qakh, Nukha, Agdash, Zerdab the word used as the same mean, and nation created a new mean of the word-«meal made from colostrum»

Not all the ethnographisms of the XI-XII centuries exist in the dialects. There are some words that exist in the tərkib of some expressions or in a similar meaning. For ex., M. Kashgarli's agi in the meaning of "bəzəkli ipək parça /silk ornaments cloth" and that was used in M. Kashgarli's work isn't used in the initial meaning in Azerbaijan and Turk dialects. But in some villages of Ayfon, Eskisehir, Ankara districts agicalik is used as a kind of clothes which women wear while working. In Shamkir dialect the ethnographism "ağ" means "wedge between the legs of trousers".- "Gədənin şalvarının ağı cırılıf, mərəkədə biyavır oluf"

"Agili" means a kind of cotton in Ayfon. As both the meanings are related to a dress we come into conclusion that these words were formed in the sphere of age word.

Result

As it has shown in this article, ethnographisms express the ancient period of the language they exist in the dialects and they become the evidence which shows the age of languages and dialects

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FRANCHISE CONTRACT AND GOOD FAITH

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Abstract

Franchise is a widespread business model in countries with developed economies. Although that in Albania there are few franchising relations, the Albanian Civil Code provides franchising as a contract. The franchise contract is a binding agreement where the franchiser grants the franchisee the right to use the trademark and the operating system of the franchiser, mutually fulfilling rights and duties derived by this contract. The most important duty of the franchiser is to make available to the franchisee a standardized set of immaterial rights, models, charts, profit, organization and trade ideas, and other appropriate knowledge for the development of trade. During the negotiations, the parties have to show each other the commercial affairs conditions dealing with the franchise agreement and the franchise obligations particular program. The information during the negotiations must be confidential and such must remain, even if the contract is not concluded. The Albanian Civil Code provides that in general during the contract negotiations, the parties must act in good faith towards each other. In case of franchise contract the good faith is specifically required by law, due to the fact that the parties normally provide each other with important and economical valuable information. The aim of this paper is to realize an overview of a new contract, as franchising and its importance in economic relations. This paper will clarify the Albanian legal provisions on franchise contract, the rights and duties of each party. It will be highlighted the role of good faith in negotiations, how the parties must act and the possibility to compensate potential damages. It is about one principle, the Good Faith Principle, that Civil Law jurisdiction and Common Law jurisdictions have generally two different approaches. The paper will show the changes in legal provisions of some European countries regarding good faith in franchise contracts.

Keywords: franchise contract, good faith, Civil Law, Common Law, negotiations

Introduction

Franchise is a widespread business model in countries with developed economies. It is considered as a business opportunity, a successful one. It had become popular from the mid of 20th century in North America. But the origin of franchise goes back to middle ages.

The word "franchise" derives from old French and means "privilege" or "freedom". In the middle ages a franchise was a privilege or a right and the local sovereign or lord would grant the right to hold markets of fairs, to operate the local ferry or to hunt in his land. (Rogerson, 2008) In essence, the sovereign gave an individual or group of individuals the monopoly rights over a particular activity in a particular location for a certain period of time. In most cases, the grantee was required to make a payment to the sovereign power for this right or privilege, usually in the form of a share of the product or profit. (Blair & Lafontaine, 2005)

The Singer Company, which produced sewing machines, created the concept of franchise business in 1850's. The Sewing Machine Combination became the first patent pool in the United States, dividing the distribution rights among the manufactures. The franchisees were granted worldwide right, territories, and exclusive rights to sell and service their machines. (Duening, Hisrich & Lechter, 2010)

Legislations all over the world have provisions to regulate franchise as a contract, as an economic relationship. Franchising, compared with other contracts, can be considered a new contract, but these last decades have shown an increasing use of it.

The current Albanian Civil Code, which entered in force in 1994, has specific provisions on realizing the franchise contract, although in Albania there are few cases of franchise. It is about regulating a binding agreement which is negotiated confidentially and in good faith.

The aim of this paper is to clarify this "new", atypical contract, its economic value, the manners and the behaviors of the parties. It is important to pay attention to franchise contract, according to the global trend of using it more often.

The paper will be realized divided into two main parts. In the first part of the paper it will be shown an overview of what the Albanian Civil Code provides on franchise contract. This part will be completed with brief descriptions about the legal regulations of the franchise contract by some European countries legislation and USA legislation, in order to show up the differences and to analyze them.

In the second part of the paper the attention will be focused on good faith, specifically required by law, during the negotiations of the franchise contract. The "duty" of good faith will be analyzed by taking in consideration the different approaches to this principle by Civil Law jurisdiction and Common Law jurisdictions. It will be put face to face some European countries legislations for understanding the value of Good Faith Principle in this kind of contract.

Franchise Contract

As an agreement that promises success, franchise is an economic relationship with mutual benefits, both for the franchisor and the franchisee. In the last decades the franchise relationship has become important as a business tool.

The principal ingredient in most franchise contracts is the franchisee's right to use a national brand name in exchange for a share of profits to the franchisor. (Mathewson & Winter, 1985)

The franchisee's advantage is quite clear: the use of a well known trademark and operating system of the franchisor. The franchisee benefits the support, the information, the experience and appropriate knowledge from the franchisor. The franchisee foresees that the business to be successful, as it has resulted to be such for the franchisor. So, there is less work to do, just to withstand and perform daily duties regarding the business. The customers are almost certain. The business is launched advantaged because of the national or international marketing, which this new business normally cannot afford.

The main benefits of the franchisor are the entry fee, as a fix amount of money related to the economic value and to the potential development of the system, which is paid by the franchisee and the royalty payment, set as a percentage of profits of the franchisee. There are moments of business development, when the franchisor may not be able to invest. So he uses his well known trademark and operating system, in order to expand nationally or internationally quickly and with less cost. The franchisor has the right to choose the franchisee, taking into consideration his qualification, but certainly the location where the franchise right will be used, which should constitute a geographical intention of the franchisor for further expansion.

The Albanian legislation provides the franchise relationship as a contract which contains a continuous obligation relationship to which independent enterprises are obliged to each other to jointly promote and develop trade and service delivery, implementing specific obligations. (The Albanian Civil Code, art. 1056)

The Italian Law 129 06.05.2004 "Rules on the regulation of franchising" recognizes franchising as a contract that can "be adopted in any economic field" (The Italian Law 129 06.05.2004 "Rules on the regulation of franchising", art. 1) and gives a detailed definition about it.

There is no legal definition of a franchise in French law. The French Franchise Federation refers to the definition of the European Code of Ethics for Franchising, which may be taken into consideration by French courts. (Schulte, 2014)

"Franchising is a system of marketing goods and/or services and/or technology, which is based upon a close and ongoing collaboration between legally and financially separate and independent undertakings, the Franchisor and its individual Franchisees, whereby the Franchisor grants its individual Franchisee the right, and imposes the obligation, to conduct a business in accordance with the Franchisor's concept.

The right entitles and compels the individual Franchisee, in exchange for a direct or indirect financial consideration, to use the Franchisor's trade name, and/or trade mark and /or service mark, know-how, business and technical methods, procedural system, and other industrial and /or intellectual property rights, supported by continuing provision of commercial and technical assistance, within the framework and for the term of a written franchise agreement, concluded between parties for this purpose."(The European Code of Ethics for Franchising, 1)

There is no legal definition or specific law governing franchising in the UK. Like the French Franchise Federation, even the British Franchise Association has adopted the definition of the European Franchise Federation. Common law would regard

a franchise agreement as a complex, hybrid contract including various elements from other commercial contractual arrangements. (Wormald & Bond, 2014)

In USA, many states have franchise 'registration/disclosure' or franchise 'relationship' laws (or both) that define franchises. There are no federal franchise relationship laws of general application. However, certain industries are regulated by industry specific legislation. (Brennan & Zeidman, 2014)

Parties rights and obligations

The franchise contract is an agreement that includes mutual obligations and responsibilities for the parties. The franchisor has the obligation to make available to the franchisee's standardized set of immaterial rights, models, charts, profit, organization and trade ideas, and other appropriate knowledge for the development of trade. Meanwhile, he is obliged to protect all the obligations program from infringement by third parties, constantly develop it and support its implementation by the franchisee with instructions, information and perfection. (The Albanian Civil Code, art. 1057)

By interpreting the above mentioned provision, arise the obligations of the franchisor. The provision listed and mentioned them generally. The franchisor has normally years of experience and considerable knowledge for the development of the trade. He has to help and assist continuously the franchisee and to consult him. The assistance, the help and the consultation may be given by the franchisor himself, or by other persons who work for him, who are trained and qualified enough. These are undoubtedly obligations, but can also be evaluated as forms that increase cooperation and communication between the parties.

The franchisor has the duty to fulfill the obligations program. "... In case that the rights would not exist or if the franchisor would violate other contractual obligations by fault, the franchisee has the right to reduce compensation. The reduced amount should be decided with competence through an impartial expert. The franchisee may require compensation of damages caused by the absence of the obligations program elements or by breach by fault of the contract by the franchisor." (The Albanian Civil Code, art. 1062) The duty to support the program implementation is expressed clearly, but it is important to understand "the continuity development" of the program. In an evolving economy, there is strong competition. The franchisor has to help the franchisee to face the competition and to minimize the losses, by developing the obligations program, adapting it to new economic situations. The franchisor also has to protect the obligations program from infringement by third parties.

The franchise contract is a contract which provides also obligations for the franchisee. "The franchisor is responsible for the existence of rights and knowledge of the obligations franchise program." (The Albanian Civil Code, article 1062) The franchisee has the duty to communicate with the franchisor, in order to get all the necessary consult and instructions to understand the way the business should be run. It certainly increases the chances to start a successful business. In order to achieve this goal, the franchisee and even his staff may need to be trained. "The franchisor may seek compensation for damage caused by breach of contract by fault, in particular by insufficient implementation of the obligations franchise program by the franchisee." (The Albanian Civil Code, article 1063)

The franchisee has the duty not to compete. According to the Albanian Civil Code: "to the franchisee can be imposed a ban of local competition for a time up to a year. If from the prohibition of competition results a reduction of his professional activity, an equal financial compensation is given to the franchisee, regardless the termination of contract." (The Albanian Civil Code, article 1061)

The franchise contract parties have also common obligations. "Even after the termination of the contract the parties have mutually obligation for a fair competition." (The Albanian Civil Code, article 1061)

In fact, each franchise contract must contain specific provisions according to the type of franchise, but even to what the parties have agreed.

The Italian law provides two articles referring to the obligations of the franchisor and the franchisee. There are some criteria to be fulfilled from the franchisor business to set a franchising network. The obligations of the franchisor are listed and expressed related to the content of the franchise contract. (The Italian Law 129 06.05.2004 "Rules on the regulation of franchising", art. 4) One of the franchisee obligations is "...to respect and have respected by his own personnel and collaborators, even after the contract termination, the strict confidentiality on the content of the activity operated in the franchise." (The Italian Law 129 06.05.2004 "Rules on the regulation of franchising", art. 4) As compared to the Albanian legislation, the Italian legislation provides an important element as a "must" in the content of the franchise contract. It is

about the territory where the franchisee will operate or the territorial rights. (The Italian Law 129 06.05.2004 "Rules on the regulation of franchising", art. 1 & 3)

There are no legal requirements by United Kingdom legislation for the franchisor before he may offer franchises, but the Code of Ethics imposes some, which are less comparing to the Italian legal requirements. Post-termination non-compete covenants are prohibited after the termination of an agreement, unless a franchisor's 'know-how' is dependent on them. However, this know-how is required to be classed as 'secret', which under its new definition in the block exemption is difficult for franchisors to prove. (Wormald & Bond, 2014)

Comparing to the Italian legislation, there is no such legal or regulatory requirement that must be met before a franchisor may offer franchises, under French law. But, since a franchise is described by case law as the 'reiteration of a commercial success', the franchisor must be in a position to prove, prior to offering a franchise, that it has operated at least one similar commercial business in a manner and, for the time necessary to consider such business, as a success. (Schulte, 2014)

In US a franchisor must be in compliance with any applicable state registration and disclosure requirements before that franchisor may offer franchises.

The franchise contract form

"Franchise contract must be in writing specifying among other things a unanimous definition of mutual obligations of the parties, the duration of the contract and other essential elements of it. The text of the contract must contain a full description of the program and franchise obligations." (The Albanian Civil Code, art. 1059)

This shows that the law recognizes the obligation that the will of the parties, in the case of the franchise contract, to be expressed in a letter. Besides the essential elements, such as the determination of the parties, its object, the content of the contract requires more than setting out the rights and obligations of the parties. The legal provision requires that the text of the franchise contract to have detailed and complete description of the obligations and the franchise program. According to the type of franchise, the obligations program may not be part of the text of the contract, but placed as an annex to it, of course obligatory for implementation.

The Italian Law provides that the franchise contract "... must be stipulated in writing, otherwise it is null and void" (The Italian Law 129 06.05.2004 "Rules on the regulation of franchising", art. 3) Even "franchise agreements anterior to the entering into force of the present law... shall be formalized in writing..." (The Italian Law 129 06.05.2004 "Rules on the regulation of franchising", art. 9)

According to the United Kingdom legislation and French legislation all contracts and all contractual agreements related to the franchise relationship should be written. It is meant because the legislations provide even the appropriate language in which the contract will be drafted.

A franchise contract contains a lot of rights and obligations for the parties, referring to financial, advertising, payment, communication and control issues. The program also contains the procedures, the forms and the ways all the obligations should be fulfilled by the parties. That is why the franchise contract must be in writing.

Good Faith in Franchise Contract

Good Faith is usually required by people as to set a standard for good relationships. As a principle, good faith is recognized by the contract law and is required at pre – contractual phase. It is justified by the importance of this phase and by the uncertainty which accompanies it.

Generally, the Albanian legislation provides that: "Parties during the course of negotiations for the drafting of the contract must act in good faith towards each other". (The Albanian Civil Code, art. 674) The behavior of the parties must be in good faith, in order to avoid possible damages.

According to The Albanian Civil Code, article 675 "In case that a contracting party possesses professional knowledge and evokes the other side of her full confidence, it has an obligation to provide information and guidance in good faith." In specific contracts like franchising, the obligation of confidentiality is expressed clearly and is worth even if the contract is not concluded.

"At the completion of contract negotiations the parties should show each other the state of commercial affairs dealing with the franchise contract and particularly the franchise obligations program, and inform each other according to the principles of good faith. They are required to maintain the secrecy of confidential information, even if the contract is not concluded. (The Albanian Civil Code, art. 1058)

The pre-contractual phase carries the possibility of liability for the party which acts in lack of good faith. In the case of franchise contract the principle of good faith is expressly required during the negotiations. It is justified even by the important information that the parties give each other. Being combined with the request to maintain secrecy of confidential information, the provision makes clear the way the parties should behave. The conclusion or not of the franchise contract "has no importance". The confidential information is given during the negotiations. As this phase is uncertain for the final result, each party that does not act in good faith or does not maintains confidentiality "... is liable to compensate the damage. This right shall prescribe after three years from the date of the conclusion of negotiations." (The Albanian Civil Code, art. 1058)

The party that has participated in the negotiations may require payment of costs incurred by legal confidence in the conclusion of the contract, which was not concluded due to a deliberate behavior of the other party." (The Albanian Civil Code, art. 1058)

In Italy the Supreme Court (Corte Suprema di Cassazione) has expressed in September 2009 (Decision No. 20106, 18.09.2009 of the Italian Supreme Court) that the principle of objective good faith, as the mutual loyalty of conduct, should govern the formation, execution and interpretation of the contract and accompanies it at every stage. (Picierno, 2009)

The Italian Law provides the requirements of loyalty, fairness and good faith as a standard to the parties' behavior: "The franchisor must behave towards the prospective franchisee according to the standards of loyalty, fairness and good faith..." (The Italian Law 129 06.05.2004 "Rules on the regulation of franchising", art. 6, paragraph I), "The prospective franchisee must behave towards the franchisor in compliance with the standards of loyalty, fairness and good faith..." (The Italian Law 129 06.05.2004 "Rules on the regulation of franchising", art. 6, paragraph III)

The disclosure of information of the parties towards each other is substantial and inevitable for the realization of negotiations and the conclusion of the contract. Although the franchisor must justify to the prospective franchisee any possible failure in disclosing the information and data that had been requested by the franchisee, especially in case of objectively confidential information or if a disclosure would violate third parties rights.

Though the French Civil Code and the French courts have not given generally to good faith the same extension and the same importance, according to the franchise contract, the principle of good faith is present. Franchise agreements must comply with general principles of contracts and the franchisor is under a general obligation to contract in good faith which requires that the franchisor delivers any necessary piece of information during the course of the contractual relationships. The franchisor must act dutifully and in cooperation with the prospective franchisee. This implies disclosing clear and accurate information that would be of significance to the future franchisor, even if such information is not covered by the pre-contractual disclosure obligation. (Schulte, 2014)

The French Civil Code recognizes good faith as "a must" in performing a contract. "Agreements lawfully entered into take the place of the law for those who have made them.

They may be revoked only by mutual consent, or for causes authorized by law.

They must be performed in good faith." (The French Civil Code art. 1134) So, it should be accepted that the principle of good faith undoubtedly applies to franchise contracts.

The English contract law does not provide the duty to negotiate, interpret and perform a contract in good faith. The English law is based on liberal autonomy of the parties, to which an extreme approach is referred to a Latin maxim *neminem laedit qui suo iure utitur* (if you are exercising your right you are not harming anybody). As the parties design their contract they expect the legal system to give them tools in order to enforce what they have agreed, and not to be protected by the legal system. (Mitchell & Powell, 2011) Referring to the franchise contract, there is no general obligation for parties to act in good faith towards each other. (Wormald & Bond, 2014)

Although belonging to the common law system, the USA has adopted the good faith principle. In USA, courts in most states have consistently held that an implied covenant of good faith and fair dealing exists in commercial contracts, including franchise agreements. It varies from state to state how the principle of good faith is applied and in addition to several franchise-specific statutes, state law typically imposes a common law duty of good faith and fair dealing. The covenant generally provides that the parties to a contract must exercise their discretion as to the performance of their contractual

obligations in a manner that is not inconsistent with the other party's reasonable business expectations and does not deprive the other party of the benefit of the contract. (Brennan & Zeidman, 2014)

Although the Albanian legislation and other European legislations provide explicitly the duty to behave in good faith during the negotiations phase of franchise contract, in fact it is clear that there is presence of good faith throughout the period that the franchise relationship continues and after that. Behaving in good faith should be understood to the continuous support of the franchisor towards the franchisee, to the interactively fulfillment of the obligations program, to the possibility of renewal of the franchise contract and the obligation of not compete.

Conclusions

In Albania franchise is almost unknown as an economic activity, regulated by law. The new Albanian Civil Code contains some provisions over franchise relationship, recognizing it as a contract.

Referring to those provisions, comparing to those of other European legislations, it should be said that the obligations of the parties in a franchise relationship are expressed generally, without listing a series of obligations of the franchisor or the franchisee. The same problem is also on the content of the contract. The European legislations which regulate franchise contract by specific law or by the Commercial Code express clearly the elements that the contract must mention e. g. the territory or the location where the franchisee has the rights accorded by the franchisor.

This paper claimed to give an overview of the way the franchise relationship is recognized and regulated as a contract and as such, to clarify the presence of the principle of good faith.

As Albania belongs to the Civil Law system, the good faith principle is considered as a general rule to be applied in each contract, as a set standard for the parties' behavior during each phase of the contract. Other countries, belonging to this system of law, like Italy and France through their legal provisions or by courts opinions and decisions, recognize the duty of good faith in contracts, especially in franchise contract.

The trend of recognizing good faith even by states which belong to the Common Law system is now clear. The USA recognizes good faith through the Uniform Commercial Code. Despite the fact that the application of this principle varies from state to state, generally the courts in most states have held that an implied covenant of good faith and fair dealing exists in franchise contracts. But, United Kingdom legislation expresses another approach to the application of good faith principle in contracts. The contract law does not provide the duty to negotiate, interpret and perform a contract in good faith, as is based on liberal autonomy of the parties. So even for the franchise contract there is no legal provision to obligate the parties to act in good faith.

Good faith is required in everyday life. But, as it is imposed by law, as a contract principle it becomes more important. The franchise contract, comparing to other types of contracts is considered new. It is complicated because this contract provides many obligations for the parties and it is specific because at every phase of contract there is a lot of information that the parties have to give to each other. The franchise contract actually means an agreement between two parties, who have not absolutely the same experience, knowledge and success. In that case the franchisee is "inferior" and can be easily misled. So, the presence of good faith, as a legal requirement means security and defines a behaviour standard, which avoids intentional damages.

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NATURAL DEATH VS CIVIL DEATH

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Abstract

Death is an inevitable phenomenon, which implies the termination of the life of persons. All over the world, in a day, a large number of children are born, but unfortunately also a large number of people die because of illness, age, homicide, suicide or poverty. Death is not only a biological process, as at the same time it affects directly the legal capacity of a person. Therefore the natural death of the person is seen as a cause that brings legal consequences at its verification. Being considered as a natural phenomenon as well as legal, death is considered as a legal fact with which legislations bind the beginnings, changes or terminations of legal. Legal capacity of a person, as a condition to undertake rights and obligations, is the determining element to gain the quality of a natural person. This quality is gained with the birth and terminated with the death. There are special cases, under which it is difficult to verify the natural death of a person for reasons such as: absence of the cadaver or the uncertainty of the circumstances in which the person has been lost or absented. In order to guarantee the legal security and also the conservation of personal and property rights of the person, legislations have provided the declaration of the person dead, which may come as a result of natural disasters, accidents, military actions or as a consequence of declaring before the person missing. This paper aims to make a comparative analysis between the procedure of declaration of a natural death of the person and the procedure of declaring a person dead according to the Albanian legislation. For this reason it will be analyzed the persons who are entitled to make the request for the declaration of the person dead, the legal force of the decision of the court through which the person is declared dead and the necessary time limits for declaring a person dead.

Keywords: natural death, civil death, procedure, legitimated persons, declaration of death

Introduction

Death is the phenomenon of the termination of physiological functions of creatures, including humans. Death as a philosophical concept is "the termination of life on earth, the separation of the soul from the body. The death of the person is the body's death, passing into the afterlife, in that spiritual..." (Dalya, 1881).

Death as a biological concept is the termination of life (Ozhegov, 1953).

Death is a legal fact, categorized as a natural event which occupies a special position among other legal facts. This is not only linked with the psychological influence of relatives but, at the same time it directly affects on the legal capacity of a person. Natural death of the person brings the termination of some legal consequences and the beginning of some others.

The dead person ends his biologically life, but he continues to remain part of some juridical consequences, because from the juridical point of view it is considered as a legal fact which entails the beginning, the changes or the termination of legal relations.

Death is a fact that brings the acquisition of rights and obligations for a group of people. Some legal relationships begin with the verification of death as; property rights and obligations which exceed by the inheritance to the heirs. Instead, some other relationships terminate as the dissolution of the marriage (Art. 123 Family Code of Albania)

Beside the natural death of the person, which is due to the termination of all its physiological functions, legislations provide even the civil death, which presumes a possible natural death.

As in the case of natural death, even the civil death must be registered in the state civil authorities.

There are two ways by which a person can be declared dead

natural death, which is certified on a medical report;

Civil death which is verified by the court decision which recognizes the person dead (Art. 379 Procedural Code of Albania):

a. if for over six years there have been no news from the date of receiving the latest news from the person

b. if the person has been lost during military actions and this missing is verified by military authorities, when there is no notice for two years issuing certified by the competent military authorities, when there is no notice for two years from the peace establishing agreement has entered into force or three years from the end of military actions

The person missing during a natural disaster or in circumstances which appear to show he is deceased, may be declared deceased by decision of the court, when there have been no notices from him for two years after the disaster has occurred, without necessarily being previously declared missing (Art. 19 Civil Code of Albania);

This paper aims to analyze the relevant procedures for each of the ways of declaring a person dead and the legal relations that begin, change or terminate as a result of this declaration .

NATURAL DEATH AND THE REGISTRATION IN THE CIVIL REGISTRY

The Civil registry the set of personal data of Albanian citizens, foreign citizens and stateless persons who are temporarily or permanently resident in the Republic of Albania and which are registered and kept in the National Civil Registry and which help to certify the birth, the existence, the individuality and the relationships between them (Art. 2/1 Law "Civil State").

The Civil registry the set of personal data, that verify the birth, existence, individuality of the citizens and their relations. These facts are to a particular importance because they serve to identify the person and determine relationships between them.

These facts are of a particular importance because they serve to identify a physical person and to determine the relationship between him and the others.

The registration in civil registry is also important for acquisition of the rights and obligations of the person. Registration of legal facts in the civil registry determines the juridical status of the person in a certain moment, beginning from his legal capacity, the capacity to act and his rights and obligations.

The components of the civil registry are: name and surname, identity number, date of birth, place of birth, sex, nationality, motherhood, fatherhood, marital status, death, declaration of missing, residence, domicile and other facts provided by law (Art. 6 "Civil State").

One of the main components of the civil registry is death. The act of registration of death brings the termination of legal capacity of a person and the beginning of legal consequences for relatives and other persons who have been in a legal relationship with the deceased.

The procedure of the declaration the natural death

The Albanian Law no. 10129, dated 11.05.2009 "On the Civil Registry" provides the declaration of a natural death. Respectively article 52 of this law provides that the declaration of death can be made by any adult family member or a relative of the family and, in their absence, from the compliance officer of the municipality/ commune, in the Civil Registry Office , where the citizen had the domicile/ residence or where the body was found.

The citizen is determined as dead, when his death is verified by a medical report, through which is identified the person and determined the time, place and cause of death.

When the body can not be identified, or when suspected signs of a violent death are observed the report issued by the forensic expert should be signed by the prosecutor.

In the medical report the causes of death are classified due to health, accidental or criminal reasons. The declaration of death should be made within 10 days of the incident, or the finding of the body of the dead person, and within 60 days, when death has occurred abroad (Art.52 Law "Civil State").. For those who die in hospitals, military bases, in prisons, in rehabilitation wards and other institutions are obliged to inform in written form the nearest office of civil registry within 5 days, for deaths occurring in their institutions. With the declaration of death, the civil registry office gives the funeral permission.

In the communes who are under the jurisdiction of municipalities where there are not registry office the funeral permission is given by the mayor of the commune. In this case, the mayor of the commune, after the administration of the documents that verify the death, is obligated within five days, to notify the civil state office where the citizen was registered, for the registration of the death certificate.

When the civil state office takes the notification of death, from the above institutions and in cases when there are no relatives to make the declaration, it requires the verification from the representatives of the local government. If the death is confirmed, then he compiles the act of death, which must be signed, as appropriate, from the representatives of the local government, the mayor of the commune, the district administrator, or from the representatives of the funeral service, or the representative.

The death certificate will be absolutely void when the person, in fact, is not dead, which is confirmed by his physical appearance or his existence after the date of the act of death, in cases of the absence of the body or when the body results of another person (Art. 55 Law "Civil State").

THE PROCEDURE OF DEATH RECOGNITION BY A COURT DECISION

The recognition of death can be made only by a court decision as it is based not on the fact of the physical death, but on its presumption due to the absence of the person from his last residence and the absents of news for a certain period. Differently from the natural death of the person, in the cases of recognition of death, is impossible to find the body, so the court follows a certain procedure for recognition of death of the person. The court before giving the final decision must respect the time limits provided by the legislation.

The Procedure of recognition of death

The Albanian legislation based on various circumstances defines three cases of recognition of death. These cases are under the same procedure but they distinguish on the time limits.

The first case, is the recognition of death of the person after he was declared missing, " The person who has disappeared from his residence or his last residing place and from whom there are no news for more than two years, then by the request of any interested person he can be declared missing by the decision of the court." According to this definition the court declared missing the person, after receiving the request made by interested persons. During the trial, the court makes the verification of all the circumstances which make credible the declaration a person missing.

Article 17 of the Civil Code of the Republic of Albania provides, " A person declared missing, upon the request of each concerned person may be declared deceased by a court decision if for four years there have been no news from the date the person is declared missing"

The interested persons who are legitimized to apply upon a request for recognizing a person dead are the same persons who are legitimized for declaring a person missing. After receiving the request, the court within 10 days from her presentation sends a copy to the commune or municipality where the person required to be recognized dead had his last residence.

The commune or municipality is obliged to publish the request in visible places. This request should be also published in local or national newspapers, as well as in the Official Journal.

The judicial process can't be made without passing 6 months from the publication of the request in the Official Journal. This time limit is established with the aim of getting informed the interested persons starting from the own person who is required to be declared missing, his relatives and other persons with whom the person may have entered into legal relations.

During the process, the court should interrogates the relatives of the person, should takes data from the municipality or commune where he had his last residence or his last domicile. The court must conduct a full and universally judicial investigation, in accordance with the law. After the end of the juridical investigation the court takes the decision for the recognition of a person dead.

The court should order the publication of the decision in the Official Journal or at least in one local newspaper assigned by her, or in another way of publication that would be useful (Art. 380 Procedural Civil Code of Albania). The decision of the court should be sent for registration to the respective civil registry in order to register him in the Register of Deaths.

In the two other cases of the civil death, the court can declare the person deceased without declaring him missing. In cases where it considers the specific circumstances of the disappearance of the person provided by law as they can be the disappearance during a natural disaster or in other circumstances or in circumstances which appear to show he is deceased, or in cases of lost during military actions (Art. 19 Civil Code of Albania) and such last is certified by the militaries

authorities, without having previously declared missing according to the legal time limits (Art. 18 C.C of Albania). The time limits are shorter this time as the possibility that the person is be dead is more convincing.

In both these cases, it is necessary the verification of the facts which can prove the death of the person. In the interpretation of two dispositions the circumstances that lead to the creation of the court conviction for the death of the person are not exhaustive and should be estimated case by case.

The Law of "Civil Emergency" No. 8756, dated 26.3.2001 provides as natural disasters "earthquakes, floods, prolonged atmospheric droughts, architectural mudslides, avalanches, strong winds, forest fires and in residential environments, massive diseases infectious, the consequences of which affect people, livestock, property, environment, and other events caused by natural phenomena." (Art. 2/3 Law "Civil Emergency").

Circumstances which make to believe that the person has died and that can be considered by the court are also situation provided by the same law as "other disasters" like "accidents, rail, sea, air, and fire, explosions, falls and dams, nuclear accidents, industrial and ecological or any other accident caused by human action, from war or emergency situations, as well as other forms of mass violence "that are more possible and more common to happen.

Military actions are provided also as one of the circumstances which can bring to the conviction that the person has died. According to the Law "For the powers and authorities of command and strategic direction of the armed forces of the Republic of Albania" No.8671, dated 26.10.2000 the concept of military actions or operations of the armed forces is provided in art 2 as "undertake a military mission, strategic, operational, tactical, preparation, support, service, administrative and human ". Referring to this provision, the concept of "person" is not limited only on the military forces but also it include civil persons in support functions, as also the civilian person who may be lost during these operations.

The time limit for declaring a person dead as a result of lost during a natural disaster or during the military actions is 2 years. But this time limit may be extended up to three years from the end of military actions. It is no deed any procedure for the publication of the request in these cases, and this because of the conviction of the facts (Art. 18 C.C of Albania). The court's decision, which recognizes the person dead be should registered in the National Registry of Civil Status / basic register (archive), without making the declaration of death.

The act of death will be absolutely void when the person, in fact, is not dead, which is confirmed by his physical presence or the existence after the date of the act of death.

LEGAL EFFECTS OF THE DECLARATION OF THE PERSON DEAD AND OF THE RECOGNITION OF DEATH

Legal effects that come from the recognition of death are equivalent to the effects that come from the declaration of the person dead. The effects that come from the declaration and recognition of a person dead are non-property, personal effects and property effects. Personal non-property rights and property rights which belong to the person declared missing must be preserved and protected by the administrator appointed by the court up to the recognition of death.

These rights must be preserved, not only to protect the heirs interests but also to conserve the legal relations in which the person recognized dead, may have been a party. By recognizing a person dead all the legal relationships in which he has been a party terminates for him. Heirs at the time of opening of the inheritance profit not only rights, but also the obligations. His property rights, as long as they are not closely personal, passed to the heirs of the dead person.

One of these cases is the undertaking contract which is not dissolved by the death of the contractor, except when the contractor was considered indispensable for the performance of the work (Art. 873 C.C of Albania).

A specific form of passing the property rights is the term transfer of these rights as in the case of property rights as part of author rights, which generally retained for a period of 70 years from the date of the recognizing the person dead (Art. 21 Law "The authors rights and the other rights linked to him")

Another property obligation that terminates with the death of the person is the obligation for alimony, which does not pass to the heirs because of his personal character. Other cases where property rights that do not pass to the heirs are that of the testamentary executor and the guardian or administrator due to the personal character of these obligations.

Differently from the property rights which generally pass to heirs, most of the personal rights terminates with the death of a the person.

Among personal non-property rights it can be mentioned the conservation of authors rights. These are closely relates with the author when he was alive, but even after his death. Only a part of them can pass with inheritance to the heirs of the author, such as the right to challenge the co authorship, the right to challenge the distortion of the name, etc..

Marriage is the typical example of a personal legal relationship which ends with the death of one of the spouses. Death and the recognition of death are provided by the Family Code as a form of marriage termination. Parental responsibility also terminates with the death of the person as when it was created as a result of a natural connection or adoption. Adoption institute provides an exceptional case, when the death of the adoptive candidate does not affect the successful completion of the procedure and the acquisition of the rights from the adopted child (Art. 242 Family Code of Albania).

This happens when adoptive candidate dies before the court decision but after having given his consent for the adoption. This exceptional case seems to be applied only to the natural death and not in cases of civil death.

The registration of the act of death and the person's registration in the register of death bring as a consequence the removing of the person from some public registers like the register of voters or that of tax authorities. Unlike natural death, civil death is accompanied with uncertainty. Although they have same consequences, the legislation provides the possibility of reappearance of the person recognized dead.

When the person declared dead results alive, he or any other concerned person, can bring a request for the annulment of the recognition of death to the court who issued it. When the person declared dead results alive, he is entitled to reclaim his property and all his rights which he enjoys before the recognition of death, which the exception of marriage which he reacquires it again only if the husband/ wife has not signed a new marriage.

CONCLUSIONS

Death in both cases is a legal fact, which brings the acquisition of rights and obligations for a certain group of people (who may be heirs or other persons who have been in legal relationship with the deceased). Among them, it can be mentioned: the opening of inheritance (heirs acquire not only rights but also obligations), termination of marriage, the right to exercise the guardianship, the succession of procedural right.

Civil death and natural death have same consequences but this does not mean that they are equal institutes. The first is based on the presumption of death therefore in a precarious situation which can be recovered in the future, the second is based on the end of all physiological functions of the person, therefore, the situation is sure. Except of the element of stability the two institutes differ in procedural terms.

As an uncertain situation civil death should be declared by the decision of a public body, which according to our legislation is the court. The court decision gives the possibility to open the inheritance, to change the data components of civil registry and for those legal relationship which can be passed by death, it gives the possibility to the persons who have participated in them to require their implementation by the heirs. So the decision of the court is that it equates the consequences of natural and civil death.

However, the uncertain situation continues. This because the person declared dead can reappear. Of course, in such a possibility the legislation provides the restitution of his rights. This opportunity is given to the person that is declared dead as it guarantees the restitution of rights, but on the other hand it makes uncertain the rights acquired by the heirs, given that the latest lose this quality if the person reappears.

Like all other rights end with the termination of legal capacity of the person, even marriage as a closely personal institute terminates with the civil or natural death of the person. In the case of civil death, as a consequence of uncertainty of this situation, the legislation provides the restitution of marriage in case of reappearance of the person when the surviving spouse has not signed a new marriage.

Considering the time limits with which is linked the declaration of death, the absence of the spouse for such a long time can cause the loss of affinity between spouses, thus making marriage to lose its purpose. The Albanian legislation does not provide for any clause of a prior approval from spouses to continue the marriage, so it shall be considered as uninterrupted. Maybe the consent would be favorable for spouses. Such a provision is made by the Russian legislation which requires an application for restoration of the marriage by the spouses (Art. 26 C. C. of Russian Federation).

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Research on Chosen Macroeconomic Indicators of Romania

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Abstract

The purpose of this paper is to investigate the long-run and short-run relationships between economic growth, exports, imports, exchange rate, and interest rate in the case of Romania using the bounds F testing approach developed within autoregressive distributed lag (ARDL) framework by the quarterly time series data for the period 2000q1-2013q4. A time dummy variable was specified to measure the effect of Romania's participation to European Union. Unit root tests were performed to examine variables' level of integration. Relatively new ARDL bounds F testing cointegration method employed has good small sample properties and provides more robust and reliable results. Long-run, short-run and the stronger form of the Granger causalities from the each of the four explanatory variables namely exports, imports, exchange rates and interest rates to gross domestic product were investigated by using Granger non-causality tests. CUSUM and CUSUMSQ stability tests were also implemented. The empirical results of this paper are enlightening with regard to trade policies for the policy makers of Romania.

Keywords: ARDL bounds testing approach, Error correction model, GDP, Granger causality, Romania

Introduction

Disagreements proceed in the empirical literature concerning the causal direction of the effects of trade openness on economic growth. Some researchers claim that causality flows from exports to economic growth and indicates this as the export-led growth (ELG) hypothesis (Awokuse, 2007; Edwards, 1998). Export expansion is viewed as an important determinant of economic growth because of the positive externalities it provides. Moreover, exports can supply foreign exchange allowing for more imports of intermediate goods which in turn increases capital formation and thus encourage output growth. There are also several studies found that it is possible to have growth-led exports (GLE). In the GLE case, export expansion is stimulated by productivity gains caused by increases in domestic levels of skilled-labor and technology (Awokuse, 2007). There may be no causal relationship between exports and economic growth when the time paths of the two series are determined by some other unrelated variables such as investment in the economic system (Guru Gharana, 2012).

Some other empirical studies claim that another alternative is import-led growth (ILG) which suggests economic development is contributed primarily by growth in imports. Imports can be a component for long-run economic growth by providing access to needed intermediate factors and foreign technology to domestic firms (Coe & Helpman, 1995; Lawrence & Weinstein, 1999).

The growth theory superimposes remarkable importance to the effect of exports expansion on economic development. Economic development is promoted by exports which improves the efficiency of the allocation of productive resources and increases the volume of productive resources that cause capital accumulation growth (Hatemi & Irandoust, 2002; Dritsakis, 2004)

Dumitriu, Stefanescu and Nistor (2010) explored the dynamic relation between the exports and the gross domestic product for Romania by employing the Johansen cointegration procedure and the Granger causality test. They found no cointegration between GDP and exports in Romania.

Pop Silaghi (2009) investigated export-led growth and growth-led exports hypotheses by using finite-order vector autoregressive (VAR) models in levels, in first-differences and error correction models for the countries Bulgaria, the Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, Romania, Slovenia, Slovakia. She found that export-led growth hypothesis is valid for the Czech Republic and Lithuania, and growth-led exports hypothesis is valid in Hungary, Romania and Slovenia, according to trivariate systems (GDP, exports and imports).

Dritsakis (2004) in his study analyzed the relationship between exports, investments and economic development in two countries, Bulgaria and Romania. It is found that there is a 'strong Granger causal' relation between economic growth and exports as well as between investments and exports by using a multivariate autoregressive VAR model for the two countries.

Ramos (2001) researched the Granger-causality between exports, imports, and economic growth in Portugal and showed that there is no causality between the variables considered in Portugal.

Ahmed, Butt and Alam (2000) rejected the ELG hypothesis for seven of eight countries they studied using trivariate causality framework. They found support for export-led growth hypothesis only in only one (Bangladesh) of eight countries.

Awokuse (2008) examined the relationship between trade and economic growth in Argentina, Colombia, and Peru for both the role of exports and imports by using cointegrated vector autoregression (VAR) model and Granger causality tests. He found empirical evidence supporting for both export-led and import-led growth hypotheses where the latter is relatively stronger.

Tan et al. (2007) investigated the dynamic relationships between economic growth and macroeconomic variables, namely financial deepening, exports and investment by employing vector error correction model for the cases of Singapore, South Korea, Taiwan and Thailand. Their findings demonstrated that export-led growth hypothesis is valid for all four Asian economies.

Mahadevan and Suardi (2008) showed that Japan's GDP growth is import-led while Hong Kong's GDP growth is both export and import led by using the cointegration test of Johansen and Juselius (1990).

Hye and Boubaker (2011) investigated the export-led growth, import-led growth and foreign debt sustainability hypotheses in the case of Tunisia by using autoregressive distributed lag (ARDL) approach and determined unidirectional causality from exports to economic growth and bidirectional relationship between imports and economic growth. Their findings validate both export-led growth and import-led growth for Tunisia.

Sato and Fukushige (2011) explored causal relationships by constructing a vector autoregression model of economic growth, exports, and imports for North Korea by splitting the sample into two parts and found evidence of import-led growth for the first subperiod, but not for the second subperiod. They showed export-led growth is not valid for North Korea.

Awokuse (2007) used a growth modeling framework and multivariate cointegrated VAR methods to investigate the contribution of both exports and imports to economic growth in Bulgaria, Czech Republic, and Poland. He determined that empirical evidence exists for both ELG and GLE hypotheses for Bulgaria, for both ELG and ILG hypotheses for the Czech Republic, for only the ILG hypothesis in the case of Poland.

Uğur (2008) analyzed the relationship between imports and economic growth in Turkey by decomposing imports into categories. Results of multivariate VAR analysis conducted show bidirectional relationship between GDP and investment goods import and raw materials import, and a unidirectional relationship between GDP and consumption goods import and other goods import.

Mishra, Sharma and Smyth (2010) investigated the export-led growth and import-led growth hypotheses for the countries Fiji, Papua New Guinea, Solomon Islands, Tonga and Vanuatu by using a panel unit root, panel co-integration and panel Granger causality approach. They found there are bi-directional Granger causality between exports and economic growth, imports and economic growth, and exports and imports.

As briefly summarized, results of the empirical studies have inconsistent findings that could be due to discrepancy among the sample periods and the different econometric methodologies applied such as single equation ordinary least squares model, vector autoregression (VAR) model, cointegration methods and Granger causality frameworks. These methods have some limitations. While ordinary least squares is not adequate, the other three methods require research time series variables to be the same order of integration in a research studying cointegration and/or causality relationships (Keong, Yusop & Sen, 2005). Empirical studies using latter three methods have the assumption that all variables in the model are integrated of the same order. The found cointegration or causality results by using these methods may have spurious

relationships and conclusions may be unreliable when included variables are not integrated of the same order (Guru Gharana, 2012). Autoregressive distributed lag (ARDL) bounds F testing method is appropriate regardless of research variables are $I(0)$, $I(1)$ or mixture of both.

In this empirical study, in addition to using variables gross domestic product, imports and exports that are employed in many empirical studies, the variables exchange rates and interest rates are also included in the analysis. Instead of studying bivariate relationships, multivariate relationship by using four explanatory variables where gross domestic product is the dependent variable is used because it is known that multivariate relationships in general may be quite different than bivariate situation (Love & Chandra, 2005; Guru Gharana, 2012). Thus, in case of Romania, export-led growth and import-led growth hypotheses are revisited.

Recently developed and robust autoregressive distributed lag (ARDL) bounds F testing method proposed by Pesaran and Shin (1995 and 1998), and Pesaran et al. (2001) is employed to study the long and the short run relationships among these five time series variables. This method has good small sample properties and ensures more robust and asymptotically reliable results under different situations concerning the cointegration relationships among the variables. (Guru Gharana, 2012).

Method

Framework

Hypothesized functional relationship for this empirical research is given below between five macroeconomic variables plus one time dummy for Romania as

$$GDP_t = e^{\beta_0 + \eta DUM} EXP_t^{\beta_1} IMP_t^{\beta_2} EXR_t^{\beta_3} INR_t^{\beta_4} e^v \quad (1)$$

and by taking natural logarithm on both sides, it is obtained the usual log-linear equation for estimation as

$$LNGDP_t = \beta_0 + \eta DUM_t + \beta_1 LNEXP_t + \beta_2 LNIMP_t + \beta_3 LNEXR_t + \beta_4 LNINR_t + v_t \quad (2)$$

Recently developed more robust autoregressive distributed lag (ARDL) bounds F testing method (summarized under procedure section) is developed and multivariate framework by including LNGDP, LNEXP, LNIMP, LNEXR and LNINR variables is applied in this study. Time series variables are defined in the next section.

Data and Approach

Raw data used in the analysis are obtained from the Eurostat's web page (www.eurostat.com) and defined in Table 1 below. Research variables are the real gross domestic product (GDP), real exports, real imports, exchange rates and interest rates. GDP is gross domestic product at market prices. Exports (EXP) and imports (IMP) variables show exports of goods and services and imports of goods and services. These three variables are measured in millions of national currency (Leu) and they are not seasonally adjusted. Exchange rates (EXR) which are average exchange rates against the Euro and interest rates (INR) showing average day to day money market interest rates are obtained as monthly data and converted to quarterly data (using mean values) by the authors. Unit of the exchange rates is Lei/Euro.

GDP, exports and imports series were deflated by the price indices (2005=100) prepared for gross domestic products at market prices, exports of goods and services and imports of goods and services, respectively and transformed into their natural logarithm form.

Eurostat table codes for the data extracted are `namq_gdp_c` (for GDP, EXP and IMP), `ei_mfirt_m` (for EXR) and `ei_mfirt_m` (for INR) for the defined time series and `namq_gdp_p` for the corresponding price indices.

All of the time series used in the analysis are quarterly data between the first quarter of 2000 and the fourth quarter of 2013 (2000Q1-2013Q4) that covers the date of European Union membership of Romania (01.01.2007). Dummy variable named DUM in the equation (2) is inserted to the model to measure the impact of European Union membership of Romania and coded as 0 and 1 showing nonmembership and membership situation (0 for the term 2000Q1-2006Q4 and 1 for the term 2007Q1-2013Q4).

Results of the analysis in this study are obtained from the Eviews software version 7.1.

Table 1. Short Names of the Research Variables, Their Definitions and Units

Name	Definition	Unit	Term	Name	Definition	Unit	Term
LNGDP	Log of real gross domestic products	Log of million Lei	2000Q1-2013Q4	LNEXR	Log of exchange rates	Log(Lei/Euro)	2000Q1-2013Q4
LNEXP	Log of real exports	Log of million Lei	2000Q1-2013Q4	LNINR	Log of interest rates	Log of rates	2000Q1-2013Q4
LNIMP	Log of real imports	Log of million Lei	2000Q1-2013Q4	DUM	Time dummy variable	0 / 1	2000Q1-2013Q4

Procedure

In this section, autoregressive distributed lag (ARDL) bounds F testing method (Pesaran and Shin, 1995 and 1998; Pesaran et al., 2001) which is adopted to determine the cointegration relationship is briefly summarized.

Methods based on ordinary least squares (OLS) techniques including ARDL and Johansen-Juselius maximum likelihood techniques to study long-run relationships and error correction models to explore Granger causality, suffer from unsuitability for small samples, pre-testing biases, the low power of unit root tests and the need for the rank conditions for valid results. These methods also need variables' to be integrated of the same order whereas in many studies same order integration is not obvious (Guru Gharana, 2012).

After the convenient study that Pesaran et al. (2001) offered, ARDL bounds F testing method has become popular for studying both long-run and short-run relationships and for examining Granger causality. The method modifies the ARDL framework. Endogeneity problem is solved and the long run and the short run parameters of the model are estimated simultaneously by using ARDL bounds F testing method. Small sample properties of this method are superior to multivariate cointegration (Narayan, 2005; Acaravci & Ozturk, 2012). One other flexibility of the ARDL bounds F testing is its usability when variables in the analysis may be I(0), I(1) or combination of both but not more than I(1) (Pesaran et al., 2001). The ARDL bounds testing method allows the variables' having different optimal lags, while it is impossible with conventional cointegration procedures. Unit root tests such as Augmented Dickey-Fuller (ADF) or Phillips-Perron (PP) are performed to determine the order of integration of the series (Dickey & Fuller, 1981; Phillips & Perron, 1988).

In order to perform ARDL bounds F (or Wald) test for examining evidence for long run relationship, a system of unrestricted (or conditional) error correction model (UECM) is estimated (Pesaran et al., 2001). System contains an equation for each variable (as dependent) such as the equation written below for LNGDP when it is thought as dependent:

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta LNGDP_t = & \beta_0 + \eta DUM_t + \theta_0 LNGDP_{t-1} + \theta_1 LNEXP_{t-1} + \theta_2 LNIMP_{t-1} + \theta_3 LNEXR_{t-1} + \theta_4 LNINR_{t-1} \\ & + \sum_{i=1}^p \beta_i \Delta LNGDP_{t-i} + \sum_{i=0}^{q1} \gamma_i \Delta LNEXP_{t-i} + \sum_{i=0}^{q2} \delta_i \Delta LNIMP_{t-i} + \sum_{i=0}^{q3} \xi_i \Delta LNEXR_{t-i} \\ & + \sum_{i=0}^{q4} \psi_i \Delta LNINR_{t-i} + v_t \end{aligned} \tag{3}$$

where v_t is white noise error term independently and identically distributed (iid) with zero mean, homoscedasticity and no autocorrelation and Δ is the first difference operator. θ_i 's are the long run multipliers, the coefficients of the first differences of the lagged variables are short term dynamic coefficients and β_0 is the intercept. This model is estimated by using ordinary least squares (OLS) method. $(p+1)(q1+1)(q2+1)(q3+1)(q4+1)$ number of regressions are estimated to acquire the optimal lag-lengths in the equation and the choice between different lag lengths is made by using information criteria such as Akaike (AIC) or Schwarz (SC). Schwarz information criterion (SC) preferred to AIC because it tends to define more parsimonious specifications (Pesaran & Shin, 1995; Acaravci & Ozturk, 2012).

Alternatively, unrestricted error correction model (UECM) can be derived from underlying VAR(p) model, instead of specifying an ARDL model (Pesaran et al., 2001; Fosu & Magnus, 2006; Keong et al., 2005). Then number of regressions to specify the unrestricted error correction model becomes (p+1)(k+1) where (k+1) is the number of all variables and p is the desired maximum lag length. Unrestricted error correction model (UECM) derived from underlying VAR(p) can be represented as below (equation 4 is written for each variable again). The difference between equation (3) and (4) is that lag lengths of the first differenced right side variables are the same in equation (4) whereas they may be different in equation (3).

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta LNGDP_t = & \beta_0 + \eta DUM_t + \theta_0 LNGDP_{t-1} + \theta_1 LNEXP_{t-1} + \theta_2 LNIMP_{t-1} + \theta_3 LNEXR_{t-1} + \theta_4 LNINR_{t-1} \\ & + \sum_{i=1}^p \beta_i \Delta LNGDP_{t-i} + \sum_{i=0}^p \gamma_i \Delta LNEXP_{t-i} + \sum_{i=0}^p \delta_i \Delta LNIMP_{t-i} + \sum_{i=0}^p \xi_i \Delta LNEXR_{t-i} \\ & + \sum_{i=0}^p \psi_i \Delta LNINR_{t-i} + v_t \end{aligned} \tag{4}$$

ARDL bounds F test statistic is employed to determine whether a long run relationship exists between the variables by imposing equality to zero restriction on all coefficients of lagged level variables. The long run relationship test is equivalent to the cointegration test. Null hypothesis of no cointegration against the alternative hypothesis of existence of cointegration becomes (Keong et al., 2005; Guru Gharana, 2012)

$$\begin{aligned} H_0 : \theta_0 = \theta_1 = \theta_2 = \theta_3 = \theta_4 = 0 \\ H_1 : \theta_0 \neq 0; \theta_1 \neq 0; \theta_2 \neq 0; \theta_3 \neq 0; \theta_4 \neq 0; \theta_5 \neq 0 \end{aligned} \tag{5}$$

The asymptotic distribution for the ARDL bounds F test statistic is non-standard under the null hypothesis that there exists no level relationship, irrespective of whether the regressors are I(0) or I(1). Exact critical values for the ARDL bounds F test are not available for several mix of I(0) and I(1) variables but Pesaran et al. (2001) calculated the bounds on the critical values for the asymptotic distribution of the F statistic under different situations by changing the number of explanatory variables (k) in the model and sample size, for different model specifications (like no constant + no trend, restricted constant + no trend etc.) and for each conventional levels of significance 1%, 5% and 10%. In each case, the lower bound is based on the assumption that all of the variables are I(0), and the upper bound is based on the assumption that all of the variables are I(1).

It is concluded that the variables are I(0), when the computed bounds F test statistic falls below the lower bound, so no cointegration is possible by definition. When the bounds F test statistic exceeds the upper bound, it is concluded that there is cointegration. The test is inconclusive when the bounds F test statistic lies between the bounds. Critical table values (bounds) are calculated for small samples (between 30 and 80) by Narayan (2005). Critical bounds are used from Narayan (2005) and from Pesaran et al. (2001) with respect to sample size; the former is for sample size at most 80 and the latter one for more than 80.

The next step is estimating the conditional ARDL (p, q1, q2, q3, q4) long-run model when cointegration is determined. Pesaran and Shin (1998) demonstrated that the Schwarz criterion is superior over Akaike in the context of ARDL model (Guru Gharana, 2012). The long-run levels model showing the long-run equilibrating relationship and short-run error correction model to measure short-run dynamic effects can be identified by using the ARDL restricted error correction model (RECM) when cointegration is found so that the long-run and the short-run elasticity coefficients are determined.

The long-run relationship model is

$$\begin{aligned} LNGDP_t = & \alpha_0 + \lambda DUM_t + \sum_{i=1}^p \alpha_{gdp,i} LNGDP_{t-i} + \sum_{i=0}^{q1} \alpha_{exp,i} LNEXP_{t-i} + \sum_{i=0}^{q2} \alpha_{imp,i} LNIMP_{t-i} \\ & + \sum_{i=0}^{q3} \alpha_{exp,i} LNEXR_{t-i} + \sum_{i=0}^{q4} \alpha_{inr,i} LNINR_{t-i} + v_t \end{aligned} \tag{6}$$

where all variables are previously defined, α_0 is the constant term and v_t is the white noise error term. The short-run relationship model (RECM) is

$$\Delta LNGDP_t = \beta_0 + \eta DUM_t + \omega \hat{ECT}_{t-1} + \sum_{i=1}^p \beta_i \Delta LNGDP_{t-i} + \sum_{i=0}^{q1} \gamma_i \Delta LNEXP_{t-i} + \sum_{i=0}^{q2} \delta_i \Delta LNIMP_{t-i} + \sum_{i=0}^{q3} \xi_i \Delta LNEXR_{t-i} + \sum_{i=0}^{q4} \psi_i \Delta LNINR_{t-i} + e_t \tag{7}$$

where ω is the coefficient of the error (or equilibrium) correction term ECT. It shows variables' speed to converge to equilibrium and it is expected that ω has a significant negative value. Equation (7) can also be used for testing short-run and long-run Granger causality.

The variable ECTt-1 (error or equilibrium correction term) in the equation (7) is one lagged values of the estimated ordinary least squares (OLS) residuals (v_t) of the long-run model given in equation (6). Long-run coefficients can also be calculated by using estimated θ_1 coefficients of the unrestricted error correction model (UECM, equation 3 or 4). The long-run estimated relationship for any X_i is obtained by $-(\theta_1 / \theta_0)$. For example in equation (3 and 4), the long-run export and import elasticities are $-\theta_{10}/\theta_0$ and $-\theta_{20}/\theta_0$, respectively. The short-run effects are captured by the coefficients of the first-differenced variables in (3 and 4) (Keong et al., 2005). Both functional form misspecification and assumptions about the residuals in the restricted error correction model (equation 7) such as no serial correlation, normality and homoscedasticity should be checked by performing diagnostic tests.

A joint hypothesis testing for the coefficients of lagged differences of variables can be used for short-run Granger causality test for each regressor in the equation (7). The significance of the coefficient of the error correction term (ECTt-1) can be used for testing long-run Granger causality. A combined hypothesis test for the coefficients of lagged differences of variables and coefficient of the error correction term (ECTt-1) can be used for strong form of Granger causality test (Acaravci & Ozturk, 2012; Guru Gharana, 2012). Stability of the model can be tested through recursive regression residuals using the Brown et al. (1975) method, also known as the cumulative sum (CUSUM) and cumulative sum of squares (CUSUMSQ) tests. The coefficients of the model are stable when the plots of calculated statistics lie between the critical bounds of 5% significance (Guru Gharana, 2012).

Toda and Yamamoto (1995) proposed another causality (named non-causality) testing approach. Toda-Yamamoto Granger non-causality test corresponds to the vector autoregressive (VAR) model (Toda & Yamamoto, 1995):

$$LNGDP_t = \alpha_0 + \left(\sum_{i=1}^k \alpha_{1i} LNGDP_{t-i} + \sum_{i=k+1}^{d \max} \alpha_{2i} LNGDP_{t-i} \right) + \left(\sum_{i=1}^k \beta_{1i} LNEXP_{t-i} + \sum_{i=k+1}^{d \max} \beta_{2i} LNEXP_{t-i} \right) + \left(\sum_{i=1}^k \gamma_{1i} LNIMP_{t-i} + \sum_{i=k+1}^{d \max} \gamma_{2i} LNIMP_{t-i} \right) + \left(\sum_{i=1}^k \delta_{1i} LNEXR_{t-i} + \sum_{i=k+1}^{d \max} \delta_{2i} LNEXR_{t-i} \right) + \left(\sum_{i=1}^k \varphi_{1i} LNINR_{t-i} + \sum_{i=k+1}^{d \max} \varphi_{2i} LNINR_{t-i} \right) + \varepsilon_t \tag{8}$$

Equation (8) is written for each of the five variables as a system first to determine optimum VAR lag-length k by using information criteria such as Akaike or Schwarz. The greatest order of integration, which is obtained from the unit root tests, of all five variables is defined as d_{max} and then above (equation 8) VAR system is estimated. Null hypothesis of no Granger causality against the alternative hypothesis of existence of Granger causality is defined for each equation (left side variable) in the VAR system. Hence the Granger causality for instance from LNEXP to LNGDP (LNEXP \rightarrow LNGDP) implies $\beta_{1i} \neq 0$ ($\forall i$) in the first equation written for LNGDP (equation 8).

Toda-Yamamoto Granger non-causality test can be performed irrespective of whether the variables are $I(0)$, $I(1)$ or $I(2)$, cointegrated or not cointegrated, but inverse roots of autoregressive (AR) characteristic polynomial should be inside of the unit circle to estimate robust causality result.

Results

While in the stationary time series shocks are temporary and series revert to their long run mean values in a short term, nonstationary series have a long memory and shocks affect them in a permanent way. Spurious regressions occur when time series are analyzed as stationary although one or more are nonstationary. In this study, Augmented Dickey-Fuller (ADF) and Phillips-Perron (PP) unit root tests are performed. ADF and PP unit root (that means nonstationarity) test results for the logs of the real gross domestic product (LNGDP), real exports (LNEXP), real imports (LNIMP), exchange rates (LNEXR) and interest rates (LNINR) during the period 2000Q1-2013Q4 in Romania are given in Table 2.

Results of the PP unit root test denote that all of the time series are stationary at most in their first differences. The LNGDP series appears to be trend stationary (and stationary with a drift) while log of exchange rates (LNEXR) and log of imports (LNIMP) series seem to be stationary with a drift and log of interest rates (LNINR) seem to be stationary without a drift and trend in both levels and first difference. Results of the both ADF and PP unit root tests clearly indicate that log of exports (LNEXP) series is nonstationary when the variable is defined at levels with or without constant and trend.

It is concluded that the maximum order of integration of the series is I(1). All series in the analysis should be integrated of the same order for using the conventional cointegration analysis such as Engle and Granger or Johansen methods. This provides a good rationale for using the bounds test approach. Usability of the ARDL bounds F testing (cointegration analysis) method with a mixture of I(0) and I(1) data is the one of the superiorities of this method.

Table 2. Results of the Unit Root Tests

Variable	Test Statistic	Log Levels				First Difference			
		ADF	Lag	PP	Lag	ADF	Lag	PP	Lag
LNGDP	τ	1.8371	(5)	2.2818	(11)	-2.0510**	(4)	-15.9840***	(11)
	τ_{μ}	-1.8702	(5)	-5.0624***	(16)	-2.8147*	(4)	-20.3196***	(11)
	$\tau_{\mu+T}$	-1.3141	(5)	-6.4817***	(25)	-3.1703	(4)	-20.4638***	(11)
LNEXP	τ	2.4256	(4)	4.2520	(16)	-2.3951**	(3)	-8.3444***	(10)
	τ_{μ}	-0.9942	(4)	-2.0898	(16)	-3.5287**	(3)	-12.2584***	(21)
	$\tau_{\mu+T}$	-2.4400	(4)	-3.9643	(9)	-3.4796*	(3)	-15.0300***	(18)
LNIMP	τ	1.0053	(4)	2.2071	(19)	-2.3852**	(4)	-8.4032***	(20)
	τ_{μ}	-1.4209	(4)	-2.6572*	(19)	-2.8266*	(4)	-9.7659***	(27)
	$\tau_{\mu+T}$	-1.7048	(4)	-2.5437	(14)	-3.0959	(4)	-14.3959***	(19)
LNEXR	τ	1	(1)	1.3172	(5)	-4.4269***	(0)	-4.3650***	(3)
	τ_{μ}	-3.7459***	(1)	-3.8443***	(3)	-4.8451***	(0)	-4.8439***	(3)
	$\tau_{\mu+T}$	-3.3283*	(1)	-2.8906	(3)	-5.3471***	(0)	-5.3809***	(3)
LNINR	τ	-2.0012**	(0)	-2.0152**	(1)	-7.1682***	(0)	-7.1899***	(3)
	τ_{μ}	-1.0767	(0)	-1.0694	(1)	-7.4284***	(0)	-7.4286***	(2)

$\tau_{\mu+T}$	-2.6033	(0)	-2.8393	(2)	-7.3499***	(0)	-7.3510***	(2)
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Notes: $\tau_{\mu+T}$ represents the most general model with a drift and trend; τ_{μ} is the model with a drift and without trend; τ is the most restricted model without a drift and trend. (2) Numbers in brackets are lag lengths used in the ADF test (as determined by AIC) to remove serial correlation in the residuals. When using the PP test, numbers in brackets represent Newey–West bandwidth (as determined by Bartlett–Kernel). (3) Superscripts ***, ** and * denote rejection of the null hypothesis at the 1%, 5% and 10% levels respectively. (4) Unit root test results are obtained from E-VIEWS 7.1.

The optimal lag lengths for the first-differenced variables are determined using Schwarz information criterion (SC) allowing maximum lag length of 6 and then equation (3) denoting the unrestricted error correction model (UECM) is derived from underlying ARDL model. Instead of estimating 75=16807 equations, a hierarchical approach is used to evaluate the optimum lag lengths for the first differenced variables in the UECM following the method proposed by Kamas and Joyce (1993) (Yüce Akıncı & Akıncı, 2014).

Table 3. Results of the AIC and SC for the Unrestricted Error Correction Model (UECM)

Lag Length	Δ LNGDP		Δ LNEXP		Δ LNIMP		Δ LNEXR		Δ LNINR	
	AIC	SC	AIC	SC	AIC	SC	AIC	SC	AIC	SC
0	NA	NA	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
1	2.2548	1.9602	5.1043	4.6072	5.3033	4.7679	5.2919	4.7183	5.3481	4.7363
2	2.2557	1.9212	5.0647	4.5294	5.2679	4.6943	5.2660	4.6541	5.3966	4.7465
3	4.3629	3.9877	5.1653	4.5917	5.2279	4.6160	5.3526	4.7025	5.3618	4.6734
4	4.9684	4.5517	5.1519	4.5401	5.2106	4.5605	5.4002	4.7119	5.4357	4.7091
5	5.0291	4.5702	5.1120	4.4619	5.1768	4.4885	5.3856	4.6590	5.3970	4.6322
6	4.9772	4.4752	5.0885	4.4001	5.1485	4.4219	5.3794	4.6146	5.3997	4.5967
	4.9772	4.4752	5.0562	4.3226	5.1505	4.3783	5.3924	4.5816	5.4546	4.6052

Lag length p for the Δ LNGDP variable in equation (3) is determined firstly by using minimum SC value. After the lag length p is determined, Δ LNGDPt-p is fixed and the same process is run for the first differenced explanatory variables Δ LNEXP, Δ LNIMP, Δ LNEXR and Δ LNINR respectively. The results of the Schwarz information criterion (and Akaike's information criterion, AIC) are shown in Table 3. Estimated coefficients of the UECM (equation 3) are shown in Table 4, where optimum lag lengths are chosen as p=5, q1=0, q2=0, q3=0 and q4=1.

Table 4. Unrestricted Error Correction Model (UECM)

Regressor	Coefficient	t statistics	p value
Intercept	3.2616	3.6463	0.0009
DUM	-0.0340	-2.5794	0.0145
LNGDPT-1	-0.5785	-5.2395	0.0000
LNEXPT-1	0.1007	1.7612	0.0875
LNIMPT-1	0.2168	4.0459	0.0003

LNEXRt-1	-0.0736	-1.9729	0.0569
LNINRt-1	0.0282	2.8090	0.0083
Δ LNGDPt-1	-0.0718	-0.5852	0.5624
Δ LNGDPt-2	-0.2909	-3.5611	0.0011
Δ LNGDPt-3	-0.4667	-5.5922	0.0000
Δ LNGDPt-4	0.3718	3.5338	0.0012
Δ LNGDPt-5	-0.1175	-0.9889	0.3299
Δ LNEXPt	0.0887	1.6304	0.1125
Δ LNIMPt	0.1160	2.9276	0.0061
Δ LNEXRt	-0.1157	-1.5334	0.1347
Δ LNINRt	0.0178	1.9077	0.0652
Δ LNINRt-1	-0.0158	-1.7469	0.0900

Using lag orders of $p=5$, $q_1=0$, $q_2=0$, $q_3=0$ and $q_4=1$ for the first differenced variables and the results of the estimated unrestricted (unconstrained) error correction model (UECM), Wald (F) test is performed for the hypothesis given in the equation (5) for the sample period of 2000q1-2013q4. The results of the bounds F test are summarized in the Table 5.

Table 5. Results of the Bounds F Cointegration Test

F statistic	Sample sizes of critical table values	$\alpha = 0.01$		$\alpha = 0.05$		$\alpha = 0.10$	
		I(0)	I(1)	I(0)	I(1)	I(0)	I(1)
6.9890	n = 55	4.244	5.726	3.068	4.334	2.578	3.710
(n = 56, k = 4)	n = 60	4.176	5.676	3.062	4.314	2.568	3.712

Notes: Critical values I(0) and I(1) are obtained from Narayan (2005), "Critical values for the bounds test: caselli: unrestricted intercept and no trend", p.1988; k=4. F statistic is significant at the 5% significance level.

The result of the bounds test confirms the presence of a long run relationship when the log of gross domestic product (LNGDP) is dependent variable of the model for the period 2000Q1-2013Q4 in Romania. Calculated F statistic is 6.9890. Upper bound critical values are I(1)=5.726 (n=55) and I(1)=5.676 (n=60) for $k+1=5$ variables ($k=4$) and 1% significance level. Null hypothesis of no cointegration is rejected at the 1% significance level because F test statistic is greater than the critical upper bounds value I(1). It is concluded from the ARDL bounds F testing methodology that there is strong evidence of long-run equilibrating relationship between LNGDP as the dependent variable and LNEXP, LNIMP, LNEXR and LNINR as the regressors for the period of 2000q1-2013q4 in Romania.

It is confirmed that there exists a long run relationship between the logs of gross domestic product (LNGDP), exports (LNEXP), imports (LNIMP), exchange rates (LNEXR) and interest rates (LNINR) but it is important the unrestricted error correction model (UECM)'s being met the necessary assumptions which are checked by the diagnostic tests. Results are reported in the Table 6.

Table 6. Diagnostic Tests for the Unrestricted (unconstrained) Error Correction Model (UECM)

Null Hypothesis	Test Statistic	df	p value	Null Hypothesis	Test Statistic	df	p value
No Serial Correlation	$\chi^2_1 = 0.5981$	1	0.4393	Homoscedasticity	$\chi^2_{16} = 6.2449$	16	0.9852

No Serial Correlation	$\chi_4^2 = 5.3920$	4	0.2494			
Normality	$\chi_2^2 = 1.0196$	2	0.6006	No ARCH effect	$\chi_1^2 = 0.5018$	1 0.4787

Lagrange multiplier test of residual serial correlation is performed to check if residuals have serial correlation for the lag lengths 1 and 4; Jarque-Bera normality test based on the skewness and kurtosis measures of the residuals is used to control if the distribution of the residuals is normal; Breusch-Godfrey heteroscedasticity test based on the regression of squared residuals on the original regressors of the model is performed to test the null hypothesis of homoscedasticity and the null hypothesis of no ARCH effects in the residuals is tested by regressing the squared residuals on the one period lagged squared residuals and a constant term. Obtained hypothesis testing results do not reject the null hypotheses. It is concluded that the unrestricted error correction model (UECM) satisfies the given assumptions.

After determining the long-run cointegration relationship, the short-run and the long-run elasticity coefficients are estimated by using the ARDL procedure. For both of the long-run and the short-run ARDL models (equations 6 and 7), equations are estimated and Schwarz information criterion is used to determine the optimum lag lengths following again the method proposed by Kamas and Joyce (1993) (Yüce Akıncı & Akıncı, 2014). Estimated long-run levels model is shown in the Table7. Lagged values of the estimated residuals of the long-run levels model are used as error (equilibrium) correction term (ECT) in the short-run model.

Table 7. Estimated Long-run Coefficients

Regressor	Coefficient	Standard Error	t statistic	p value
Intercept	2.4430	0.7003	3.4883	0.0012
DUM	-0.0238	0.0116	-2.0446	0.0475
LNEXP	0.0924	0.0451	2.0476	0.0472
LNIMP	0.1388	0.0341	4.0749	0.0002
LNEXR	-0.0526	0.0320	-1.6436	0.1081
LNINR	0.0146	0.0072	2.0215	0.0500
LNGDPt-1	0.4462	0.0817	5.4611	0.0000
LNGDPt-2	-0.0978	0.0278	-3.5149	0.0011
LNGDPt-3	-0.1394	0.0280	-4.9877	0.0000
LNGDPt-4	0.8848	0.0310	28.5477	0.0000
LNGDPt-5	-0.5197	0.0815	-6.3799	0.0000

Note: Dependent Variable is LNGDP, the chosen model is ARDL(5, 0, 0, 0, 0)

In the long run, elasticity coefficient of log of the imports (LNIMP) is 0.14% and it is significant at the 1% level. Elasticity coefficients of the logs of exports (LNEXP) and interest rates (LNINR) are estimated as 0.09% and 0.01% respectively and they are significant at the 5% level. Estimated long-run elasticity of the log of the exchange rates (LNEXR) is -0.05% and the p-value obtained is 10.8%. The long-run estimates show that exports, imports and interest rates are positively correlated but exchange rates are negatively correlated to economic growth. The negative relationship between the exchange rate and GDP shows that the depreciation of the exchange rate will slow down economic growth in Romania. Dummy variable (DUM) with the estimated coefficient of -0.02 is found statistically significant at the 5% level. It is concluded that after the European Union membership, the log of gross domestic product (LNGDP) of Romania is 0.02 points on average less than before the membership. Also, it is found but not reported here that when DUM is not in the model, coefficients of the model are not stable. The lagged values of the dependent variable (LNGDP) from 1 to 5 are found significant at the 1% level as shown in Table 7.

The results of the long-run equation are used to calculate the error correction term (ECT) which is used in the estimation of equation (7) for the short-run dynamics. Schwarz criterion values that are used to establish the optimal lag orders for the equation (7) with the lagged error correction term (ECTt-1) are reported in Table 8.

Table 8. Values of the AIC and SC for the Restricted Error Correction Model (RECM)

Lag Length	ΔLNGDP		ΔLNEXP		ΔLNIMP		ΔLNEXR		ΔLNINR	
	AIC	SC	AIC	SC	AIC	SC	AIC	SC	AIC	SC
0	NA	NA	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
1	-	0.0863	5.2019	4.8577	5.3234	4.9410	5.3031	4.8824	5.3918	4.9329
2	0.0667	-	5.1642	4.7818	5.2881	4.8675	5.2749	4.8161	5.3859	4.8888
3	-	-	5.2367	4.8161	5.2645	4.8056	5.2868	4.7897	5.3771	4.8418
4	1.2484	1.0572	5.2273	4.7684	5.2769	4.7798	5.2542	4.7188	5.3913	4.8177
5	-	-	5.1873	4.6902	5.2369	4.7015	5.3255	4.7519	5.3647	4.7528
6	5.0707	4.7648	5.1602	4.6248	5.1972	4.6236	5.2879	4.6760	5.5219	4.8718
7	-	-	5.0233	4.6758	5.1056	4.5264	5.1939	4.5762	5.2992	4.6428
8	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
9	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
10	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
11	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
12	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
13	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
14	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
15	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
16	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
17	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
18	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
19	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
20	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Optimum lag lengths for the restricted error correction model (RECM, equation 7) are determined as p = 5 and q1 = q2 = q3 = q4 = 0 but after performing diagnostic tests, it is found that both null hypotheses of no serial correlation (at lag length

4) and no specification error are rejected at the 5% level ($\chi^2 = 11.6403$ p = 0.0202 and $\chi^2 = 6.0165$ p = 0.0142 respectively). Lag 6 of the ΔLNGDP is added to the RECM and it is determined that the results of the all diagnostic tests entail using the short-run RECM with the lag lengths p = 6 and q1 = q2 = q3 = q4 = 0. Results of the estimated RECM are shown in Table 9.

Table 9. Restricted Error Correction Model (RECM)

Regressor	Coefficient	Standard Error	t statistic	p value
Intercept	0.0045	0.0057	0.7885	0.4355
DUMt	-0.0034	0.0052	-0.6546	0.5169
ECTt-1	-0.9890	0.2329	-4.2463	0.0001
ΔLNGDPt-1	0.4601	0.1594	2.8865	0.0065
ΔLNGDPt-2	-0.1247	0.1077	-1.1582	0.2544
ΔLNGDPt-3	-0.1941	0.0685	-2.8335	0.0075
ΔLNGDPt-4	0.8452	0.0713	11.8551	0.0000
ΔLNGDPt-5	-0.5993	0.1410	-4.2500	0.0001
ΔLNGDPt-6	-0.0172	0.1175	-0.1462	0.8846
ΔLNEXPt	0.0974	0.0495	1.9683	0.0568
ΔLNIMPt	0.1145	0.0383	2.9939	0.0050

$\Delta LNEXR_t$	-0.1092	0.0635	-1.7188	0.0942
$\Delta LNINR_t$	0.0201	0.0080	2.5046	0.0169
$\bar{R}^2 = 0.9956$	$\hat{\sigma} = 0.0145$	$AIC = -5.4062$	$SC = -4.9043$	

Notes: \bar{R}^2 is the adjusted squared multiple correlation coefficient, $\hat{\sigma}$ is standard error of the regression, AIC and SC are Akaike's and Schwarz's information criteria. Dependent variable of the model is $\Delta LNGDP$.

Significance of the error (equilibrium) correction term (ECTt-1) clearly shows long-term Granger causality. The sign of the error correction term (ECT) is correct and it measures the speed at which prior deviations from the equilibrium are corrected in the current period. Estimated ECT coefficient is -0.99 (ECTt-1 = -0.9890) and significant at the 1% level, thus indicating that almost 99% of the dis-equilibrium due to the previous term's shocks is adjusted back to the long-run equilibrium in the current term. The speed of adjustment is very high.

All explanatory variables which are logs of exports, imports, exchange rates and interest rates (LNEXP, LNIMP, LNEXR and LNINR) have significant short-run impact on the log of gross domestic product (LNGDP) during the term 2000q1-2013q4 in Romania. Estimated short-run elasticities are 0.10% for the log of exports (LNEXP), 0.11% for the log of imports (LNIMP), -0.11% for the log of the exchange rates (LNEXR) and 0.02% for the log of interest rates (LNINR) and they are significant at the 10%, 1%, 10% and 5% levels respectively. All five lagged changes except the second lag of $\Delta LNGDP$ are statistically significant at the 1% level whereas sixth lag of $\Delta LNGDP$ is insignificant (but kept in the model to ensure residuals have no serial correlation and the coefficients of the model are stable). Dummy variable (DUM) in the short-run model is found insignificant (p=0.52).

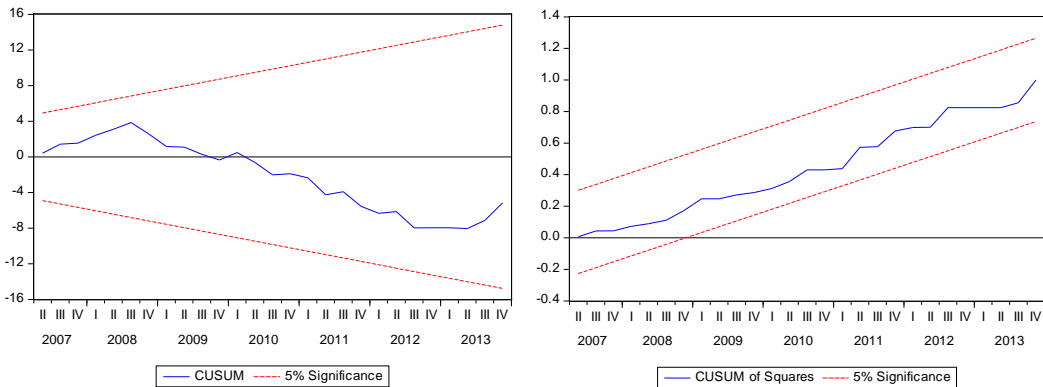
The diagnostic tests are performed for the restricted error correction (short-run) model (RECM) and results are reported in Table 10. The Lagrange multiplier tests are used to test the null hypotheses of no serial correlation in the residuals for lag-one and lag-four periods. p values obtained for the Lagrange multiplier tests are 0.1812 and 0.0403 respectively. There exists no first order serial correlation in the residuals at the conventional significance levels but the p-value of the fourth order serial correlation test is not high (4.03%). This may be evaluated as the weakness of the estimated model (but this model is the best one among the obtained models). Null hypothesis of normality is not rejected by the Jarque-Bera normality test (p-value is 0.6354). The Breusch-Godfrey heteroscedasticity test confirmed that there is no heteroscedasticity in the residuals (p-value is 0.1790). The null hypothesis of no ARCH effects in the residuals is tested by regressing the squared residuals on the one period lagged squared residuals and a constant term. Null of no ARCH effects is not rejected (p-value is 0.2258). Finally, null hypothesis of no mis-specification is not rejected at the 5% level by the calculated Ramsey's RESET test statistic (p-value is 0.0675).

Table 10. Diagnostic Tests for the Restricted Error Correction Model (RECM)

Null Hypothesis	Test Statistic	df	p-value	Null Hypothesis	Test Statistic	df	p-value
No Serial Correlation	$\chi^2_1 = 1.7880$	1	0.1812	Homoscedasticity	$\chi^2_{12} = 16.2743$	12	0.1790
No Serial Correlation	$\chi^2_4 = 10.0082$	4	0.0403	No ARCH Effect	$\chi^2_1 = 1.4669$	1	0.2258
Normality	$\chi^2_2 = 0.9070$	2	0.6354	No mis-specification	$\chi^2_1 = 3.3424$	1	0.0675

Stability of the parameters is tested by applying the cumulative sum of recursive residuals (CUSUM) and of squared recursive residuals (CUSUMSQ). Results are shown in Figure 1. The coefficients of the model are found stable because the plots of CUSUM and CUSUMSQ statistics fell inside the critical bounds of 5% significance level.

Figure 1. Cumulative Sum of Recursive Residuals and of Squares of Recursive Residuals for the RECM Model.



ARDL bounds F testing method is used to determine if there exists a long-run relationship (cointegration) among the logs of gross domestic product (LNGDP), exports (LNEXP), imports (LNIMP), exchange rate (LNEXR) and interest rates (LNINR). ARDL cointegration method does not indicate the direction of causality. The long-run, short-run and the strong form of the Granger causality test are performed to test the causality hypotheses from each of the explanatory variables to the log of the gross domestic product (LNGDP) by using restricted error correction model (RECM) given in equation (7).

Short-run (weak) Granger causalities for the chosen model where LNGDP is the dependent (or normalized) variable are

tested by using the null hypotheses of $H_0 : \gamma_i = 0$ (no Δ LNEXP $\rightarrow\Delta$ LNGDP), $H_0 : \delta_i = 0$ (no Δ LNIMP $\rightarrow\Delta$ LNGDP), $H_0 : \xi_i = 0$ (no Δ LNEXR $\rightarrow\Delta$ LNGDP) and $H_0 : \psi_i = 0$ (no Δ LNINR $\rightarrow\Delta$ LNGDP) which show short-run non-causalities from the logs of exports (LNEXP), imports (LNIMP), exchange rates (LNEXC) and interest rates (LNINR) to the log of gross domestic product (LNGDP). Wald test is used to perform hypothesis testing on the coefficient restrictions.

Long-run Granger causality from the explanatory variables to LNGDP is tested by using Wald test (or t test) on coefficient of the error correction term (ECT) in equation (7). The null hypothesis which shows there is no long-run Granger causality

from the explanatory variables to LNGDP is $H_0 : \omega = 0$ (no ECT $\rightarrow\Delta$ LNGDP).

Strong form of the Granger causality is tested by using Wald test on joint coefficient restrictions of the restricted error

correction model (RECM) in equation (7). The null hypotheses are $H_0 : \omega = \gamma_i = 0$ (no Δ LNEXP+ECT $\rightarrow\Delta$ LNGDP), $H_0 : \omega = \delta_i = 0$ (no Δ LNIMP+ECT $\rightarrow\Delta$ LNGDP), $H_0 : \omega = \xi_i = 0$ (no Δ LNEXR+ECT $\rightarrow\Delta$ LNGDP) and $H_0 : \omega = \psi_i = 0$ (no Δ LNINR+ECT $\rightarrow\Delta$ LNGDP).

Results of the Granger non-causality tests are reported in Table 11.

Table 11. Results of the Short-run, Long-run and the Stronger Form of the Granger Causality Tests

Short-run Granger Causality			Strong form of the Granger Causality		
Null Hypothesis	Wald F Test Statistic	p-value	Null Hypothesis	Wald F Test Statistic	p-value
$H_0 : \gamma_i = 0$	$F_{1,36} = 3.8742$	0.0568	$H_0 : \omega = \gamma_i = 0$	$F_{2,36} = 11.7502$	0.0001

No $\Delta \text{LNEXP} \rightarrow \Delta \text{LNGDP}$	No $\Delta \text{LNEXP} + \text{ECT} \rightarrow \Delta \text{LNGDP}$		
$H_0 : \delta_i = 0$	$H_0 : \omega = \delta_i = 0$		
$F_{1,36} = 8.9635$	$F_{2,36} = 12.3069$	0.0050	0.0001
No $\Delta \text{LNIMP} \rightarrow \Delta \text{LNGDP}$	No $\Delta \text{LNIMP} + \text{ECT} \rightarrow \Delta \text{LNGDP}$		
$H_0 : \xi_i = 0$	$H_0 : \omega = \xi_i = 0$		
$F_{1,36} = 2.9542$	$F_{2,36} = 11.8095$	0.0942	0.0001
No $\Delta \text{LNEXR} \rightarrow \Delta \text{LNGDP}$	No $\Delta \text{LNEXR} + \text{ECT} \rightarrow \Delta \text{LNGDP}$		
$H_0 : \psi_i = 0$	$H_0 : \omega = \psi_i = 0$		
$F_{1,36} = 6.2731$	$F_{2,36} = 12.2748$	0.0169	0.0001
No $\Delta \text{LNINR} \rightarrow \Delta \text{LNGDP}$	No $\Delta \text{LNINR} + \text{ECT} \rightarrow \Delta \text{LNGDP}$		
Long-run Granger Causality			
Null Hypothesis	Wald F Test Statistic	p- value	
$H_0 : \omega = 0$	$F_{1,36} = 18.0309$	0.0001	
No ECT $\rightarrow \Delta \text{LNGDP}$			

When the model is normalized on the log of the gross domestic product (so LNGDP is the dependent variable of the model), there exists a strong long-run Granger causality from the logs of exports (LNEXP), imports (LNIMP), exchange rates (LNEXR) and interest rates (LNINR) to the log of gross domestic product (LNGDP) in Romania for the period of 2000q1-2013q4.

The F-tests on the joint deletion of the corresponding coefficients show strong evidences of short-run Granger causalities from the log of exports to the log of GDP, from the log of imports to log of GDP, from the log of exchange rates to log of GDP and from the log of interest rates to the log of GDP at the 10%, 1%, 10% and 5% significance levels respectively. Also, results of the strong Granger causality tests indicate that there are strong causalities from each of the log of the explanatory variables namely exports, imports, exchange rates and interest rates to the log of GDP.

Discussion

In this study, an empirical model is investigated between five time series variables which are logs of gross domestic product (LNGDP), exports (LNEXP), imports (LNIMP), exchange rates (LNEXR) and interest rates (LNINR) during the term from the first quarter of 2000 to the fourth quarter of 2013 (2000q1-2013q4) in Romania.

Autoregressive distributed lag (ARDL) model is specified to identify the relationship between the log of gross domestic product (LNGDP) and the other four explanatory variables. ARDL bounds F test procedure is used to determine the cointegration relationship for Romania and a cointegration relationship is detected when log of gross domestic product (LNGDP) is identified as dependent to the other four explanatory macroeconomic variables in the model. After confirming that there exists cointegration relationship, the long run and the short run elasticity coefficients of the log of gross domestic product (LNGDP) are explored.

Results of this analysis indicate that there exists a long run cointegration relationship between the logs of gross domestic product (LNGDP), exports (LNEXP), imports (LNIMP), exchange rates (LNEXR) and interest rates (LNINR) in Romania where the log of gross domestic product (LNGDP) is defined as dependent variable in an ARDL framework. Because of

cointegration relationship, it is reasonable to estimate a dynamic error correction model for Romania and subsequently estimate the long and the short run elasticity coefficients. Long-run and short-run elasticity coefficients are explored by using ARDL model and the causalities from the explanatory variables to LNGDP are determined.

Results show that logs of exports (LNEXP), imports (LNIMP), exchange rates (LNEXR) and interest rates (LNINR) have a substantial long-run effect on the log of gross domestic product (LNGDP) with respective long-run elasticity coefficients of 0.09% (LNEXP), 0.14% (LNIMP), -0.05% (LNEXR, p-value is 10.8%) and 0.01% (LNINR). Under specified model, log of exchange rates (LNEXR) has a long-run effect on the log of gross domestic product (LNGDP) at the 10.81% significance level. The long-run estimates show that exports, imports and interest rates are positively correlated but exchange rate is negatively correlated to economic growth. The negative relationship between the exchange rate and GDP shows that the depreciation of the exchange rate will slow down economic growth in Romania. Dummy variable (DUM) with the estimated coefficient of -0.02 is found statistically significant at the 5% level and it is concluded that after the European Union membership, the log of gross domestic product (LNGDP) of Romania is 0.02 points on average less than before the membership.

Dynamic short-run effects are estimated and results show that each of the four explanatory variables affect the log of gross domestic product (LNGDP) in the short term too. Estimated short-run elasticity coefficients are 0.10% for exports (LNEXP), 0.11% for imports (LNIMP), -0.11% for exchange rates (LNEXR) and 0.02% for interest rates (LNINR) in Romania.

Finally, long-run, short-run and the stronger form of the Granger causalities from each of the four explanatory variables to the log of gross domestic product (LNGDP) are examined by Granger non-causality testing method. Unidirectional short-run Granger causalities are determined from exports to gross domestic product (LNEXP→LNGDP), from imports to GDP (LNIMP→LNGDP), from exchange rates to GDP (LNEXR→LNGDP) and from interest rates to GDP (LNINR→LNGDP). There also exists the stronger form of the Granger causalities from each of the explanatory variables to GDP.

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Manufacturing Output in Romania: an ARDL Approach

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Abstract

This paper empirically investigates manufacturing output function for Romania by using the quarterly time series data during the period 2000q1-2013q4. Research variables are manufacturing production index, labor cost index, producer energy price index, interest rate, exchange rate and a time dummy variable measuring the effect of Romania's participation to European Union. Long-run and short-run elasticities of variables were examined using the bounds testing cointegration method proposed by Pesaran et al. (2001). Results of the analysis show that Romania has a long run cointegration. The dynamic error correction model for Romania is found and subsequently long-run and short-run elasticity coefficients are explored by using ARDL model. It is detected that logs of energy price index, labor cost index and interest rates have a substantial long-run effect on the log of manufacturing production index with respective long-run elasticity coefficients of -0.51% (LNEPI), 0.57% (LNLCI) and -0.05% (for LNINR). Log of exchange rates does not have a long-run effect on the log of manufacturing production index. Causality test using the Toda and Yamamoto (1995) Granger non-causality procedure was employed in order to examine Granger causalities between variables and unidirectional Granger causalities as (LNLCI→LNMPPI) , (LNINR→LNMPPI), (LNEXR→LNINR) and (LNEPI→LNMPPI) are detected. CUSUM and CUSUMSQ stability tests on hypothesized manufacturing output function were also implemented.

Keywords: ARDL bounds F test, Toda-Yamamoto non-causality, Stability tests, Manufacturing output, Romania

Introduction

Development in industrial production generates the dynamics of growth and economic development. Industrialization is exceptionally substantial for the realization of economic development. In this study, the evidence of long-run cointegration relationship among the logs of manufacturing production index, energy price index, exchange rates and interest rates in Romania is investigated by using autoregressive distributed lag (ARDL) bounds F testing developed by Pesaran and Shin (1995) and Pesaran et al. (2001). Subsequently the long-run and short-run elasticity coefficients are estimated. Direction of causality between the research variables are also investigated by using recently getting popularized Toda-Yamamoto Granger non-causality testing approach (Toda & Yamamoto, 1995). It is found that the cointegration relationship exists in Romania during the period 2000Q1-2013Q4 for the research variables identified below and after the causality assessment, unidirectional relationships are determined.

There are limited number of empirical researches investigating the determinants of production index in the literature. Bodo et al. (2000) tried to find best model to forecast the index of the industrial production in the Euro area by constructing univariate ARIMA to multivariate cointegrated VAR and conditional models. They found that the conditional error correction model in which the aggregate index of industrial production is explained by the US industrial production index and the business confidence index from the European Commission harmonised survey on manufacturing firms achieves the best forecast performance. Zizza (2002) modeled the monthly volume of the industrial production of the euro area based on the US industrial production index to obtain short-term predictions and proposed the model on the single country forecasts of the production indices for the main euro area countries.

Bodo and Signorini (1987) built several models such as simple univariate, OLS that employs data on electric power input, corrected for the effects of temperature and (indirectly) of the manufacturing output mix and a transfer function model based

on business surveys. They determined that the best single forecasts are those based on the electric power input. Bodo, Cividini and Signorini (1991) used half monthly electricity consumption data to model the industrial production in Italy. They showed that a model using half monthly electricity data generates acceptable estimates of the monthly production index. Clark, P. K. (1987) decomposed quarterly data on industrial production and deflated gross national product in the US into independent nonstationary trend and stationary cycle components using Kalman filtering and smoothing techniques. He detected that at least half of the quarterly innovation in US economic activity can be attributed to the stationary cyclical component. Barışık and Yayar (2012) used economic variables which are such as outward factors as oil price, exchange rate, export and inward factors as public expenditure, consumption expenditure and import to determine their effects on industrial production by using regression analysis. Authors demonstrated causal relationships between industrial production and economic variables and determined the impulse-responses. They showed that economic variables influence the industrial production.

Method

Framework

Hypothesized functional relationship for this empirical research is given below between five macroeconomic variables plus one time dummy for Romania as

$$MPI_t = e^{\beta_0 + \eta DUM} EPI_t^{\beta_1} LCI_t^{\beta_2} EXR_t^{\beta_3} INR_t^{\beta_4} e^v \tag{1}$$

and by taking natural logarithm on both sides, it is gotten the usual log-linear equation for estimation as

$$LNMPI_t = \beta_0 + \eta DUM_t + \beta_1 LNEPI_t + \beta_2 LNLCI_t + \beta_3 LNEXR_t + \beta_4 LNINR_t + v_t \tag{2}$$

Data and Approach

Data used in the analysis is defined in Table 1 and all raw data are obtained from Eurostat's web page 1. Manufacturing production index (MPI) is the volume index (2010=100) of the production in Romania. Energy price index (EPI) is the output price index (2010=100) in national currency calculated by the producer prices in industry. Labor cost index (2008=100) (LCI) is calculated by compensation of employees plus taxes minus subsidies and rearranged by the authors to get new index which shows 2010=100. Exchange rates and interest rates are well known usual variables, they are obtained as monthly data and converted to quarterly data by the authors.

Also, DUM in the equation (2) is the dummy variable to capture the differences if any in the intercept before and after Romania's being the member of European Union at 01.01.2007. Dummy is coded as 0 and 1 to identify before and after European Union membership of Romania, respectively.

The sample size is 56, beginning from the first quarter of 2000 and ending at the fourth quarter of 2013. All variables except the dummy one are transformed into the natural logarithms in order to estimate elasticity coefficients as shown in the equation (2).

All results in this study are obtained from Eviews version 7.1 software.

Table 1. Short Names of the Research Variables, Their Definitions and Units

Name	Definition	Unit	Term	Name	Definition	Unit	Term
LNMPI	Log of manufacturing production index	Log of index (2010=100)	2000Q1-2013Q4	LNEXR	Log of exchange rates	Log(Leu/Euro)	2000Q1-2013Q4
LNEPI	Log of energy	Log of index	2000Q1-	LNINR	Log of interest	Log of rates	2000Q1-

	price index	(2010=100)	2013Q4		rates		2013Q4
LNLCI	Log of labor	Log of index	2000Q1-	DUM	Time dummy	none	2000Q1-
	cost index	(2010=100)	2013Q4		variable		2013Q4

Procedure

Autoregressive distributed lag (ARDL) F bounds test is performed to identify if there is a long-run relationship among the logs of manufacturing production index, energy price index, labor cost index, exchange rates and interest rates in Romania. ARDL cointegration test is used because this method has some advantages when it is compared to other alternatives such as Engle and Granger (1987), Johansen (1988), and Johansen and Juselius (1990) procedures. First of all it has more power and therefore recommended when sample size is small (Pesaran et al., 2001; Ghatak & Siddiki, 2001; Acaravci & Ozturk, 2012). One other flexibility of the ARDL bounds F testing is its usability when not all variables have the same order of integration. Variables in the analysis may be I(0), I(1) or combination of both. The only necessary condition for the integration order of the variables is order's being at most 1 (Pesaran et al., 2001; Acaravci & Ozturk, 2012). The ARDL bounds testing method allows the variables' to have different optimal lags, while it is impossible with conventional cointegration procedures. Finally, the ARDL bounds cointegration test utilizes only a single reduced form equation, while the conventional cointegration procedures estimate the long-run relationships within a context of system equations (Narayan, 2005; Acaravci & Ozturk, 2012). Augmented Dickey-Fuller (ADF) and Phillips-Perron (PP) unit root tests are performed to determine the order of integration of the series (Dickey & Fuller, 1981; Phillips & Perron, 1988). Also, different variables can be assigned different lag-lengths as they enter the model.

Since we have hypothesized log-linear functional form between the research variables given in the equation (2), in order to perform ARDL bounds F (or Wald) test for examining evidence for long run relationship, an ARDL equation called as unrestricted (or unconstrained, conditional) error correction model (UECM) is constructed as below (Pesaran et al., 2001)

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta LNMPI_t = & \beta_0 + \eta DUM_t + \theta_0 LNMPI_{t-1} + \theta_1 LNEPI_{t-1} + \theta_2 LNLCI_{t-1} + \theta_3 LNEXR_{t-1} + \theta_4 LNINR_{t-1} \\ & + \sum_{i=1}^p \beta_i \Delta LNMPI_{t-i} + \sum_{i=0}^{q1} \gamma_i \Delta LNEPI_{t-i} + \sum_{i=0}^{q2} \delta_i \Delta LNLCI_{t-i} + \sum_{i=0}^{q3} \xi_i \Delta LNEXR_{t-i} \\ & + \sum_{i=0}^{q4} \psi_i \Delta LNINR_{t-i} + v_t \end{aligned} \tag{3}$$

where v_t is white noise error term and Δ is the first difference operator. This model is estimated by using ordinary least squares (OLS) method. $(p+1)(q1+1)(q2+1)(q3+1)(q4+1)$ number of regressions are estimated to acquire the optimal lag-lengths in the equation and the choice between different lag lengths is made by using information criteria such as Akaike (AIC) or Schwarz (SC). Schwarz information criterion (SC) preferred to AIC because it tends to define more parsimonious specifications (Pesaran & Shin, 1995; Acaravci & Ozturk, 2012). Alternatively, unrestricted error correction model (UECM) can be derived from underlying VAR(p) model, instead of specifying an ARDL model (Pesaran et al., 2001; Fosu & Magnus, 2006). Then number of regressions to specify the unrestricted error correction model becomes $(p+1)(k+1)$ where $(k+1)$ is the number of all variables and p is the desired maximum lag length. Residuals for the unrestricted error correction model (UECM) should be serially independent and the model itself should be dynamically stable. ARDL bounds F test statistic is calculated by imposing equality to zero restriction on all estimated coefficients of lagged level variables. Null hypothesis of no cointegration against the alternative hypothesis of existence of long-run cointegration becomes

$$\begin{aligned} H_0 : & \theta_0 = \theta_1 = \theta_2 = \theta_3 = \theta_4 = 0 \\ H_1 : & \theta_0 \neq 0; \theta_1 \neq 0; \theta_2 \neq 0; \theta_3 \neq 0; \theta_4 \neq 0; \theta_5 \neq 0 \end{aligned} \tag{4}$$

The asymptotic distribution for the ARDL bounds F test statistic is non-standard under the null hypothesis that there exists no level relationship, irrespective of whether the regressors are I(0) or I(1). Exact critical values for the ARDL bounds F test are not available for several mix of I(0) and I(1) variables but Pesaran et al. (2001) calculated the bounds on the critical values for the asymptotic distribution of the F statistic under different situations by changing the number of explanatory variables (k) in the model and sample size, for different model specifications (like no constant + no trend, unrestricted

constant + no trend etc.) and for each conventional levels of significance 1%, 5% and 10%. In each case, the lower bound is based on the assumption that all of the variables are I(0), and the upper bound is based on the assumption that all of the variables are I(1).

It is concluded that the variables are I(0), when the computed bounds F test statistic falls below the lower bound, so no cointegration is possible by definition. When the bounds F test statistic exceeds the upper bound, it is concluded that there is cointegration. The test is inconclusive when the bounds F test statistic lies between the bounds. Critical table values (bounds) are calculated for small samples (between 30 and 80) by Narayan (2005). Critical bounds are used from Narayan (2005) and from Pesaran et al. (2001) with respect to sample size, the former is for sample size at most 80 and the latter one for more than 80.

The long-run levels model showing the long-run equilibrating relationship and short-run error correction model to measure short-run dynamic effects can be identified by using the ARDL restricted error correction model (RECM) when cointegration is found so that the long-run and the short-run elasticity coefficients are determined.

The long-run relationship model is

$$LNMPI_t = \alpha_0 + \lambda DUM_t + \alpha_1 LNEPI_{t-1} + \alpha_2 LNLCI_{t-1} + \alpha_3 LNEXR_{t-1} + \alpha_4 LNINR_{t-1} + v_t \quad (5)$$

and the short-run relationship model (RECM, Restricted Error Correction Model) is

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta LNMPI_t = & \beta_0 + \eta DUM_t + \omega \hat{ECT}_{t-1} + \sum_{i=1}^p \beta_i \Delta LNMPI_{t-i} + \sum_{i=0}^{q1} \gamma_i \Delta LNEPI_{t-i} + \sum_{i=0}^{q2} \delta_i \Delta LNLCI_{t-i} \\ & + \sum_{i=0}^{q3} \xi_i \Delta LNEXR_{t-i} + \sum_{i=0}^{q4} \psi_i \Delta LNINR_{t-i} + e_t \end{aligned} \quad (6)$$

where ω is the coefficient of the error (or equilibrium) correction term ECT. It shows variables' speed to converge to equilibrium and it is expected its to have a significant negative value.

The variable ECTt-1 (error or equilibrium correction term) in the equation (6) is one lagged values of the estimated ordinary least squares (OLS) residuals (v_t) of the long-run model given in equation (5). Long-run coefficients can also be calculated by using estimated θ coefficients of the unrestricted error correction model (UECM, equation 3). The long-run estimated relationship for any Xi is obtained by $-(\theta_1 / \theta_0)$. Both functional form misspecification and assumptions about the residuals in the restricted error correction model (equation 6) such as no serial correlation, normality and homoscedasticity should be checked by performing diagnostic tests.

Toda-Yamamoto Granger non-causality test corresponds to the vector autoregressive (VAR) model (Toda & Yamamoto, 1995):

$$\begin{aligned} LNMPI_t = & \alpha_0 + \left(\sum_{i=1}^k \alpha_{1i} LNMPI_{t-i} + \sum_{i=k+1}^{d \max} \alpha_{2i} LNMPI_{t-i} \right) + \left(\sum_{i=1}^k \beta_{1i} LNEPI_{t-i} + \sum_{i=k+1}^{d \max} \beta_{2i} LNEPI_{t-i} \right) \\ & + \left(\sum_{i=1}^k \gamma_{1i} LNLCI_{t-i} + \sum_{i=k+1}^{d \max} \gamma_{2i} LNLCI_{t-i} \right) + \left(\sum_{i=1}^k \delta_{1i} LNEXR_{t-i} + \sum_{i=k+1}^{d \max} \delta_{2i} LNEXR_{t-i} \right) \\ & + \left(\sum_{i=1}^k \varphi_{1i} LNINR_{t-i} + \sum_{i=k+1}^{d \max} \varphi_{2i} LNINR_{t-i} \right) + \varepsilon_t \end{aligned} \quad (7)$$

Equation (7) is written for each of the five variables as a system first to determine optimum VAR lag-length k by using information criteria such as Akaike or Schwarz. The greatest order of integration, which is obtained from the unit root tests, of all five variables is defined as dmax and then above (equation 7) VAR system is estimated. Null hypothesis of no Granger causality against the alternative hypothesis of existence of Granger causality is defined for each equation (left side variable) in the VAR system. Hence the Granger causality for instance from LNEPI to LNMPI (LNEPI→LNMPI) implies $\beta_{1i} \neq 0 (\forall i)$ in the first equation written for LNMPI (equation 7).

Toda-Yamamoto Granger non-causality test can be performed irrespective of whether the variables are I(0), I(1) or I(2), cointegrated or not cointegrated, but inverse roots of autoregressive (AR) characteristic polynomial should be inside of the unit circle to estimate robust causality result.

Results

In this section, the results of various stages of analysis are presented and discussed. These include the unit root results for stationarity test, cointegration relationship, short-run and long-run estimations, and the causality analysis.

Augmented Dickey-Fuller and Phillips-Perron unit root test results for the logs of the manufacturing production index, energy price index, labor cost index, exchange rates and interest rates are given in Table 2. Test results show that all the time series variables are stationary at most in their first differences but some may be stationary in their levels. All series in the analysis should be integrated of the same order for using the conventional cointegration analysis such as Engle and Granger or Johansen but superiority of the ARDL bounds cointegration analysis is its usability with a mixture of I(0) and I(1) data. It is concluded from the results of the unit root tests that the maximum order of integration is found as 1.

Table 2. Unit Root Test Results

Variable	Test Statistic	Log Levels				First Difference			
		ADF	Lag	PP	Lag	ADF	Lag	PP	Lag
LNMPi	τ	1.3936	(4)	3.4234	(15)	-2.3960**	(3)	-11.1903***	(12)
	τ_{μ}	0.1130	(4)	-0.6775	(26)	-3.2804**	(4)	-18.6985***	(49)
	$\tau_{\mu+T}$	-3.2862*	(4)	-4.1533***	(4)	-3.4310*	(4)	-32.8554***	(53)
LNEPI	τ	1.1122	(1)	3.3928	(5)	-2.1605**	(0)	-2.1099**	(7)
	τ_{μ}	-4.1844***	(1)	-9.9320***	(1)	-2.4922	(0)	-2.1656	(4)
	$\tau_{\mu+T}$	-3.1663	(1)	-4.7479***	(0)	-3.9112**	(0)	-3.8793**	(2)
LNLCI	τ	0.7401	(4)	4.2055	(3)	-2.8659***	(3)	-6.2997***	(3)
	τ_{μ}	-1.2460	(4)	-9.7099***	(54)	-2.2730	(3)	-9.1705***	(4)
	$\tau_{\mu+T}$	-0.9854	(4)	-3.0293	(16)	-2.1454	(3)	-12.2755***	(3)
LNINR	τ	-2.0012**	(0)	-2.0152**	(1)	-7.1682***	(0)	-7.1899***	(3)
	τ_{μ}	-1.0767	(0)	-1.0694	(1)	-7.4284***	(0)	-7.4286***	(2)
	$\tau_{\mu+T}$	-2.6033	(0)	-2.8393	(2)	-7.3499***	(0)	-7.3510***	(2)
LNEXR	τ	1.2047	(1)	1.3172	(5)	-4.4269***	(0)	-4.3650***	(3)
	τ_{μ}	-3.7459***	(1)	-3.8443***	(3)	-4.8451***	(0)	-4.8439***	(3)
	$\tau_{\mu+T}$	-3.3283*	(1)	-2.8906	(3)	-5.3471***	(0)	-5.3809***	(3)

Notes: (1) $\tau^{\mu+T}$ represents the most general model with a drift and trend; τ^{μ} is the model with a drift and without trend; τ is the most restricted model without a drift and trend. (2) Numbers in brackets are lag lengths used in the ADF test (as determined by AIC) to remove serial correlation in the residuals. When using the PP test, numbers in brackets represent Newey–West bandwidth (as determined by Bartlett–Kernel). (3) Superscripts ***, ** and * denote rejection of the null hypothesis at the 1%, 5% and 10% levels respectively. (4) Tests for unit roots have been carried out in E-VIEWS 7.1.

Values of the Akaike and Schwarz information criteria obtained from the construction of the unrestricted error correction model (UECM) are reported in the Table 3 choosing the maximum lag lengths as five. The method proposed by Kamas and Joyce (1993) is followed in determining the optimum lag lengths for the unrestricted error correction model by using Schwarz information criterion (SC) (Yüce Akıncı & Akıncı, 2014). First, the optimum lag length for the differenced log of the manufacturing production index ($\Delta LNMPi$) is determined when the other differenced series are not in the model. Then the same procedure is applied for the first regressor (first difference of the log of the energy price index, $\Delta LNEPI$) to determine best lag length but using the fixed lag length found for the differenced log of the manufacturing production index ($\Delta LNMPi$). After determining optimum lag lengths for $\Delta LNMPi$ and $\Delta LNEPI$, lag length for the $\Delta LNLCl$ is specified by fixing the lag lengths for the $\Delta LNMPi$ and $\Delta LNEPI$ series. The procedure goes on the same way until the optimum lag lengths for all differenced series are identified. The chosen optimum lag lengths in the unrestricted error correction model are 4 ($\Delta LNMPi$), 0 ($\Delta LNEPI$), 4 ($\Delta LNLCl$), 1 ($\Delta LNEXR$) and 0 for $\Delta LNINR$.

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta LNMPi_t = & \beta_0 + \eta DUM_t + \theta_0 LNMPi_{t-1} + \theta_1 LNEPI_{t-1} + \theta_2 LNLCl_{t-1} + \theta_3 LNEXR_{t-1} \\ & + \theta_4 LNINR_{t-1} + \sum_{i=1}^4 \beta_i \Delta LNMPi_{t-i} + \sum_{i=0}^0 \gamma_i \Delta LNEPI_{t-i} + \sum_{i=0}^4 \delta_i \Delta LNLCl_{t-i} \\ & + \sum_{i=0}^1 \xi_i \Delta LNEXR_{t-i} + \sum_{i=0}^0 \psi_i \Delta LNINR_{t-i} + e_t \end{aligned} \tag{8}$$

Table 3. AIC and SC Information Criteria for the UECM Model

Lag Length	$\Delta LNMPi_{t-i}$		$\Delta LNEPI_{t-i}$		$\Delta LNLCl_{t-i}$		$\Delta LNEXR_{t-i}$		$\Delta LNINR_{t-i}$	
	AIC	SC	AIC	SC	AIC	SC	AIC	SC	AIC	SC
0	-	-	3.5608	3.1063	3.7182	3.2258	3.9419	3.2601	4.0263	3.2687
1	3.0077	2.7130	3.5300	3.0376	3.6818	3.1515	4.0524	3.3327	3.9953	3.1999
2	2.9461	2.6115	3.5512	3.0209	3.6513	3.0831	4.0588	3.3012	4.0375	3.2042
3	3.3495	2.9743	3.6179	3.0498	3.6157	3.0096	4.0720	3.2765	4.0517	3.1805
4	3.5841	3.1674	3.6023	2.9962	3.9466	3.3027	4.0462	3.2129	4.0125	3.1034
5	3.5527	3.0939	3.5886	2.9385	3.9079	3.2196	3.9931	3.1136	4.0098	3.0538

ARDL bounds F test results are reported in Table 4 below. The result of the bounds test confirms the presence of a long run relationship when the log of manufacturing production index is dependent variable of the model for the period 2000Q1-

2013Q4 in Romania. Calculated F statistic is 5.3082. Upper bound critical values are $I(1)=4.334$ ($n=55$) and $I(1)=4.314$ ($n=60$) for five variables ($k=4$) and 5% significance level. Null hypothesis of no cointegration is rejected at the 5% significance level because F test statistic is greater than the critical upper bounds value $I(1)$.

Table 4. Results of F Bounds Test

F Statistic	Sample Size for Critical Table Values	$\alpha = 0.01$		$\alpha = 0.05$		$\alpha = 0.10$	
		$I(0)$	$I(1)$	$I(0)$	$I(1)$	$I(0)$	$I(1)$
5.3082	n=55	4.244	5.726	3.068	4.334	2.578	3.710
(n=56)	n=60	4.176	5.676	3.062	4.314	2.568	3.712

Notes: Critical values $I(0)$ and $I(1)$ are obtained from Narayan (2005), "Critical values for the bounds test: caselli: unrestricted intercept and no trend", p.1988; $k=4$. F statistic is significant at the 5% significance level.

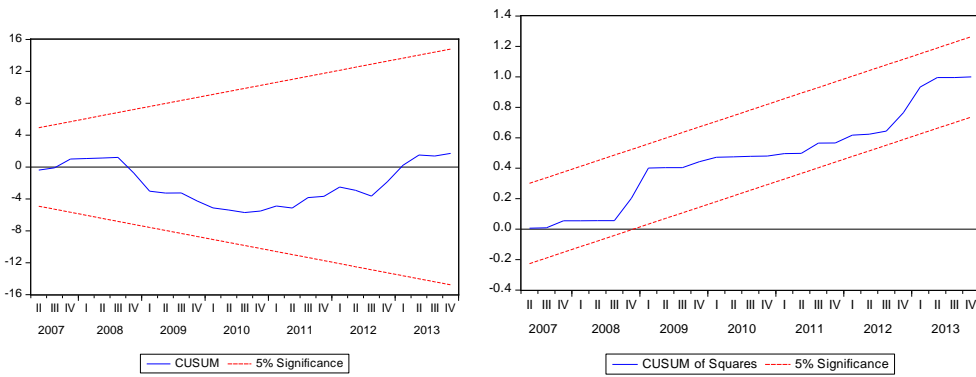
After confirming the existence of a long-run relationship among the logs of manufacturing production index, energy price index, labor cost index, exchange rates and interest rates, the diagnostic tests were examined from the unrestricted error correction (bounds test) model (UECM). These include Lagrange multiplier test of residual serial correlation, Ramsey's RESET test using the square of the fitted values for correct functional form (no mis-specification), Jarque-Bera normality test based on the skewness and kurtosis measures of the residuals and Breusch-Godfrey heteroscedasticity test based on the regression of squared residuals on the original regressors of the model. Diagnostic test results which are given below in Table 5 show that all assumptions about the specified model are met. None of the null hypotheses of no serial correlation, no mis-specification, normal distribution of the residuals and homoscedasticity can be rejected.

Table 5. Diagnostic tests from the Unrestricted (unconstrained) Error Correction Model (Bounds Test Model)

Null Hypothesis	Test Statistic	df	p-value	Null Hypothesis	Test Statistic	df	p-value
No Serial Correlation	$\chi^2_1 = 1.1453$	1	0.2845	Normality	$\chi^2_2 = 1.8868$	2	0.3893
No mis-specification	$\chi^2_1 = 1.9894$	1	0.1584	Homoscedasticity	$\chi^2_{19} = 18.2936$	19	0.5029

Stability of the estimated parameters is tested by applying the cumulative sum of recursive residuals (CUSUM) and of squared residuals (CUSUMSQ) proposed by Brown et al. (1975). CUSUM and CUSUMSQ test results show that the parameters of the UECM model are relatively stable over time. The plots are given in Figure 1 below. The red lines represent critical bounds at 5% significance level.

Figure 1. Cumulative Sum of Recursive Residuals and of Squares of Recursive Residuals for the UECM Model



After determining the long-run cointegration relationship, the short-run and the long-run elasticity coefficients are estimated by using the ARDL procedure. Estimated long-run levels model is assigned as below and shown in the Table 6. Lagged values of the estimated residuals of the long-run levels model are used as error (equilibrium) correction term in the short-run model. Results of the short-run model are given in the Table 7.

$$LNMPI_t = 4.6319 + 0.0328DUM_t - 0.5112LNEPI_t + 0.5703LNLCI_t - 0.1385LNEXR_t - 0.0451LNINR_t + \hat{v}_t \tag{9}$$

Table 6. Estimated Long-run Coefficients

Regressor	Coefficient	Standard Error	t Statistic	p-value
LNEPI	-0.5112	0.1707	-2.9939	0.0043
LNLCI	0.5703	0.1505	3.7896	0.0004
LNEXR	-0.1385	0.1047	-1.3231	0.1918
LNINR	-0.0451	0.0218	-2.0735	0.0433
C	4.6319	0.3077	15.0536	0.0000
DUM	0.0328	0.0512	0.6407	0.5247

In the long run, elasticity coefficients of energy price index, interest rates and exchange rates are all negative and their values are -0.51, -0.05 and -0.14 respectively. Long term elasticities for energy price index and interest rates are statistically significant at the 1% and 5% level. However, the coefficient of exchange rates in the long run is not statistically significant within the conventional 1-10% levels of significance. The long run elasticity coefficient of labor cost index is positive (0.57) and significant at the 1% level.

Although the coefficient of exchange rates in the long run is not statistically significant, in the short run, both the elasticity and lag-one period elasticity of exchange rates are significant at the 5% level. The contribution from exchange rates in the short run is about -0.37% ($\Delta LNEXR_t = -0.3659$) and short run lag-one period elasticity is positive 0.37% ($\Delta LNEXR_{t-1} = 0.3672$).

On the other hand, estimated short run elasticities for energy price index and interest rates are -0.54% ($\Delta LNEPI_t = -0.5399$) and 0.02% ($\Delta LNINR_t = 0.0238$) but they are not statistically significant while both of energy price index and interest rates are significant in the long run.

Table 7. Restricted Error Correction Representation (Short-run EC Model)

Regressor	Coefficient	Standard Error	p-value
\hat{ECT}_{t-1}	-0.2944	0.1051	0.0082
$\Delta LNMPI_{t-1}$	0.0887	0.1542	0.5690
$\Delta LNMPI_{t-2}$	0.2310	0.1497	0.1318
$\Delta LNMPI_{t-3}$	0.0084	0.1345	0.9504
$\Delta LNMPI_{t-4}$	0.4958	0.1394	0.0011
$\Delta LNEPI_t$	-0.5399	0.3642	0.1471
$\Delta LNLCI_t$	-0.0827	0.2755	0.7657
$\Delta LNLCI_{t-1}$	-0.2725	0.1821	0.1434
$\Delta LNLCI_{t-2}$	-0.5384	0.1823	0.0056
$\Delta LNLCI_{t-3}$	-0.0943	0.1534	0.5429
$\Delta LNLCI_{t-4}$	0.5633	0.2257	0.0174
$\Delta LNEXR_t$	-0.3659	0.1666	0.0348
$\Delta LNEXR_{t-1}$	0.3672	0.1589	0.0269
$\Delta LNINR_t$	0.0238	0.0184	0.2039
Intercept	0.0385	0.0182	0.0415
DUM_t	-0.0199	0.0146	0.1820
<hr/>			
$\bar{R}^2 = 0.7035$	$\hat{\sigma} = 0.0325$	$AIC = -3.7671$	$SC = -3.1610$

Notes: (1) Model specification is ARDL(5, 0, 5, 2, 0) with dependent variable $\Delta LNMPI_t$ and \hat{ECT}_{t-1} is the equilibrium correction term. (2) \bar{R}^2 is the adjusted squared multiple correlation coefficient and $\hat{\sigma}$ is the standard error of the regression. (3) AIC and SC are Akaike's and Schwarz's Bayesian Information Criteria.

Lag-two period and lag-four period elasticities for labor cost index in the short run are -0.54 ($\Delta LNLCIt = -0.5384$) and 0.56% ($\Delta LNLCIt = 0.5633$). Both these coefficients are significant at the 1% and 5% levels respectively.

Short run growth policies measured by the lag-four period manufacturing production index is significant at the 1% level and contribute about 0.57% ($\Delta LNMPIt-4 = 0.5633$) to the current manufacturing production index.

The error (equilibrium) correction term (ECT) measures the speed at which prior deviations from the equilibrium are corrected in the current period. The estimated ECT coefficient is -0.29 (ECTt-1 = -0.2944) and significant at the 1% level, thus indicating that almost 30% of the dis-equilibrium due to the previous year's shocks is adjusted back to the long-run equilibrium in the current year.

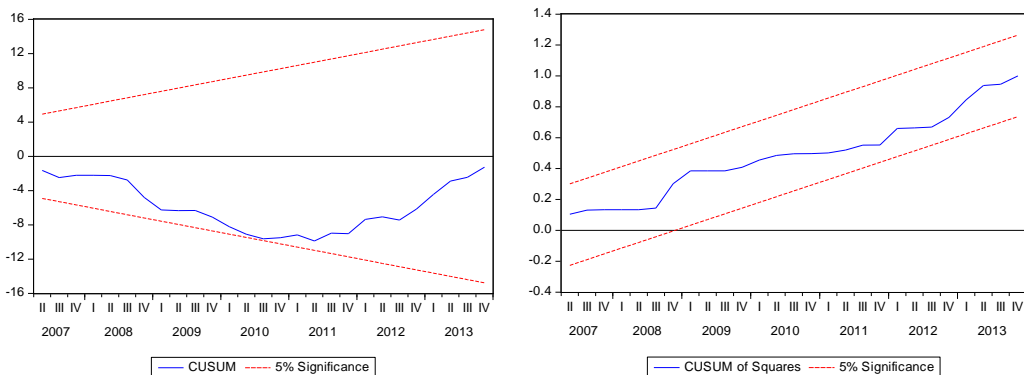
The diagnostic tests given in the Table 8 are examined from the restricted error correction (short-run) model (RECM). The Lagrange multiplier tests are performed to test the null hypotheses of no serial correlation in the residuals for lag-one and lag-four periods. Both hypotheses cannot be rejected (p-values are 0.1376 and 0.2481 respectively). Null hypothesis of no mis-specification is not rejected by the calculated Ramsey's RESET test statistic (p-value is 0.7802). Null hypothesis of normality is not rejected according to the Jarque-Bera normality test (p-value is 0.5468). Performing the Breusch-Godfrey heteroscedasticity test confirms that there is no heteroscedasticity in the residuals (p-value is 0.3801). Finally, the null hypothesis of no ARCH effects in the residuals is tested by regressing the squared residuals on the one-period lagged squared residuals and a constant term. Null of no ARCH effects is not rejected (p-value is 0.8453). All diagnostic test results confirm that all necessary conditions for the restricted error correction model are met.

Table 8. Diagnostic tests from the Restricted (constrained) Error Correction Model (Short-run ECM)

Null Hypothesis	Test Statistic	df	p-value	Null Hypothesis	Test Statistic	df	p-value
No Serial Correlation	$\chi^2_1 = 2.2047$	1	0.1376	Normality	$\chi^2_2 = 1.2072$	2	0.5468
No Serial Correlation	$\chi^2_4 = 5.4062$	4	0.2481	Homoscedasticity	$\chi^2_{15} = 16.0301$	15	0.3801
No mis-specification	$\chi^2_1 = 0.0779$	1	0.7802	No ARCH Effect	$\chi^2_1 = 0.0381$	1	0.8453

Stability of the estimated parameters is tested by applying the cumulative sum of recursive residuals (CUSUM) and of squared recursive residuals (CUSUMSQ).

Figure 2. Cumulative Sum of Recursive Residuals and of Squares of Recursive Residuals for the RECM Model



The results of Toda-Yamamoto Granger non-causality test are reported in the Table 9. Unidirectional causations from labor cost index to manufacturing production index (LNLCI→LNMP), from interest rates to manufacturing production index (LNINR→LNMP), from exchange rates to interest rates (LNEXR→LNINR) and from energy price index to manufacturing production index (LNEPI→LNMP) are determined at the 1% ($\chi^2 = 21.38$), 1% ($\chi^2 = 15.18$), 5% ($\chi^2 = 13.74$) and 10% ($\chi^2 = 9.73$) levels of significance respectively.

Discussion

In this paper, an empirical model investigated among five time series variables which are logs of manufacturing production index, energy price index, labor cost index, exchange rates and interest rates. Data belong to Romania and enclose the term from the first quarter of 2000 to fourth quarter of 2013.

Autoregressive distributed lag (ARDL) model is specified to identify the relationship between the log of manufacturing production index and the other four explanatory variables. ARDL bounds F test procedure is used to determine the cointegrating relationship for Romania and a cointegrating relationship is detected when log of manufacturing production index is dependent to other explanatory variables in the model. After confirming that there exist cointegration, the long run and the short run elasticity coefficients of the log of manufacturing production index are explored.

Results of this analysis indicate that there exists a long run cointegration relationship between the logs of manufacturing production index, energy price index, exchange rates and interest rates in Romania where the log of manufacturing output is defined as dependent variable in an ARDL framework. It is reasonable to estimate dynamic error correction model for Romania and subsequently estimate the long and the short run relationships. Long-run and short-run elasticity coefficients are explored by using ARDL model and the direction of causality is detected. Results show that logs of energy price index, labor cost index and interest rates have a substantial long-run effect on the log of manufacturing production index with respective long-run elasticity coefficients of -0.51% (LNEPI), 0.57% (LNLCI) and -0.05% (LNINR). Under specified model, log of exchange rates does not have a long-run effect on the log of manufacturing production index. It is found that there are dynamic short-run effects. As well as lag-four of the log of the manufacturing production index contributes 0.50%, the short-run log of exchange rates is -0.37% and lag-one of the log of exchange rates is 0.37%. Lag-two and lag-four of the log of the labor cost index have a short-run effect on the log of manufacturing production index. The respective short-run elasticity coefficients are estimated as -0.54% and 0.56%.

Finally, direction of causality is examined by Toda-Yamamoto Granger non-causality testing process which is suitable even when the series are integrated of different orders. Unidirectional Granger causalities are determined from labor cost index to manufacturing production index (LNLCI→LNMPI), from interest rates to manufacturing production index (LNINR→LNMPI), from exchange rates to interest rates (LNEXR→LNINR) and from energy price index to manufacturing production index (LNEPI→LNMPI).

Table 9. Results of Toda-Yamamoto Granger non-causality Test

Dependent Variable: LNMPI				Dependent Variable: LNEPI			
Excluded	Chi-sq. Test Statistic	df	p-value	Excluded	Chi-sq. Test Statistic	df	p-value
LNEPI	9.7334	5	0.0832	LNMPI	6.4955	5	0.2609
LNLCI	21.3823	5	0.0007	LNLCI	2.5399	5	0.7705
LNEXR	8.4378	5	0.1337	LNEXR	3.2200	5	0.6661
LNINR	15.1795	5	0.0096	LNINR	1.0138	5	0.9614
Dependent Variable: LNLCI				Dependent Variable: LNEXR			
Excluded	Chi-sq. Test Statistic	df	p-value	Excluded	Chi-sq. Test Statistic	df	p-value
LNMPI	1.7558	5	0.8818	LNMPI	6.5615	5	0.2553
LNEPI	6.5796	5	0.2538	LNEPI	4.1658	5	0.5258
LNEXR	6.6196	5	0.2505	LNLCI	4.5223	5	0.4769
LNINR	2.4492	5	0.7841	LNINR	2.7699	5	0.7354
Dependent Variable: LNINR							
Excluded	Chi-sq. Test Statistic	df	p-value				
LNMPI	3.7689	5	0.5831				
LNEPI	4.5667	5	0.4710				
LNLCI	3.3070	5	0.6528				

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Children and foreign languages: Observe, get to know and understand them (Didactic units for children)

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Abstract

Teaching a foreign language to children is not as simple as it seems, taking into consideration the general opinion that children are more adaptable than grown ups. Without any doubt, it is easier for a child than for an adult to learn a foreign language, due to many factors which we will go through briefly in this research, but the most important thing is how to present the learning of a foreign language to children. The global glottodidactics offers adequate and detailed information on this, providing teachers of foreign languages not only with the theoretical framework, but also with the practical one. It is proved by many important researches that a child, due to many psycho-physical and neuropsychological factors is capable of learning a foreign language as a native Italian or British, but what happens in practice is that such a natural capability is not turned against the teacher, who is not so able to operate in this age and raise affective barriers that will compromise not only the teaching of a foreign language but also it will create a long-term or maybe a permanent repulsion of the child towards the foreign language. Therefore, it is very important for the foreign language teacher who works with children to be well-educated in didactics and psycho pedagogy, as well, in order to know how to act and adapt to the age and psychology of the child and know how to achieve the main purpose that is the teaching of the language. We already know that teaching children should be a natural and spontaneous process, but teachers are met with the challenge of how to realize this. As we mentioned previously, global glottodidactics provides a lot of tools, especially the ludic methodology, which uses games as the extraordinary tool to wholly engage children and offers them the possibility to learn a language through direct and spontaneous practice.

Based on what we said above, we are providing a didactic unit for children, which aims at teaching children how to know themselves and others through observation, teach them to interpret facial expressions and mimic, know how to ask and respond to specific expressions and compare between Albanian and foreign language children, learn the lexicon related to this aspect, and also raise the awareness regarding human feelings that are transmitted through facial expressions and mimic.

Keywords: children, teaching, foreign language, game.

Semina un pensiero... e nascerà un carattere
Semina un pensiero e nascerà un'azione,
semina un'azione e nascerà un'abitudine,
semina un'abitudine e nascerà un carattere,
semina un carattere e nascerà un destino.
Buddha
(Guglielmi A., Il linguaggio segreto del volto, 2012)

Introduction

In most of the cases, our face is the mirror of our soul and mind. It reflects our interior world and it is true that human face is able to express emotions and opinions through its alternations, which often cannot be consciously controlled. In fact, it is exactly the face that often betrays us and shows our internal spiritual and emotional situation to others.

Despite this, our face is important because it is our own individual emblem through which we represent ourselves and interact with the world. Our internal emotions and feelings that are reflected in our face are easily read from interlocutors

and the people we interact with. That's why it is our duty that children acknowledge, understand and interpret them. Children start to gradually learn them at an early age, and while growing up truly understand what they really mean and what does the face of the person express. This is the teaching goal and it is treated as such in kindergarten and further in schools, whose purpose is to raise individuals who are familiar, first with their own feelings, and then with those of the others. This will help them to create their personal identity, know themselves, be independent and know how to interpret emotions and personal opinions, and then those of the others.

As far as the foreign language teaching is concerned, and in our case it is Italian, this objective expands and becomes more complex, because the child should learn not only the facial expressions, but also name them in a foreign language, and verify whether this interpretations are the same or not in other children, and learn to verify whether they are the same to Italian children, as well (through pictures, videos).

Teaching children how to know themselves and their own emotions through facial expressions and interpret or express such emotions is important for a better psycho-social-pragmatic development. This is due to the fact that often a child might not properly identify or distinguish such expressions that can lead him to an incorrect interpretation and, as a consequence, misunderstandings can arise.

This becomes even more important when it deals with the teaching of a foreign language, because the goal becomes more complicated especially when the child has to realize it in another language. It would be really helpful the usage of the ludic methodology. The values and the importance of this method, and the application of games as an efficient technique where the child is wholly involved, body and mind, has made such a methodology more famous than global glottodidactics. Game as a teaching object dates back to earlier ages and it still continues to be used as the most efficient tool through which the child can learn spontaneously, in freedom and complex-free, enabling thus a positive psychological progress without creating communication and interaction barriers.

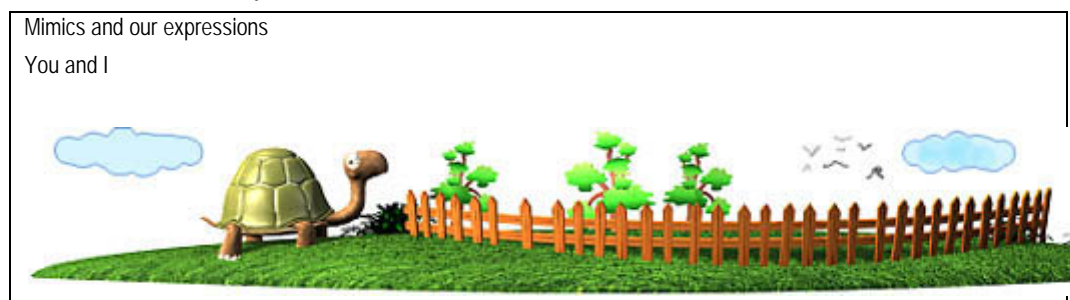
Therefore, we cannot act differently, but use this methodology and games as the most essential tool in our lesson, taking into consideration the age and the psychology.

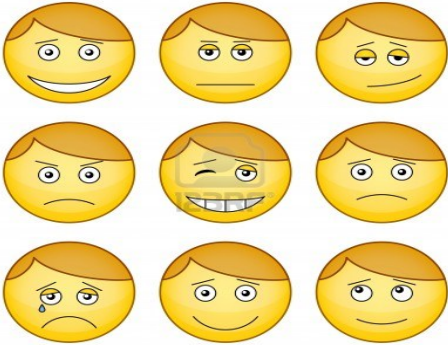
A well-known researcher claims:


"Games are actions that build the world" (Goffman, 2006)

Starting from this quote, let's build our world of emotions and feelings by playing and by knowing ourselves and the others.

Didactic units for children (Gjinali A. PhD Thesis, 2013)



Smileys, faces, emoticons	
Duration	5-6 hours
Recipients, public	Pupils of 2nd-3rd-4th degree
Field of expertise	You and I; expressions, phrases, creativity, fantasy
Method	Its principle is the theory of multiple Intelligences (Gardener)
Educational objectives	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. To increase the children awareness on own and others' emotions. 2. To become aware of own emotions and feelings and learn how to express and interpret them properly.
General objectives	<p>Stimulation, encouragement and participation of all children in organized and properly defined discussions</p> <p>Motivation and continuously keep children highly interested</p> <p>General knowledge of main personal and others' emotions</p>
Teaching objectives	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Know and understand emotions expressed through face mimic 2. Know and understand emotions and the correct identification 3. Become aware of personal emotions 4. Acknowledge friend's emotions 5. Understand friends' emotions and getting to know a different viewpoint 6. Know the lexicon related to these emotional expressions 7. Know and use different expressions related to emotions 8. Know negative and positive mimic 9. Create critical sense and reasoning regarding different emotions
Linguistic objectives	<p>Know the lexicon used with mimics: smiley, cheerful, passive, angry, accomplice, cunning, worried, disappointed, sad, pouting, shy, fearful, proud, shame, surprise, hopeful, etc.</p> <p>Learn how to ask someone about their feelings</p> <p>Learn how to response when asked</p> <p>Learn to express our feelings</p>
Cultural objectives	<p>Understanding whether the faces of Italian children express the same and if they are the same as those of Albanian children</p> <p>Emphasize same mimics and interpretations</p>

	<p>Emphasize their differences, if any</p> <p>Explain these differences, if any</p> <p>(note: Of course, the expressions, especially the basic ones, are universal, but this is a conclusion children have to reach by themselves)</p>
Social-pragmatic objectives	<p>Know friend's mimic:</p> <p>Understand it</p> <p>Feel empathy</p> <p>Share the same emotions, same feelings</p> <p>Reject contradictory and unclear emotions</p> <p>Share same viewpoints</p>
Environment	Classroom
Materials	paper, ink, colourful chalks, blackboard, video-projector, computer, CD, DVD, internet (to get familiar with smiley, emoticons)
Activities	<p>Being active, different games to achieve the above-mentioned objectives.</p> <p>Children watch a cartoon, for example: Pinocchio</p>  <p>Teacher and pupils can be assured in Albanian on Pinocchio's father's emotions (Geppetto), Pinocchio's and different characters', by stopping the video time after time, in order for the pupils to observe better the actual facial expressions.</p> <p>Dramatization of different facial expressions as observed in the movie</p> <p>Possible explanation of observed mimics</p> <p>Group activities among two children</p> <p>Game 1. It deals with the representation of different emotions</p> <p>Pupils sit in front of one another and after find and expression the facial expressions of their friend have to draw it.</p> <p>The winner is the one who finds the most of expressions and correctly draws them.</p> <p>Game 2. Match facial expressions with expressions written in small paper labels under the teacher's supervision. That is, labelling.</p>

	<p>Game 3. Children try to "read" expression on their friend's faces and on drawings. They try to identify it and express it verbally.</p> <p>Game 4. Each one of them gets a mirror and practices facial mimic and expressions according to the emotions their teacher indicates them to. The winner is the one who correctly guesses them.</p> <p>Game 5. With the help of internet, teacher shows children smiles, emoticons and faces. The class is divided into two groups The first group must find the negative mimics. First, they have to find what they are expressing and then verify them by reading the description and thus, find out whether their answer is correct or not. The second group should find positive mimics. First, they have to find what they are expressing and then verify them by reading the description and thus, find out whether their answer is correct or not. The winning group is the one who find more correct mimics.</p> <p>Game 6. Teacher associates every facial expression with a defined music tune and children must find out whether it fits or not. The winner is the one who manages to make more associations between image and music.</p> <p>Game 7. Teacher asks the pupils that for every defined mimic, the pupils draw something that they think corresponds to the facial expression: an image, a panorama or a famous figure, etc. After finishing, they have to discuss and explain why the image they chose to draw is related to the mimic assigned by the teacher.</p> <p>Game 8. Teacher asks children to draw familiar faces with different facial expressions, according to their character and nature. The winner is the one with the best representation and who explains clearly the relation between the face, mimic and its nature.</p> <p>Game 9. Create a short story through mimics. Work group. The winner is the group with the most clear and funny story.</p>
Teacher's role	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -To provide each group not only with the necessary materials, but also with the facial expression each group must perform -Clears the emotions expressed by each facial expression -Assists the working groups by clarifying them, in case of confusion - Assists individuals by orienting them to problem solving
Methodology	Based on the ludic one, active

Knowledge check	It will be performed via teacher's observation during the class, by paying attention to the given responses during the activity.
Evaluation	The evaluation is done personally done by the teacher He will do it by evaluating: The acknowledgment of emotions expressed in the story The acknowledgment of emotions through facial expressions (real, drawn or observed) The right correlation between the face and the respective drawn expression The acknowledgment of lexic and used expressions for such mimics. All the games

Conclusions:

The teaching of a language, but not only, must be conducted with children in various methods and pass through many sensory channels, in order to use all kinds of intelligence, styles and learning strategies that each one uses to profit the most of what is offered. Also, undoubtedly, teaching children should involve games and by game, we mean a teaching game, well-organized and properly defined by the teacher, so that we can achieve the desired objectives.

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Analysis of Social Costs as a Result of Romanian Social Health Policy

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Abstract

The aim of this study is to discuss how social costs in health social policies can be evaluated. How can we measure implications of health policy decisions, embodied in what I have called social costs of these decisions? How can we measure which social groups are the most affected by current Romanian health policies? Among the social costs that we can intuitively detect are poor indicators of health status, poor indicators in distribution of services, accessibility and quality of medical services. Are these indicators enough to measure social costs in health social policies? ¹

Keywords: Social costs, Health system policies, Health reform, Social Indicators, Measurement of indicators

Introduction

The health system in Romania has problems. It is a system that is funded by social contributions of only 4.5 million employees, but 90% of the population (18 mil.) has formal access to services, a large burden for the system. Health expenditure as percentage of GDP place our country on a final place among European countries, therefore the system is underfinanced. In these conditions, health system cannot insure high quality services for all the patients. Corruption in the system is also a factor that is leading to waste of resources to specific interest groups. There can be also detected examples of ineffective management, bad health policy decisions, with medium and long-term consequences.

Healthy human capital is important for economic and social development of a nation. On the one hand, human capital in poor health negatively affects economic development by reducing work capacity and by increasing costs of providing public health services. On the other hand, economic development increases the living standard for the population, has impact on human health and on the resources available for investment in health services. We could say that in case of poor societies, there is a vicious circle between health status and health resources available in investing for health, but less healthy population, which unfortunately requires more investment. The circle could be broken by an additional effort of resources in the health system and consider long-term health policy as a priority.

Romania's accession made the reference point the health status and health services of European Union countries. Health of human capital in Romania is below the European average, with some problematic indicators such as high infant mortality, high tuberculosis morbidity. Conditions that are almost eradicated in developed countries of the EU, continues to affect a large number of Romanian (incidence of hepatitis B is double, the incidence of Tuberculosis is one of the largest in the EU, we have the highest rate of cervical cancer death in EU). Therefore, poor health is a problem with significant social implications, affecting employment and driving high social costs.

Purpose of research

My concerns on health policy issues in Europe and Romania dates back several years, including doctoral thesis in health social policy (december 2011). Meantime, I tried to answer some question: what would be the way forward for Romania in

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reforming its health system and what path other European systems followed. I now ask myself which are the social costs that Romanian society pays as a result of poor health policies.

Problems for all national health services are put in terms of capacity of sustainability, accessibility, quality, waiting time, distance to health services, paying out of pocket for services. Continually rising cost of medical systems, aging populations, development of expensive innovative technologies are main concerns of all European governments.

I am interested in how can we measure social implications of health policy decisions in Romania, embodied in what I have called the social costs of these decisions and which social groups have been most affected by the health system.

At this stage, I have already constructed a research project in order to assess these evaluations of costs. The research will be developed during next 16 months, starting July 2014 that will gather field data, mainly based on a qualitative methodology.

I have proposed following objectives of research:

- Clearly define concepts I operate with : what is a social cost than other types of costs
- Identify types of social costs as a result of health policy
- Analyze how these costs were produced.
- Detect possible features of the health system that generated social costs.
- Detect indicators periods with developments that I can show certain costs of a type of measure / decision
- Identify social groups affected by these social costs than others.
- Identify how these groups perceive costs
- Identify weaknesses in the health system that generated and generates social costs.
- Identify whether health social policy conducted a long-term assessment of these costs? What indicators were used.
- Identify ways in which social policy makers perceive the costs
- Developed social policy recommendations based on the analysis results.

Research methodology includes three components:

- A secondary analysis of social data/social indicators

Possible social costs that can be highlighted by the development of socio-demographic indicators in the period 1990-2013:

- The evolution of socio-demographic indicators that characterize human capital: mortality, morbidity of various types, life expectancy, population growth, the rate of avoidable mortality attributed to healthcare.
- The indices of access to healthcare: distance to health service (on all 3 levels: family medicine / ambulatory / hospital) waiting time, number of services accessed.
- indicator Evolution expenses / costs out of pocket for their health
- The evolution of service units
- The evolution of medical personnel in the system. The problem of social cost of migration of doctors as
- Indicator confidence of population in the health system
- Indicator Evolution of satisfaction of population to health system
- The evolution of indicators characterizing social policy: health expenditure as percentage of GDP

- A legislative analysis.

An analysis of the legislative history that regulated health system after 1990.

- A sociological research based on a qualitative methodology

Achieving depth interviews based on semi-structured interview guides with institutional and social actors:

- People at risk: uninsured/unemployed, welfare recipients, people in poverty, people with disabilities or disabling/ various disabilities and health problems, families with many children, low-income employees

- health policy makers
- doctors from family medicine / ambulatory/ hospital
- Representatives of trade unions
- patients

Theoretical Background. What is a social cost and how to measure?

I have wondered what a social cost is and how it differs from other types of costs. A first definition of social cost would be a cost to society as a whole, as a result of an event, action, or policy change. It includes negative externalities, but it is rather a definition that comes from the economic field. (Source: Glossary of International Economics Dearthoffs)

In conventional economics literature, social costs have externalities. They are understood as unplanned consequences of the activities of one or more economic agents which affect the well-being or productive capacity of others involved in the economic process, costs for which it is not possible to obtain or demand compensation. They have residual or secondary effects of the main economic activity of the agent, "external" effects and escape the working of the price mechanism. (Vitor Neves, 2012)

Policy implications of the current economic crisis led to social costs everywhere in Europe. (Wolfram Elsner et al, 2012). Capitalist market economy centered on money biased real social demands and needs. Although social costs can sometimes have a monetary component, they cannot be defined only in terms of money. They are not easy to be measured. Work, information (knowledge), institutions, there are commodities with a role to solve social problems. Social dilemma remains that between profitability and serving the individual or serving social. The social cost decreases quality of life, decreases the ability of democratic collective action. Social costs are preceding the crisis and they are also post-crisis. (Wolfram Elsner et al, 2012)

So how can we measure social costs as result of health policies? Among the social costs that we can intuitively detect are poor indicators of health status, poor indicators in equal distribution of services, accessibility and quality of medical services. Are these indicators enough to measure social costs in health social policies? I hope my project will answer these questions. Second data analysis, first hand data from qualitative research will answer to some questions related to types of indicators to be measured.

At this stage of the project, I made a list of possible indicators, easy to measure:

Nr Crt	Type of Indicator
1	Life Expectancy
2	Life expectancy at various ages
3	Life expectancy in good health
4	Mortality
5	Overall mortality
6	Mortality by causes of death
7	Survival rates
8	Infant mortality
9	Potential years of life lost
10	Morbidity
11	Specific morbidity: prevalence, incidence of some diseases
12	Occupational morbidity

13	DALY (Disability Adjusted Life Years)
14	QALY - Economic evaluation
15	Indicators of lifestyle Tobacco/ Alcohol /Drug /Diet indicators
16	Indicators for exposure to carcinogens and other hazardous substances
17	Frequency of occupational accidents and diseases
18	Indicators to characterize the environmental conditions Air pollution/Water pollution /Other types of pollution radiation Exposure to carcinogens or other harmful substances from the workplace
19	Measuring the impact of premature death;
20	Measuring avoidable deaths;
21	Development of composite indices that take into account both the intensity of the phenomenon of death and non-fatal consequences of the causes of disease (disability, handicap):
22	Life expectancy without disability;

Adaptation after Georgeta Zanoschi, Indicatori de evaluare a stării de sănătate a populației, 2013

If we look on figures for Romania, for these indicators, we can see that some health indicators have lower values than those of the European Union. For example, women in Romania has the highest rate of incidence and death from cervical cancer. This form of cancer is now preventable through early detection and cure, therefore a national screening program for cervical cancer is vital for Romania.

Another indicator for which Romania is positioned on the worst place in the European Union is infant mortality. Although still nearly two times higher than the EU average in 2010, the infant mortality rate in Romania has decreased from values more than 3 times higher than the EU average in 2000. This may be due to both the effectiveness of national programs for maternal and child and growth of socio-economic level of the population of Romania in the last decade. Although most of the indicators have a favorable trend, since 1990, Romania has a lot of catching up to have a healthy population as the EU Member States, especially compared to EU-12.

Research premises.

Which are the premises that would reduce social costs? In this phase of theoretical framework, I am starting from a couple of premises regarding health policy decisions that could in my view, reduce social costs. These decision of social policies should theoretically lead to decrease of costs. I shall analyse these by qualitative methodology in my research, also legislative analysis and analysis of second data indicators.

A. Health Insurance system must should not be considered a luxury.

Health care should not be a luxury for some social groups, as it is today. Therefore, the need to find appropriate intervention mechanisms. Costs for the treatment of serious diseases outweigh the savings of middle class families, whether these costs should be paid out of pocket. Demand payment from pocket at the time of purchase care service leads in many cases to inability to pay for consumers and health becomes a luxury. Stomatologist services are a problem in Romania, because they are not covered bt helath insurance are very expensive for population. Therefore, a coverage with health insurance for stomatologist services is needed.

B. Health Insurance system must fulfill the function of shock absorption / social risks absorption, together with other components of the welfare state.

Transition stress, poverty, unemployment had direct impact on public health since 1990. System currently fails to reduce these shocks. It requires the establishment of a system of individual and collective risk absorption and redistribution of resources. Vertical redistribution aims to reduce inequalities, to secure equal access to services (education, health, social protection) and horizontal redistribution is designed to offset market failure situations and modern social risks. It is a matter of social morality that health insurance system should reduce the barrier between rich and poor in inequality of consumption of medical services. The rich continue to use medical services more than the poor and have better access to services in most European countries. In a weak health system provided by the state, rich appeal to the upper class private system that offers decent treatment. This private system is however inaccessible to the poor or socially excluded. Vulnerable groups who may be exposed imbalances in the supply of medical goods and services are those geographically isolated, people with disabilities or disabling health problems, families with many children, poor families, the unemployed, low-income workers .

C. Health Insurance system must evaluate correctly health care needs

When we speak of demand for health services, things are more delicate. Unlike buying any other consume product, people have little knowledge about what they are buying when they need health care. There is an asymmetric information between buyer and supplier. Even when they have a choice, patients choose between what the doctor suggests. Demand is therefore forced, unplanned, led by the doctor, not the consumer. (S. Bodenheimer T, Grumbach K, 2009)

The most important institution for treatment in Romania remains the hospital, with direct consequences on the health budget. A percentage of 40% of the budget expenditures are expenditures for hospitalization. (Source: National Health Insurance House, 2013).

Request for services must be guided. Romania is facing a high percentage of hospitalisation, leading to higher costs for system. This has some causes. On the one hand, there is a poor offer of services of family medicine in some areas, on the other hand, some of the population seek medical help in advanced stages of the disease, so the concentration is higher for the university centers and hospital facilities. Some problems can be solved efficiently ambulatory. Treating a health problem that could be solved ambulatory reduce costs by up to 10 times than hospitalization. (Source: National Health Insurance House, 2013)

F. Health Insurance system must take into account that we have a large proportion of the rural population is poorly covered services

G. Welfare state must mix efficiently medical assistance services and social assistance

It is abnormal the translation to healthcare services of the social problems that should be solved by social assistance. Other alternative social care services should be developed: homeless shelters, relief and recovery at home, rehabilitation and counseling.

Examples of excessive use of medical for some social problems for which there is no other solution

- Hospitalisation of homeless persons especially in cold weather
- Hospitalisation of persons who actually need social assistance / help at home
- Early retirement from work through false disability certificates.

In modernity, we can find a supermedicalisation of modern life (Radulescu S, 2002), an increase in dependence of individuals to health care institutions. In medical units, all types of problems arrive: depression, suicide attempts, unwanted children abandoned in hospitals, homeless. Many of these problems have a social nature. Medicalization actually hiding their social origin unsolve the social inequalities and social anomie. Admission temporarily mask the individual's social functioning problems. Super-medicalization trend has increased health costs and the number of medical acts.

Treating the disease without taking into account complementary social policies is the wrong direction. For example, the doctor treats a poor man in Romania and is releasing the patient. The patient returns to the same environment with poor housing conditions, no proper food, hygiene, money to continue treatment. The income from minum wage doesn't insure him proper resources . Such medical resources invested in that man may be ineffective as long as the entire social system does not intervene properly. It is an example that shows inefficiency handling of social problems.

H. We need a coherent policy that offer shock absorption for private cost of health market. This is especially for drug market and stomatology market

There are health systems, areas where the market has a primary role. It is about supply and demand for drugs. Manufacturers of drugs, sanitary supplies and equipment are private entities. State intervention to reduce market impact is through compensation or covering of certain types of medication for patients. A case exploded in mass media. In Romania, the state requires low prices on the sale of drugs. But the legislation did not protect patients properly. Cheap drugs were purchased before entering in pharmacies by "smart guys" and exported for profit. The cumulative effect is that patients are left without the necessary medication, and the profits go into the pockets of speculators: view cytostatic crisis, rapid morphine crisis (report IRQL, 2013). The state must intervene to stop such slippage.

I. We need a depolitization of Health system.

Health often becomes an object of political struggle. In each campaign, the parties raise the issue of health and the possibility of the state to ensure health expenditure. Medicine is part of a complex history, about power. According to the theory of social conflict (Radulescu, 2002), the medical system is seen as an institution of domination and power, the product of tensions and disagreement between groups with different interests. The social system gets to work better for privileged groups. Health institutions, pharmacies and doctors are dominated by two conflicting motivations: own financial profit or social interest.

K. We need to stop interest groups and conflicts of interest

It sounds cynical, but the market economy and power structures for providing social justice issues, morals in health lost ground. The most striking case is that of pharmaceutical companies and pharmaceutical distributors that for maximizing profits, are leading campaigns to promote products to the patients and the doctors, or even "corrupt" doctors in the system through incentives such as payment of Congress or incentives to prescribe certain drugs to patients. Some doctors hide conflicts of interest that include: working at clinics, private laboratories, where they send the patients found in the public system.

L. Co-payment in health system may increase social costs

The introduction of co-payment is generally a measure to drop the pressure on those medical facilities where these payments are introduced. For example, the large amount of appeal to the Emergency Unit (UPU), which introduces high costs for the system.

Co-payment should be treated with care as means of adjusting, for they may affect people with low living standards, which could not afford the co-payment and decrease access to services.

"There are some classic examples of states that have decided to introduce co-payments for consultations and medicines; these states were later forced to review its decision, as it was observed a sharp increase in the use of emergency and hospital services. It turned out that these low-income patients were unable to afford co-payment for necessary care, and reported a worsening of their health because they did not receive timely medical care or pharmaceuticals. There was a worsening of health for the population group with chronic disease and/or poor general health condition as a result of avoiding necessary care. Another group at risk of not receiving medical care when needed, is the children of low-income families." (Ciutan M., 2009, p 25)

L. We need to increase funding and consider health care a priority

Health policy analysis should be studied in the context of the social and historical background of the national health policy. Romania having low economic resources, gave the health system and education a marginal position as funding. At the same time, the policy of reforming the health system was not bold enough to achieve major reforms, as did other former eastern reforms and failed to improve services quality. Socio-political history, ideological values of each state and the role of unions or professional organizations modeled systems development.

Given the crisis in the period 2008-2013, all European countries have adopted pragmatic measures packages to meet the financial crisis, but not reconsidering the role of the state and its social functions. Measures aimed at reducing public spending and restrict / control of administration and increasing spending budget resources. Mature markets took into account tax reduction measures to stimulate economic growth. Former communist states went mainly on measures to increase taxation. We can not speak of a trend in terms of anti-crisis fiscal measures, each country taking decisions that considered advantageous.

In the health sector as a result of the need to reduce budget deficits in many countries, governments face the difficult political choices in the near future. Governments may have to limit the growth of public health expenditure, to reduce spending in other areas or raise taxes or social security contributions to reduce deficits. On the other hand, improving the

efficiency of spending in the health sector can contribute to controlling these pressures, for example through a more rigorous evaluation of health technologies and wider use of information and communications technologies. (OECD, 2010)

M. There is a need for strategic planned decisions and not reactive responses

Not everything is the result of government policies. When decision makers are faced with a crisis situation, they tend to adopt emergency solutions that bring temporary solutions and whose impact is not measured in the long term. (Crison I., 2009). Decisions of the Ministry of Health of Romania were in many cases reactions to problems, answers reactive and not planned strategy decisions. See ambiguities at Romanian Law 95/2006, which governs the entire health system. It has been amended many times.

Health policy process is a pragmatic response to a range of health and social problems, based on a set of values. Public policy is the course of action or lack of action chosen by the public authorities in response to a specific problem or set of interconnected problems. Public policies offer a path forward for a range of interrelated actions. The definition also refers to the action and inaction provided to be selected by the authorities. Such policies are tools by which to solve community problems.

In the study of health policy, it is important a comparative analysis of health systems, otherwise we face the risk of studying an isolated system and see no commonality problems. Some problems are redundant in discussions about health policies:

- The need for all health systems for effective organizational management and increase system performance in terms of cost / benefit, due to increasing health expenditure.
- The need to reform the health system: decentralization, privatization, public-private mix adoption (provided by the state, private and non-profit sector), with increased patient choice of provider.
- Resistance organizational culture / institutional of professional medical organizations to change, to reform.
- Critique of consumerism on the health care market and the issues of equity and access to services. None of the health systems have failed to reduce totally inequality in access to services. There are still groups in all the countries facing drawbacks. Most times, they are selected from immigrants, the poor, uninsured / unemployed, ethnic.
- Increased demand for long term care in the community, which should lead to reform health and social services. We need a mix of social services with health in communities. A number of medical problems have an element of social anomie to be solved as a series of social problems have a health component: alcoholism, drug addiction, abandonment of children and the elderly, suicide attempts.

Conclusions

Conference communication will include analysis of first empirical data. I hope that feed-back from other colleagues: sociologists, economists, other specialists will help me improve and consolidate my research projects. I have already constructed a research project in order to asses these evaluations of social costs. The research will be developed during next 16 months, starting July 2014 and will gather field data by a qualitative methodology on a sample of subjects including medical personell of different types, patients, health policy decision makers, representatives of medical trade unions. Also, the methodology includes second data analysis on social statistical indicators and legislation evaluation. The data collection starts August and September. So, there will be available first data to be presented at MJSS conference in September. This proceeding briefly included presentation of research project, some theoretical aproaches, work hypotheissis and discussions related to the subject of research.

Other evaluations so far (Vlădescu, Ciutan, Dragmomiristeanu, Rădulescu) shows that education and health status of human capital was not considered at the level of social policy as priority of transition, despite declarations of principle. These is expected to have long term consequences on social development of Romania. Social inequality and polarization access to health services currently exist and the large differences between urban population (with access to health and education services in university hospitals) and on the other pole, rural population, with problems accessing services at the primary level and problems in moving toward the center services: heavy travel costs and distance to a population living from subsistence agriculture, with few financial resources available.

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SELF-CONTROL TEACHING IN EARLY AGE

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Abstract

This paper is saying about importance of self-control in early age. Developed self-control is a pre-condition of developing willingness, capability of concentration and independence of a child. Child is capable of cooperation for which was stimulated by inner motives. Child is able to accept demand, to listen, but not only for "pure" obedience. Confirmation for that is asking for explanation, reasons, and different options of the solution of a problem. More attention, persistence enable successful realisation of started activities. Consequence of it, further, is development of independence, supported by a teacher. After theoretical analysis of key questions determining the sense and importance of self-control, there are given results of empirical analysis, more precisely results found on the base of long-term observation, according to previously prepared protocols of teachers, which is their work on development of self-control in early age. The given results reflect the state from one teaching unit and they represent qualitative indicators. In order to get more detailed review, there are also given results of focus group interview with teachers. Self-control of children depends on overall climate which, among other things, should offer: honest, not just declarative respect for children and their rights; timely recognition and meeting of children's rights; adequate model of teachers' behaviour able to question their acts. Development of self-control is especially influenced by well-planned and successful life regime, but which is flexible enough to adapt children's needs and capacities. In this paper, we were primarily focused on the role of a teacher in self-control development process. It seems that our practice has been "overtaken" by tradition control over a child. There is often imposed organisation of sleeping and eating schedule, which implicitly express a need for self-control. In order to get more objective findings on that, we have targeted some important indicators-self-control pre-conditions. In relation to that, we put a special accent on: adoption of new rules of values and behaviour; setting clear demands by a teacher; consistent setting of borders of the children's behaviour, verbalisation of some activities, establishing clear and specific rules, redirection and support instead of punishment and awards.. The key question we tended to get an answer for during this research is the way in which the teachers stimulate obedience that does not have a common meaning of subjugation, but appears as a result of willingness that is self-controlled. In relation to that, we put a special accent on: adoption of self-controlled willingness and which, as such, represents a special quality for personal and social progress.

Key words: self-control, discipline, obedience, institutional context.

Introduction

It is not possible to talk about self-control independently from other aspects or factors directly or indirectly determining the course of early education. First of all, we mean stimulant environment and qualitative support of teacher (an adult). Actually, it is holistic approach emphasizing complete context of the institution for early education. Therefore, we will tend to explain in the first part of the paper the key postulates and their specific influence on our subject of interest. We will also try to perceive stimulant or even limiting indicators of self-control and self-discipline through interactions with teacher and peers. Foundation for many of those influences we found in theories of Erickson, Vigotsky, Bronfenbrenner, as well as pedagogical aspects of Maria Montessori.

Self-control in context of contemporary institution for early education

Contemporary understandings of early education emphasize all benefits and importance of this period for learning and development of child. Thereby it is truly believed in developing potentials and abilities, and active participation is sure. Socio-constructive theory establishes such aspects. Child in early age is conversant to other children and adults. Environment in which children are educated offers or limits their development. ``Just in that co-relation with their physical (ecological) and social environment, child reveals meanings, examines and checks their hypotheses, develops new mental structures, learns about the world they are surrounded by, and gradually accepts new values, builds attitudes and way of lives in the culture they belong to``. (Petrović-Sočo, 2009, page 11). Anyway, it seems it is more appropriate to talk about context of the institution, than the surroundings. When we say context we usually think of physical dimension, and we probably see it as a frame or we identify it with the surroundings. However, as we had previously emphasized different kinds of interactions in the surroundings, that way there is no context existing isolated from different subjects functioning in it. It is a dynamical category which besides physical also includes social, cultural, and even timely aspect. Context of the institution for early education could be defined as ``a living organism, as a complex, dynamical content, as an interactive network of social, cultural and ecological (physical) and timely relations that a child is in constant interaction with``. (Petrović-Sočo, 2007, page 36, according to: Stoll i Fink, 2000, Capra, 1986 i Sngce, 2003).

When we say discipline, then we usually think about rigidity, obedience, etc. Somewise, we can relate it with negative opinion on discipline, in which external authority prevails. Control is done arbitrarily and punishment isn't rarely used. (Kamenov, page 227). Taking into account different educational styles, as opponent to this one, teacher can go to other extremes and be too permissive. Although we could say, to inertia, that the solution could be found by converging these two strategies, actually it is not like that. The problem is much more complex and the base should be searched in adequate social frame. It means: understanding of child's needs, reliable value and stable figure of an adult-teacher. (Kamenov, 2008, page 227).

In the process of self-control development the most important role undoubtedly belongs to adults-teachers and parents. They should be experts in watching and listening to children. However, it is not spontaneous, intuitive recognition of children's needs and later again about spontaneous acting by teachers. On the contrary, initiative, independence, activity and overall development in different domains require very conscious, reflexive acting of teachers. Reflexive practitioners have their own teaching philosophy, they always reconsider themselves, and earlier experiences are tested in new situations and contexts. Teacher is very often in situation to act directly, to apply knowledge in action. We will agree that such a practitioner does not suit their traditional attitudes, so reflexion necessarily means mental level.

Behaviour of children is the mirror of a teacher or what he does. To stimulate discipline and self-control, they have to be disciplined themselves. First of all, teachers must know to take ``break`` between impulsive ``feeling`` and ``taking action``. The technique that we, that way, demonstrate to children is so called time-out (the time enabling us to ``remote`` from the problem and regain emotional stability. (Nelsen, et al., 1996, page 50).

Adults-parents and teachers have a huge role in constructive direction of impulses. Through interaction and communication with adults, children learn how to control impulses, overcome troubles, and postpone pleasure (Seefeldt, Barbour, 1998, according to: Calkins, 1994, 4). That could be realised in various situations, such as mediating in conflicts when in such purpose a child ``is stirred to recognise conflict, share opinions, come to agreement on solution, and to estimate and apply new behaviour`` (Jurčević-Lozančić, 2011, page161).

Role of teacher is supporting for adoption of basic rules of behaviour and values, whereby possibilities, wishes and overall personality of a child must be respected. Such support is not the same as demonstration of certain rules that would be mechanically practised and permanently adopted later through simple imitation.

It seems that our practice is just ``burdened`` with traditional control over child. There is often imposed strict organisation of sleeping and eating schedule which implicitly express the need for control. However, help of an adult does not mean permanent dependence of a child on an adult, nor it means subdual to authority, but helping a child to get rid of that dependence gradually. Namely, here we can see contradiction: child is traditionally seen as helpless, dependent, and at the same time should be adapted (to be flexible) when it comes to life rhythm in the institution. ``On one side children are not trusted so they are not allowed to do what they can already do by themselves at that age (for example: washing hands, clearing our after meal, recognising their bottle, etc.), and on the other side they are at the same time expected to do what they cannot do (delaying need for food, sleeping, drinking, playing).`` (Petrović-Sočo, 2009, page 33).

Assumption of adopting a rule is that a child understands its meaning. Therefore, the explanation should be given, which means giving reasons why is something acceptable or vice versa. ``Facts show that giving reasons to children is the most important individual factor influencing later development of self-controlled behaviour.`` (Walsh, 2001, page 60).

Significant support to self-control development and overcoming of impulsiveness is enabled by setting clear requests by a teacher. Instructions are often insufficiently specified, so it seems that the child has an alternative of choice. For example, a teacher says: "Ana, can we sit down?" while she offers an alternative. Such request can be ambiguously interpreted, and it is certainly confusing, especially if we have children from different cultural milieus in the kindergarten. (v. Katz, McClellan, page 67–68). This certainly should not be identified with "strict educational regime", but we emphasize necessary explicitly in messages sent by teacher.

Role of an adult also reflects in consistent setting of boundaries of children's behaviour. "Since the childhood, children are motivated for meeting the environment and discovering domains of their own acting" (Phillips, 1999, page 24). Besides consistency in relation to children, an adult should treat the other adults in the kindergarten according to the same principle (which is not the only one).

Behavioural concept ensures children's development in dependence on external corroboration. In that sense, prizes are usually used as stimulation means. However, "if children are only awarded, there is little chance for them to develop their own control and self-discipline." (Seefeldt, Barbour, 1998, page 262). Support and redirecting are far more efficient means. That is the way to build up the forms of behaviour that the child is motivated for. With techniques of support and encouragement we actually value made effort, no matter what the end is like. Indirectly, we also stimulate different patterns of behaviour. For example, we give careful and specified support: "I've noticed that you had stood up and moved a chair to the other place when Edi stubbed you this morning. I appreciate your self-control and tendency to solve this situation in such a peaceful way". (Nelsen, et al., 1996, page 6). Real encouragement actually means gentle, but specific enough, i.e. concrete feedback.

On the other side, instead of punishment, it should be talked about redirection of activities. Child is said what should not be done and is given information on how to act. When we punish children, we actually don't teach them how to do something properly, on the contrary-they learn how to avoid punishment in the future. Much more efficient than punishment is explanation of a situation to a child. "Surveys have shown that the most efficient way of discipline "facing" with inappropriate behaviour is the "non-punishing" one (Katz, McClellan, 1997, page 71). Of course, it means giving simple and very convincing reasons for concrete "discipline actions" by a teacher.

The teacher applying logical consequences actually expresses reality of social order. That is the way to represent a group of rules that have to be adopted as an assumption of successful functioning within a group. (Seefeldt, Barbour, 1998, page 271, according to: Dreikurs, Greenwalk & Peper, 1982). This system sets a clear connection between a concrete procedure and consequence, and therefore punishment is not necessary. System of logical consequences eliminates anger, expresses an open attitude, support for self-control development. Besides, it expresses mutual respect between children and adults, which is a condition for development of autonomy and acceptance of acceptable behaviour.

Interactions among children inevitably get to social cognitive conflict. Knowledge is acquired and communication is reached on that base. "Children look at other children, they imitate them and later it becomes a part of their own behaviour". (Seefeldt, Barbour, 1998, p. 261). In the case of peer interaction, there could be an adoption of certain rules, and later a self-regulation. "Child moves from external regulation done by advanced peer towards its internalisation i.e. self-regulation of activities (The same, page 91). Therefore, it would be probably desirable to make groups consisted of children of different age.

Social interaction improves zone of proximal development. Vigotsky defined the ZPD as a "distance between the level of real development determined by independent solving of problem and the level of potential development determined through solving of problem according to directions of an adult or in cooperation with more capable peers" (Berk, Winsler, 1997, page 24, according to: Vigotski, 1978, page 86). It is important that children have interaction with somebody (participants can be adult-child or child-adult) in order to reach the goal by joined forces.

In order to get a real cooperation and to communicate successfully during the common activity, it is very important that participants work on reaching the same goal. Important quality of good "ferries" (metaphor that appeared in literature to describe effective interactions of teaching/ learning within ZPD) is subjectivity. That is the concept referring to the process in which two participants, who start the task with different understanding come to the common understanding. (Berk, Winsler, 1997, page 27, according to: Newson and Newson, 1975). Inter-subjectivity provides common base for communication while one of the partners is adjusting to perspective of the other. So, it is essential that participants in social interaction negotiate and look for a compromise in accordance to ZPD of the child.

Of of goals of the so called "ferry" is stimulating self-regulation. In that purpose, an adult should allow a child to regulate common activities whenever it's possible. That means that as soon as a child could work independently, an adult should revise control and power. "As soon as the common goal is reached, active withdrawal of an adult as a response to take over by a child is essential for self-regulation development". (Berk, Winsler, 1997, page 30). Degree of explicitness of the request made by an adult during interaction significantly determines child's self-regulation. "When adults constantly influence behaviour of a child through explicit commands and immediately give answers to current problems ("Put it here", "That's the green one"), learning and self-regulation are reduced. As a contrast, when teachers and parents regulate behaviour of children by asking questions which allows children to participate in revealing answers, learning and self-regulation are maximal". (Berk, Winsler, 1997, page 30, according to: Neal, Williams 1990; Roberts i Barns 1992; Gonzales 1994).

According to Maria Montessori assumption of self-control is a developed will. If developed properly, will is a stimulating strength, foundation for progress. Further on, she emphasizes reciprocity of will and obedience. Being obedient means practiced will. It cannot be formed outside. In order to get a child adopt a certain order, to develop self-control, it is necessary to gain attention of a child, come to those hidden potentials and motives that are "unconscious". In the second conscious period, there is expressed activity of will, which can be guided later. It is similar with obedience. "In the first period, the period of internal disorder, child is not obedient, and it seems like being psychically deaf, insensitive to commands; in the second time a child is willing to be obedient, acting like a person receiving a command and willing to respond it, but cannot do it or not always successfully, which means that the child is not ready yet and does not feel joy in being obedient; in the third period the child is ready to respond, with thrill; and with the child, with improvement in practicing, there is a joy for being able to be obedient" (Montessori, 2001, page 238). Obedience coming out from practicing will enables the own control. That is not blind obedience, that is responding to request of the one who provides them the "right to require" with their authority and abilities, as well as responsibility.

Self-control of children also depends on overall climate which, among other things, should offer: honest, not declarative respect of children and their rights; timely recognition and satisfaction of children's needs; adequate model of teacher's behaviour capable to reconsider their actions. (Petrović-Sočo, 2007, page 88). Environment should be flexible in order to be modified in accordance to children's needs. It is important to provide qualitative conditions for satisfaction of primary children's needs (for food, sleep, etc). Satisfaction of primary needs with children in early age enables gaining of safety. If it is not reached, it is difficult to influence development in any domain.

Development of internal control is particularly contributed by a well planned and consistently achieved regime of life, but which is elastic enough to be adjusted to children's needs and potentials (Kamenov, 2008, page 232). According to that, schedule of activities should be individualised in as high degree as possible, especially with children in early age. It is often vice versa in our practice, teacher is impatient, wants to feed the child as soon as possible, communicates roughly, he is ready to punish the child. (Manojlović, Mladenović, 2001, page 85). Instead of present overriding regime of the day, there should be a frame, but not the rules carried out with no exception.

Self-control is the process started in the early childhood. In nature, it is long-term and complex. Kopp (1982) emphasizes that the willing control (as response to mother's request) can be noticed in the last quarter of the age one (Joffe, 1979; Stayton, Hogan & Ainsworth, 1971). Such attitude would be surprising for many theorists, first of all because there were not many researches done for the age under three. Willing control is developed during the whole pre-school period.

Developed self-control is a precondition of developing will, ability of concentration and independence of a child. The child is ready for cooperation for which was stimulated by internal motives. Child is able to accept request, to listen to it, but not only for "pure" obedience. Confirmation for that is asking for explanations, reasons, different options of solutions for some problem. More attention, persistence enable successful realisation of begun activities. Its consequence is development of independence, "supported" by the teacher. The major importance of self-control is probably reflected in that.

Method of research

Taking into account the nature of chosen problem, it was necessary to provide a holistic access to its examination. Thus we tried to establish the nature of different interactions in kindergarten context. Besides systematic long-term examination (lasting for two months), we have also done group interviewing. The goal was to get the whole picture on which factors

influence self-control education, and how much does the whole climate contribute or limit its development. Taking into account all above mentioned, we have chosen the qualitative type research. In that sense, for understanding and interpreting given data, it was extremely important to include examinees-teachers, who helped our evaluations through their own experience (implicit pedagogy). Finally, we mention that the research, done in the scope of an educational unit in Niksic, was not focused on size and representativeness of the sample, but on deeper analysis and understanding of chosen problem.

Results of researches and discussions

The first impression we got during our visit to the kindergarten was that it was a very comfortable place for learning and stay for children. Groups were divided in: day nursery, kindergarten for younger and older children. Taking into account that we wanted to determine which way teachers stimulate development of self-control in early age, we have chosen the long-term watching of the younger group of children.

The object was structured in the way that it was made of two separate classrooms for each of the above mentioned groups, with separate dining room. As we were informed by teachers, they were privileged in that sense, as in other units food is served in the classrooms. Door of the classrooms-bedrooms are almost always closed. Cloakroom is placed in the hall. After they arrive to the kindergarten with help of their parents, the children put on little slippers and put off their jackets. Neither teachers nor children wear uniforms. Teachers meet the children kindly and smiling.

In the study where the younger group of children stay there is a special desk for a teacher placed in the corner of the room; four tables placed according to interests, bookshelves with toys and didactical material, bookcases. On the walls there are works of children on a particular subject in a particular time period (domestic animals, pets, heralds of spring). Colours are vivid and warm, including those on carpet and curtains.

After usual roll-call, regime of the day is continued by going to breakfast, after which comes the work on specific activities (firstly on the level of the whole group, and later according to interest centres), finishing usually with some musical or activities for relaxation. After that comes lunch, going to sleep. How much the regime of the day is schematic, flexible, and how much it is a stimulant frame for development of self-control we conclude on the base of expressed opinions of teachers, as well as our direct insight.

According to statements of the teachers, there is no exclusive insisting on routine order, but there is possible flexibility with obligatory respect of behaviour rules. However, to the question is it possible to individualise schedule of activities (for example Do all children have to go to sleep at the same time), we got a reply: "we cannot do that, that is not possible; they were learned to be quiet, although they don't sleep; it could be done if there is a special room for sleeping"... "there are children who do not need day sleep, that is the reason why private kindergartens are favoured". Other teachers would agree that children often refuse to go to the kindergarten because of day sleep. They mentioned lack of space as the major problem. "We are aware that it would be good if we had a room where children who don't sleep could stay, but the problem is exclusively technical". One of the examinees said that she had seen it in some kindergartens in other towns, so changes in their kindergarten should be surely directed that way.

When it comes to time organisation, we have also got an impression that it is not flexible enough. Washing hands and consuming food is done on frontal level; there is queue and it is usually crowded. As well as for sleep regime, we got an explanation that no exceptions are made in that case, so there are rules and order, and that getting used to the same is important. We remind to contradictory we have expressed in the scope of theory organisation and that is that the children are asked to do what they are not ready for, and to adjust to current needs disregarding certain regime. Only treating children reflects perception of them as dependent on adults, and they are at the same time asked to adjust. Our attention was especially attracted by a child that constantly "came out" from "a train" coming with breakfast. A teacher commented it in a way: "He has been here for months and hasn't learnt to get into line yet".

It also seems contradictory that teachers consider satisfaction of primary needs of a child as extremely important, but on the other side we haven't noticed flexibility (individualisation) in their satisfaction. We have already mentioned satisfying of the need to sleep, and the similar is with food. All children go to breakfast and lunch at the same time; sit and wait for their portion. Possibilities for research are limited, taking into account that they are not allowed to pour tea or milk by themselves, and very often the food is broken into pieces. We emphasize example of a boy who was taking a cup and putting it on his ear to drink his tea. He would do it for several times, and his teacher would say to put it down. Only when

the child sitting opposite his did the same with his cup, the teacher realised they were playing phones. There are not rare cases that the teacher feeds slower children.

We did not get the impression that study room ambient is stimulant for research. Materials and toys are available for children, but the teacher mostly has planned course of activities. Instead of free choice of activities, they are mostly selected by the teacher with explanation that "the weaker ones cannot glue paper balls in drawn figure, but they can paint it". Of course, question of freedom is made here as well. However, to the question "How does the discipline start, what is the precondition for discipline, we've got a reply "through likeability, attractiveness, we adjust activity to the age, focus attention, then we make a request". Focus on work was apostrophe. There is an obvious gap between planned in advance set of activities and tasks on one side and focused attention and interest on the other side.

We have already emphasized that the environment in the watched kindergarten was not stimulant for research. That is contributed by prevailing isolating culture of the institution as well as absence of attractive material. Namely, groups are separated, and architectural solutions do not give possibility for any flexibility of space. Even the doors of studies, besides the fact that they are always closed, are wooden, and windows are high on the top, so we cannot speak about transparency in that part. In the studies, first of all, there is no enough space for free moving. In conversation with the teachers, we were given an explanation that only the study for the older group is bigger and that it is a unique case, not only in their kindergarten but wider, in the whole town. Besides the existing toys, picture books and prepared didactic material that we have noticed on arrival, there were no significant changes during the stay in the institution. The exception is a couple of toys which, as the teacher said, they had got from the older group. Natural materials were not exposed in the study, but the teacher would take them for in advanced prepared activities and selected them as needed. She would usually keep them out of children's reach. As it comes to work according to interest centres, we emphasize that we have discovered through conversation that the children prefer construction centre, but not the rest of "directed activities". We will allow ourselves the statement that the centre was best equipped, which could be an indicator why the other centres are not stimulant. Anyway, there is certainly an open question remained, why this exact centre is favoured most.

In addition to flexible organisation, i.e. individualisation of activities there are statements that the program is flexible, that is featured by work according to interest centres and thematic planning. "Some topic started today could be finished the following day, the following week". The goal for all of that is focusing attention, stimulating interest at children. However, the impression we got during our visit to the kindergarten refers to already prepared topics and activities coming out from it. Especially noticeable was the statement of a teacher: "I prepare everything for the next week". We appreciate an effort made in preparation of different materials for work, but taking into account current interest of children seems problematic. Such access was regularly repeated at other teachers as well. Namely, they emphasize the benefits of long-term occupation with a certain topic, but it seems that they don't leave space for needs and interests that can interrupt already planned course of their activities. To the question do you act reflexively and which types of reflection to you often use, we got a reply "we think, especially if we had an unusual situation, that is necessary, that's our job like". It seems that implicit pedagogies of a teacher do not differ much in that sense. Besides, we think that reflection as a kind of learning is not quite present in their work yet. We got confirmation for that through other indicators as well, and some of them will be mentioned in this paper. With the above mentioned we wanted to at least generally expose some elements referring to spacious-material and time dimension of context of the institution we visited. In the further exposing, we will focus on some of concrete indicators regarding self-control.

We consider extremely positive the fact that the teachers use their personal example to emphasize importance of self-discipline and self-control development. "We have to be the example so they could follow us. You are a role model for everything (of behaviour, creating hygiene habits, indicating). We don't miss the opportunity for learning from own mistakes, although it is hard in large groups. We have to show what is right-how to do hygiene habits, sit at the table, and behave according to Bonton- "here you are, please...". We also appreciate that the teachers recognise and use technique of "time-out". As they emphasize "you have to control yourself, and in a nice way, smiling you can say anything".

Discipline is, first of all, recognised as knowing and following the set of rules. "Order, respect, mutual respect, rules in behaviour; order is followed since the day the children start coming to the kindergarten, we insist on mutual respect; we remind children on rules and order, especially in the first month of their arrival". They emphasize how important it is that children want to cooperate in that process, i.e. if it is necessary to respect needs, wishes of the children and create a stimulant frame on that base. Our attention was attracted by the statement: "Rules of behaviour are well known, they know how to behave in the study, in the garden; there is the furniture that is dangerous. We especially underlined the dangerous furniture, because this statement has stirred us to think whether it meant stimulating of self-protection or

watching of a child as independent. We think that it is early for us to comment what is the background of this statement, which does not mean it can be indicative.

Delaying of impulse, pleasure as a pre-condition of self-control development, as the teachers emphasize, could be realised by verbalising, talk. We have often witnessed, during our visit to the kindergarten, the interpretation and explanation of different situations, stimulant for self-regulation. We mention some of them: "Is that nice what Gojko did, you don't touch temperas with hands, paint is infectious, isn't it? Lazo, get up from the floor so we don't step on the paint... We cannot discover who it is, our game will fail...". Besides, the teachers emphasized necessary explicitly in making requests to the children. They emphasized in the conversation "we have to be specific, if we don't act clearly and concretely we cannot expect from the children to respect our requests". Concreteness is necessary to get the reply and change of behaviour. During survey we have also got the impression on explicit of request, for example "listen carefully, take one strip each, do not crumple, then put the glue; take one popcorn and glue; now sit at the tables; who the teacher call, he calls his friend; put back the crayons, we take only one...". On the other side, we did not notice so much that the teachers use positive terms in establishing rules of behaviour. In conversation with them, we got an explanation why it is so. As they say, the children easily understand the statements such as "is it nice, don't hit him", than "tell him it is your turn". It is certain that they are prone to making statements, explanations for certain situations and requests. Anyway, formulating of positive terms, as to the rule, is lacking. As they say, their formulations are not negative, nor extremely positive. They describe them as specified messages, with necessary individual access, and obligatory pleasant tone. "We don't use negative connotations, we tend to make child understand the request, saying it in a pleasant way". On the base of the previously mentioned, it is certain that teachers explain why something is acceptable or unacceptable. As they emphasize, that is especially important, because the children often don't understand why is something problematic, why they get or do something. "Even if we didn't do that", they say, "the children ask for explanation".

Consistent setting of limits of the children's behaviour is especially important dimension. We did not doubt that they will be confirmed in the conversation, but we had to make a certain effort in watching the same, and on that foundation base conclusion. We could generally say (although we should take into account the time we spent in the kindergarten) that there is principle in setting the rules and then in following the same. We especially emphasize the statements of the teachers who said: "we are trying to be consistent. If we make a mistake once, they use it. They can remember, they can learn, but also to use that if you are not consistent". Such statements matched our estimations as well, as the cases of inconsistency that we have noticed, were mostly sporadic.

Further on, we paid attention to strategies of learning social norms, as a pre-condition of self-controlled behaviour. We asked the teachers what, of the given, they use the most: being a role model, replacement and redirection, setting of rules of behaviour or implementation of certain consequences (Walsh, 2001, str. 58). During the conversation, we have confirmed the importance of role model, the personal one, as well as looking at positive examples of children. As they say, those are the children being awarded for something, and therefore can be a stimulant role model for other children. In the further course of conversation we tended to identify what do the teachers do when a child tries to follow a rule?

In the most cases we got a reply that such behaviour is awarded. In the further course of conversation we saw that that is the common type of award and realised that those are not just awards, but they also use praise. There were the excellent comments as well, such as this one: "they are the happiest when we give them sweets". Further reconsidering justifiability of awards and praises, we realised that the teachers encourage the children (we saw it during the survey), and they use the praises in a moderate way, so they do not favour children and negatively influence confidence. Here we also had some unexpected statements that they got instructions during the specialisation that every procedure or made effort of the child should be praised, which is unjustifiable for the above mentioned reasons, in their opinion. We found helpful the words of encouragement, which we could hear very often: "You do it really well", "Excellent, just go on with your work", "How come you cannot do it, we can all do it"... There were the negatively connoted, such as: "Look at Gojko, he will never work with temperas again...". Anyway, such statements were exceptional.

In the further course of conversation we actualised the question of sanctioning unacceptable behaviour. The teachers unanimously said that they do not apply punishing. During the survey we noticed that the teachers used to say "you will be punished" when communicating with children. Emphasizing the system of logical consequences, as positive and above all helpful solution, we realised that it is still not a part of their repertoire of behaviour. As the examinees emphasized, it is not "really practical" to ask from a child to clean the spilled milk, because he gets stained. It happens sporadically: "only when they throw bread on each others, they pick up the crumbs".

In the theoretical part of the paper we have emphasized the importance of social interactions in relation teacher-child and mutual interactions of children. It is searching of compromise suiting the ZPD of a child. In accordance with that, we asked the teachers if they are prone to reduce help and control when they notice that the child can do independently. Replies we got are quite confusing: "Yes, persistence is important", "I don't allow them to give up, although they are not good at it, you saw when they were making the balls", "In dependence on situation and activity", "You must have control and mustn't leave the child alone". In order to complete and in a way clear our the given replies, we asked them if they could immediately respond to current problems. Unlike the previous question, here we got explicit reply that you must have patience, make sub-questions, instruct work, getting to reply and check the understanding. They have also explained additionally that –it all depends what is the purpose of the task; in some situations it is completely irrelevant whether we will immediately say the colour, if the point is something else, but if the purpose is to recognise a colour, they will certainly not get a ready reply".

In order to approach any generalisation in this part, we have to get back to the beginning analysis of context and prevailing interactions in it. Namely, planned activities the teachers start to realise on frontal level (through storytelling, poem, etc), after which comes again planned set of activities done according to interest centres. In that spirit, communication on the level of the centre itself is continued, with prevailing frontal requests. There are occasionally some individual referring, such as: "Do you need my help?... Just don't pass the line", "I'm coming Aco, just after I help Dik", "You don't need help, you can do it by yourself". There is certainly will and tendency to realise a certain task through support and that they, according to the need, are reduced or redirected to the other children. Anyway, it seems problematic the whole way of acting, starting from spacious-material dimension of context, work in the centres, unattractive material... Teachers on theoretical level understand the essence of discipline, as they understand the importance of thematic planning and work in accordance to needs, abilities and interests of children. However, spirit of collective discipline (rules of behaviour and the same regime for all), absence of cooperation in the widest sense of word and planned activities are contradictory to previously mentioned theoretical postulates.

It is noticeable that the teachers already have the need to realise planned activities, disregarding possible variations in interests of children. That was contributed by the managing role of the teacher during realisation of the given activities. Besides that, they would often reduce chance for research in a way that, in our opinion, they did some activities instead of let the children do them (putting glue, prepared paints...). Besides all that, directive communication, placing giving instructions in the first plan, requests worth for all, contributed creating of climate more suitable for teaching than independent, spontaneous research.

Taking into account the range of this paper, we note that we won't be occupied with the question of peer interaction more studiously. Anyway, we will generally mention some of the indicators that are important for self-control and that give us a whole picture of overall context of the surveyed institution.

During the interviews, the teachers emphasized the importance of the mentioned interaction. According to them, structure of the group is extremely important. According to their statements, the group we watched is much worse than those in previous years. Then they explained to us that it corresponded with family structures, styles of parenthood, etc. They think that the problems are negative role models that the children look up to.

"Children look up to their peers, they rather adopt negative models, which we certainly try to prevent... "if a friend painted something precisely is less relevant than if someone upturned a chair"... "if one or two children adopt it, they will explain to the third child".

On the base of survey we got the impression that, in a few times, elaborated style of work does not leave space for truly cooperation and on that foundation based learning. Even if an activity was imagined for a group, there is no real interaction between children. When we apostrophe the above mentioned in conversation with the teachers, they told us that taking into account the age, it is illusory to expect that the child will manage in a group, so it is justifiable to use pair work. Again, we have to get back to common way of work, which is not adjusted to individual interests, nor it has characteristics of problematic, provoked learning. In that sense, we could mention again the lack of attractive material, as well as inflexible organisation according to interest centres. As there is mostly individual work even in the group, the children are not able to develop the feeling of closeness and acceptance. Such "group" work does not offer chance for truly exchanging of ideas, as the teacher does not leave the space for spontaneous dialogue among them, nor prepare activities that could be focused on accomplishment of the common goal, which gives the cooperation the real sense. We have to keep shortly on the statement that "if one or two children adopt it, they will explain to the third child". Here, as well as in other places, we get indicators offering optimism.

Disregarding the previously described context of the visited institution, we consider that certain indicators, regarding discipline, are positive.

Conclusion

Theoretical, as well as empirical interpretation of our subject of study, we started with the story on context. In that sense, we especially emphasized the spacious-material and time dimension of context.

Spacious-material dimension is featured by a quite dysfunctional space (isolated studies, insufficiency of material, inadequate architectural solutions etc.). Anyway, optimism is still reflected in bookshelves, cloakrooms available to children and bottles, warm colours...

Time dimension is recognised as "common regime of work", in the scope of which, disregarding individual needs and tempo, hygiene habits are practiced, they have breakfast, lunch, go to sleep... "stay in the kindergarten is a pattern, it is determined when they come, when they have breakfast, sleep", the teachers say.

Environment, i.e. the whole climate has the seal of teaching. Namely, the prevailing frontal start of activities at the beginning of the day, over planned activities according to interest centres, to insufficiently and stimulant material.

Above mentioned refer to presence of isolating culture, as well as to insufficient awareness (reflection) of the own practice. This, all the more, if we take into account the statements of the teachers on necessary individualisation, thematic study and stimulation of children's interests, and which are opposite to their practical work.

Starting from such an implicit pedagogy of the teacher, we reconsidered the frame of discipline and in the scope of them chance of self-control development. That way we concluded that it is insisted on:

Following the rules of behaviour,

Explicit requests,

Explanations,

Consistent in establishing of limits of the children's behaviour...

The above mentioned should be added motivation with praises and encouragements, but also insufficient implementation of logical consequences in purpose of sanctioning unacceptable behaviour and stimulation of the acceptable. Although here mentioned statements stimulate self-regulation, there is the question in which measure it is possible in the previously described context, and what is their reach. According to what was seen, it seems that it is more about discipline in collective spirit than behaviour motivated by self-control.

We have especially emphasized the nature of interaction between the teacher and child in the prism of context of the visited institution. Teacher usually invites all children to take part in activities, disregarding their interests. Therefore they all have the same requests in front of them, and they are all given general instructions. That certainly emphasizes traditional role of the teacher, and on damage of the watching, listening, planning one. That way, the already well-known teaching of Vigotsky on the zone of proximal development is put in the second plan. It is not difficult to conclude that on described foundation based communication is mostly linear. With no pretension to widely elaborate interaction between children, we have generally mentioned it, as it is extremely important in the self-regulation process. The previously indicated interaction and communication from relation teacher-child has been undoubtedly transferred to mutual relations of the children. Direction of all to listen to the story, to work mostly on their own tasks in groups, to be motivated more to exchange in their own, and especially with other groups, the consequence was mutual mistrust, non-acceptance, even conflicts. It is not hard to conclude that in such conditions, chances for cooperative learning are limited.

Finally, we state how much the described context is stimulant for teaching self-control. Maybe it is the best in that sense to pay attention to the prefix only. Is the child in the surveyed conditioned treated as independent, autonomous, i.e. dependent and helpless? It is clear that we cannot conclude on self-control non-contextually, and if we do it, we find reply in the other part of the mentioned question. Therefore, the attention is paid to discipline, but the circumstances in which teachers act, as well as their implicit pedagogies, should be quite modified in order to develop self-control at children at those bases.

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A qualitative approach to organizational analysis - The applicability of qualitative studies through the Critical Incidents Technique in the implementation of organizational development programs –

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Abstract

A qualitative approach in a organizational diagnosis process has the purpose of identifying the elements that generate performance and the ones which may require improvement, and which the organization itself can control. The instruments used in qualitative studies can help to accurately point out the organizational profile by conducting interviews with key people in organizations (mainly from managerial level, and key people- specialists in certain business lines). Applying a series of techniques to describe the current situation in an organization in terms of organizational climate, culture, norms and values promoted at informal level is necessary in order to customize organizational organizational development programs on specific company needs. The CIT (Critical Incidents Technique) promotes the use of qualitative techniques in order to accurately capture specific situations (in organizational context) that may destabilize the activities of an organization. Critical incidents are understood herein as problems/situations that require new approaches in order for them to be resolved. If an organization goes through a set of planned changes, critical incidents are seen as constructs that may be directly observed through qualitative methodology. Critical incidents can have a positive impact if they are supported by setting clear objectives and standardized actions considered in the current critical incident. Qualitative study through CIT presumes defining the specific organizational profile of a company, the type of relations that exist within it, of the behaviours, values and habits that are promoted internally in order to see what are the processes that are affected by organizational change. This paper is due to the empirical study of an organization which is undergoing a process of change due to the recent takeover by a foreign investment fund; the research involves identifying key points that can optimize the development program of the organization and facilitate implementation of the change process by outlining best practices applicable to the company and by pointing out the common elements of the current organizational culture and the one that is implemented.

Keywords: Organizational analysis, qualitative study, Critical Incidents Technique, Organizational Change

1.Theoretical definition of the Critical Incidents Technique and applicability in organizational context

The Critical Incidents Studies cover a very wide range of fields, with applications in the field of combined structures –based on human relations- formed with the purpose of fulfilling a common goal. The critical incidents technique was developed by John Flanagan in order to see what are the aspects affecting pilots ability of learning to fly- prior explanations consisted often in ambiguous statements, without being clearly defined what are the reasons why pilots have certain behaviors (positive or negative) in learning exercises. Flanagan's technique was used to pinpoint the reasons for the pilots acting in a certain way in the learning process. According to Rogers, the essence of CIT is to capture „experiences of communication “, both negatively and positively charged depending on the implications they may have. (Rogers, 2005)

In organizational environments the critical incident analysis aims at identifying factors that are not part of the routine of a company, or of the standardized activities that have a range of known actions undertaken by employees. Critical incident technique requires prior analysis of the factors that are included in the conceptualization of planned change (as further development of an organization) that destabilizes the company's internal system.

Using CIT in organizational analysis implies a qualitative approach, oriented on precise measurement of behavior patterns, interests and values that may be found in an organization and the way they affect the company's well being. To analyse an organization through qualitative methodology means that the point of interest is to highlight specific issues of the company. In the study of change the relevance of a qualitative approach is given by the level of depth that the insight acquired through

interviews may have for the change process The analysis of the current situation in an organization going through a change process involves identifying operational models considered valid by the members of the company by structuring key elements that people identify as being important for execution of organizational tasks.

Flanagan designed CIT in order to define what are the functional specifications of certain mechanisms that depend on interconnected structures – referring to human relations-.

The term „critical“ has created controversy due to its nature to emphasize the studied traits. CIT method – referenced to human behavior - states that the term „critical“ defines extreme behaviors (which can be both efficient and inefficient) in atypical situations (Flanagan, 1954).

„Incidents“ can make reference to actual situations that were modeled as atypical behaviors. In short, the term „critical“ marks a certain behaviors intensity on a specific case, the term „incident“ defining the event itself (Cope&Watts, 2000).

Today, critical incidents can be observed in the majority of multinational organizations. The fact that in low income areas small and medium bussiness are being taken over by large corporations with similar bussiness area of interest means that changes in organizational culture, climate and strategic vision are due for. Local entrepreneurship organizations go through a process of adaptation to new work processes, different values and work procedures when they are taken over by multinational companies. Therefore, takeovers by foreign investment funds bring a natural process of organizational change. Implementation of organizational changes (defined herein as development processes) are the adaptation of employees to new work methods, different procedures and different management styles. Problems can arise often, misunderstanding due to differences between working methodologies proposed by management and the way they are perceived and accepted by member of the company. Problems of this type are due to cultural differences- this being a factor of resistance to change.

Resistances to change bring a need for accurate understanding of the current situation in which an organization is positioned in order to be surpassed. In this sense, development programs can be calibrated to the needs of employees and structures can be improved in order to function at full capacity. Applying CIT does not explain the reasons behind the existence of cultural differences but generates significant insights in order to see which elements are affected by cultural differences- the organizational context, the relationships within a company etc. (Wight, 1995). Approaching the analysis of an organization during a period of change from a qualitative perspective can improve its development by modifying (calibrating) in order to improve job satisfaction and employee performance. Qualitative techniques in organizational analysis can contribute to the definition of process maps and help optimize the defined roles in a company (Serat, 2010).

2.CIT applicability in organizations

CIT Analysis can be used to help companies plan, evaluate and calibrate development programs (Hetlage, 2006). For the implementation of a CIT program it is necessary to clearly define the issues that are to be investigated in order to create a valid structure for a specific case.

The use of CIT is aimed at pointing out practical solutions of overcoming incidents, and standardizing certain actions in organizations with the purpose of optimizing processes; CIT is implemented through 5 stages (Flanagan, 1954):

- Establish the purpose of the study
- Establish the work plan and the company's specifications
- Data collection
- Data analysis
- Data interpretation

The general purpose of the qualitative study consists in identifying the exact profile of the organization's structure, of the type of relationship that are developed in the company, the behaviors that are promoted, among with the values and habits that are encouraged informally.

3.Company description

The company in which the study was conducted has a total of 165 employees, and is enlisted in the industry sector, and is in the process of developing a new product line. A qualitative approach was used to identify the firm's strenghts and needs

for development as a result of its takeover by a foreign investment fund. The company was taken over a year ago, time in which there have been changes in operational structures, sales and support. Turnover has increased due to the financial power provided by the investment fund and the pressure on results is getting higher. With the aim to improve employee performance and create a common identity between the company and its personnel, the company's management has started the implementation of development programs with the goal of improving individual performance of key employees and optimize working processes. These programs include phases of coaching and mentoring at management, technical trainings and programs focused on developing a common organizational culture in order to increase the overall level of satisfaction. In this respect, the study of critical incidents helps in viewing differences between the organization and employees at a value level, and help calibrating development programs in a manner consistent with the needs perceived by employees.

4. Qualitative research methodology

The qualitative approach used for data collection requires the use of specific tools that can define the organizational profile of the company

Table nr.1- conducting the study

Activity	Individual interviews with company managers and key specialists that have more than 1 year seniority within the company
Purpose of the activity	To emphasize the perception that key people have about the company; to identify the potential for growth of the organization
Establishing individual interviews	Semi-structured interviews with key people in the organization
Critical Incidents	Atypical situations that respondents face-what are the factors that generate critical incidents and what actions lead to resolve / standardize these situations.
Analyzed dimension	Company-perception towards the company, and to the changes that have been made; how corporate values are understood by respondents. Organizational climate- perception of respondents about the degree in which members of the company collaborate and about the general working atmosphere Management- how respondents consider the company is lead by managers Training and career development- ways to improve training processes Commitment towards the company - perception of commitment at company level

The research addresses the management team (top management and middle management of the organization), amounting to a total of 10 people that will undergo interviews based on a semi-structured interview guide to achieve the objectives of the study.

Table nr. 2- data collection

Participants	The company's management team
Data collection method	Semi-structured interview with each manager
General aspects pursued in the interview (focus on certain directions)	<p>Present your work in the company referring to both routine matters and atypical problems?</p> <p>Did recent changes affect your job?</p> <p>What do you think about the way the company is managed?</p> <p>What do you thing could be improved?</p> <p>Do you have knowledge about the company's strategic objectives?</p> <p>What suggestions do you have for improving performance in the company?</p> <p>What is your opinion about the degree of collaboration within the company?</p> <p>How do you personally collaborate with you subordinate and your colleagues from other departments?</p>

5. Interpretation of the results

As mentioned in previous chapters, the purpose of the research was to identify the key elements (both positive and negative) that define the profile of the organization in terms of its culture. Thus, as a result of the interviews we could identify that some of the most important values are Trust, Continuity, Sustainability.

Those values are well cascaded into the behaviors expected at group level, some of those being well exercised at present, others being still in need of development but having promising premises. In this respect, it is to be considered that the current organization has deep roots in the previous culture which created strong collective beliefs and habits that do not necessarily match the new ways which are endorsed by the company. The takeover of the company changed aspects regarding operational requirements and procedures and shifting the company's norms and values to a western result oriented approach. The more recent focus on a new and more complex business sector adds new challenges in this constant change process. In carrying out their activities, managers and employees with a high level of seniority in the organization compare the differences between the new vision and the one of the old company. People generally feel appreciated and well treated. However, there is a need for offering and receiving positive feedback more manifestly and consistently – for celebrating successes and for making explicit to a person that the company appreciates what he/ she does. People appreciate collective treatment and support, but feel the need for individual differentiation. As such, concerns appear related to a general feeling of inequity – „although as a team we all well treated and appreciated, individually I feel that my contribution is not enough known and appreciated.”

Identified Critical Incidents:

The company's focus on sincerity – The communication within the organization is open and direct, unaffected by formalisms, hierarchical barriers or fears of punishment. However, given the previous history of the company, people still do not have the natural habit to discuss – they share ideas, give feedback and look together for solutions, but they have not developed 'real conversations' that involve getting to understand what and why the other one is thinking at a more profound level. The management team encourages those, but they still need to develop the mindset and skill for putting

emphasis on this type of conversations and making them general practice. As opposed to the old company culture where the focus was strictly on individual performance was setting barriers in communication between departments and also between employees.

As a critical incident, the focus on sincerity has positive effects on the company- treating this as a driving factor for the development of new ways of interaction can impact the organization at all its levels.

Quotes from interviews:

„People are beginning to understand that without open communication there can be no cooperation”.

“Compared with the old company, I see that the new leadership encourages good relationships and positive climate in the workplace”

“Certainly the role of the company is to make money, and management doesn’t lose sight of this. But they also visualize the mechanisms behind the turnover and profit numbers and are aware that it is important to treat others honestly and fairly. ”

Lack of personal initiative for achieving performance – For the same reasons related to previous history, people maintain a concern for self-preservation. They are less inclined to take risks as not to make mistakes and lose what they have gained. They may not be always keen to propose or accept an innovative idea, or work on a new technology, so as not to fail and lose the gained statute of good expert in the eyes of the others. Peer approval seems to be very important-complexity and change raise some fears, as most employees have worked for years on a certain system and may feel they cannot keep up with the growing requests.

The lack of personal initiative can be enlisted as a critical incident in terms of being a behavior that blocks individual performance. There is a clear need for improvement in the majority of employees regarding initiative. Focus on inspiring self confidence can lead to successful outcomes in terms of individual performance.

Quotes from interviews:

“My people lack initiative- they do not seek solutions for problems they could handle. Maybe the last changes made them more insecure; perhaps they think they could get fired. ”

“The new technology requires the use of injection; we all learn together the specifications on injection technologies; the problem is that people have emotions, not opinions, and they don’t try to come up with solutions; they rather expect to come from somewhere else. In short, they are afraid to make mistakes. ”

Commitment – The employees display a high level of pride to work in the company. Some of this is surely related to the low availability of work in the region, so people appreciate job security. Also, the stability gained by attaching the company to a larger organization that invests in improvement and the possibility to grow alongside a proficient organization are motivational aspects for continuing/beginning a career. People feel that they have learned and grown with the company and value their professional experience here. Also they appreciate the friendly and respectful atmosphere, giving them a high level of personal comfort and dignity in the workplace – essential in terms of organizational commitment. In this sense, commitment to the organization can be perceived as a common element between the old organizational culture and the one proposed by the new management. People trust in the changes made by the company, considering that the organization invests in them. The fact that the staff has a high commitment to the company reduces resistance to change helping to maintain a high satisfaction level and facilitating the implementation of development programs offered by the company.

As a critical incident, commitment to the company can be considered important in maintaining a high level of cohesion in the organization.

Quotes from interviews:

“After seven years of working in this company it feel like finally positive changes are made; In the last year I saw changes, and although there have been cases of people getting fired, I strongly believe that the company has invested in us as a team.”

“I for one have no reason to complain. I was sent to various trainings and new procedures were created to help me understand better what I have to do; the only problem is the pressure on results, and the feeling of uncertainty. But i think that they will be resolved in a year. We just need to get used to the new rules. ”

Inequity among workers- Managers' commitment to performance also means rewarding proper behaviors, good ideas and actions as to clearly differentiate those employees from the mediocre comfortable ones, while penalizing inadequate attitudes and constantly low performance. The organization lacks active orientation towards a meritocratic culture. *Faptul ca recompensele si sistemul de bonusare nu sunt suficiente de clare pentru angajati constituie o problema neintalnita in vechea organizatie.* The conducted interviews show that people are not satisfied of the way wages are calculated in comparisons with other colleagues. A reward system based on meritocratic criteria can help establish a profile of competence in the company and a feeling of employee identification with the company's values.

Quotes from interviews:

"People still come with complaints regarding bonuses and I keep repeating that there is nothing I can do; I wonder why there are seniority bonuses and not performance bonus among blue collar workers. That I think is a problematic situation that needs to be solved."

Conclusions

The organizational culture key elements and patterns of thinking at organizational level seem to be oriented in three directions:

Organizational commitment – The conducted interviews show that people perceive their own values as being consistent with the objectives and the values of the company. Their commitment is influenced by loyalty to the company that built their professional career, and by emotional attachment. There is a high level of enthusiasm and openness in receiving tasks and in doing all it takes to accomplish them, as workers identify themselves with their positions.

Improving outcomes – Focus on continuous improvement of processes and interest in aligning the company to the group in terms of operational practices and results. Quality is a main concern for managers and there is an expressed interest in applying the larger organizational vision for a long term perspective, as well as an intrinsic and personal drive for self-development (long-term career focus).

Developing relationships – Implementing the organizational strategy as well as the well-being of the organization is considered to depend on quality relationships between the members, both internally and in relationships with the company. People tend to place a strong focus on building and maintaining good quality relations amongst themselves and with employees, and a positive atmosphere at work, in this respect being focused rather on the collective than on the individual.

The purpose of the study was to capture the main elements of the organizational culture of the company through semi-structured interviews with the purpose of identifying factors that are perceived as being positive in the organization but also the development needs that can be solved by implementing development programs.

Critical incidents – defined in this paper as atypical cases that are going through a standardization process- were used for shaping specifications of the organizational culture in order to have an accurate description of the current state of the organization.

To address organizational analysis from a qualitative perspective defines organizational culture at a level felt by all the organization's personnel, and not only from a point in which certain aspects are only communicated throughout formal communication channels. The values of a company and the implementation of the principles that guide it are felt through the relationship that managers have with employees but also through the way that the company invests in maintaining good relations between its representatives and its clients.

A qualitative CIT analysis that is focused on defining organizational culture can help organizations optimize personnel turnover and achieve high performance through positive people oriented management systems.

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Dirty Realism in Carver's Work

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Abstract

Dirty realism is the fiction of American authors who write about the dark side of contemporary life. Raymond Carver is one of the best representatives of this generation. His stories constitute a new voice in fiction. In fact, he writes about ordinary things in a simple language that depicts the pain and suffering rather than hope. His literary world reflects the chaotic life of his characters which results in short stories about unhappy marriages and people who continue living a futile life just because there is nothing else left to do. Carver's aim is to convey through language and symbols the special moments when these people's empty lives are separated from chaos. These stories are set in the North-Eastern part of the Pacific Ocean and revolve around the lives of farmers, alcoholics, secretaries, mechanics and other ordinary people. They appear in familiar surroundings and focus on trivial issues and what is more they are endowed with subtle descriptions of objects given through regional dialect. It is his skill to understand and portray the sensations of the characters that shows how the real life of common people in the years '70s and '80s in the USA really was. In this paper I intend to make a detailed analysis of the features of this dark realism in Carver's work.

Keywords: dirty realism, chaotic, symbols, trivial issues, regional dialect

Introduction

There are authors who are verbose and others who are spare. Not only does Raymond Carver fall in the latter category, he is also the master of the understatement. In fact, he is considered as one of the greatest short story writers of the 20th century (it has been said that he revitalized the short story form by the time he died in 1988). He wrote to the literary movements of minimalism and dirty realism. His fiction explores grief, loneliness, infidelity, insecurity and escape.

The "dirty realism", which deals with middle-class characters and is focused on the harsh realities of their ordinary lives became popular in the 1980s. It was *Granta*, a highly regarded literary journal which coined the label dirty realism in 1983 for which Buford wrote an explanatory introduction:

"Dirty realism is the fiction of a new generation of American authors. They write about the belly-side of contemporary life – a deserted husband, an unwed mother, a car thief, a pickpocket, a drug addict – but they write about it with a disturbing detachment, at times verging on comedy. Understated, ironic, sometimes savage, but insistently compassionate, these stories constitute a new voice in fiction."

It is the dirty realism that describes a writing style whose aim is to create realistic and sad destinies. Dirty Realism is often about people living a sad lifetime with problems such as drug and alcohol abuse, divorce. It is a form of minimalism characterized by a reduction of words and a focus on surface description. Authors like Carver avoid using adverbs and prefer allowing context and in that way there will be less to interpret on our own compared to Minimalism. The characters in dirty realist stories and novels tend to be ordinary, unremarkable people, often with few resources and little money.

What is typical about "dirty realism" is the distinctive style characterised by sparse prose, simple language, and direct descriptions of ordinary people and events. For instance, the opening of the stories is too simple: "This blind man, an old friend of my wife's, he was on his way to spend the night."¹ Its characters are unexceptional and live in unexceptional situations. The all live in the cities and the majority are workers, adulterers, alcoholics, women or ethnic minorities, people who experience estrangement, loneliness and disillusionment every single day of their lives. As a result, they have become

¹ Carver, Raymond. *Cathedral*. New York: Vintage Contemporaries, 1989.

tough, their dialogues are elliptical. The metropolitanism is gone to give way to the rural American and often inarticulate, unsophisticated protagonists. These working poor people have to sell their labour or even their bodies in order to survive and who might at any time lose everything, including the basic dignities that make human beings human.

Dirty realism focuses on the sadness and loss in the everyday lives of ordinary people – usually lower-middle class or marginalized people. Raymond Carver is the author who epitomizes the dirty realism with his condensed, terse and graceful stories. He successfully employs omissions, uses spaces between the words to give a sense of evanescent and elusive feelings. The style is colloquial and conversational especially in the story "The Cathedral": "She read stuff to him... that sort of thing." There is a lack of obvious imagery or metaphor: "In the movies, the blind moved slowly and never laughed." There is repetition – "this blind man", "a blind man", "the blind man"; and overuse of pronouns, with many instances of 'he' and 'she'. It is flat and spare: "His wife had died, so he was visiting the dead wife's relatives." There is a sense that the prose is somehow constricted, as is the narrator himself: the restrictive style mirrors the narrator's restricted views on life. Carver said of his prose style, "Prose is architecture. And this isn't the baroque age."¹

1. The Characters, Language, Style in Carver's Works

His focus is on the simple ritual of everyday life by giving all his attention to the concrete and avoiding all possible abstractions. In his short stories he describes emotions, disappointments and relationships with simplicity and stoicism. In them, the characters are ordinary, in unremarkable occupations, and often lack money, something that becomes the reason for an internal desperation. They are depressed, without education or prospects, but who fail to give up even when it would be in their best interest.

It is difficult to read about the characters personalities, actions, and flaws- to distinguish between the characters mistakes and who they were as people. Did Carver intend them to be viewed as protagonists or antagonists? In these messy stories, it is clear that he develops his characters so that no person is completely innocent or guilty. Unlike the works of many other writers, Carver leaves it to the reader to decide, who, if any of these people, is truly a victim or villain. In asking his readers to go deeper into the psyches of his characters, the reader is encouraged to evolve alternate methods of viewing certain lifestyles, choices, and mistakes. The readers finish these stories recognizing that passing judgment on others is too simple.

Carver has taken the "dirty" reality of day-to-day life and explored it. His characters feel like real people, their lives look like real lives, their relationships are complex and personal. The story *Signals* is a perfect example. It opens with Wayne and Caroline being seated at a new, expensive restaurant owned by a mysteriously famous European man named Aldo. All seems nice, they're excited. Slowly, things unravel. Wayne was upset and starts complaining about poor service that isn't. Then he's projecting angry, disconnected emotions on Aldo, the server, and other patrons. Finally, the reader gets to see the heart of it: Wayne and Caroline's marriage is in serious trouble (and Wayne feels it's her fault).

"They looked at each other as they drank.

'We ought to do this more often,' he said.

She nodded.

'It's good to get out now and then. I'll make more of an effort if you want me to.'

She reached for celery. 'That's up to you.'

'That's not true! It's not me who's...who's...'

'Who's what?' she said.

'I don't care what you do,' he said, dropping his eyes.

'Is that true?'

'I don't know why I said that,' he said" (223).

It gets deeper and deeper and ends unresolved. It's not classic short story form: it's true-life. There's no "magic," in it but it still can engage the reader. "I'm against tricks that call attention to themselves in an effort to be clever or merely devious,

¹ Sklenicka, Carol. *Raymond Carver: A Writer's Life*. New York: Scribner, 2009.

" he said to one interviewer. "I'm not interested in works that are all texture and no flesh and blood. I guess I'm old fashioned enough to feel that the reader must somehow be involved at the human level."¹

Carver's work is the narrative of the middle-class. It focuses on contemporary fashion, on our culture's obsession with looking good and being hip, on the trendiness of dance clubs and jeans and alcohol and drugs and sex and on our consumer society packed with brand names. Carver is the writer who believes that the reader can smell, see, and touch. Moreover, we find a narrative that believes in its own logic: in chronology, in plot, in psychology, in selfhood. This is the universe where content is privileged over form and where language is transparent.

Carver's use of first person narrative, ambiguity, epiphany, and symbolism are the technical aspects explored that emphasize the plight of the foreclosed and diffused character who must break free of the bonds of passivity by stepping forward into moratorium. What he does in his stories is combine weariness with wonder, cruelty of life with a moment of relief. In order to achieve that he avoids [adverbs](#), extended [metaphor](#) and [internal monologue](#), instead allowing objects and context to dictate meaning.

The characters in his fiction are exhausted with life. Their dialogue is spare and elliptical. It is usually cynical and ironic, concerned with what is below the surface, with the disjunction between what is said and what is meant. The stories are short on plot, short on action, short on explication, sometimes as fractured and dislocated. Arthur Saltzman calls Carver the "Connoisseur of the Commonplace." He claims that Carver depicts the cramped conditions of working-class existence with genuine sympathy and authority. He also points out that Carver's work is characterized by an avoidance of extensive rumination. He uses short sentences and sparse dialogue to effectively highlight the silencing of the working class. As writer and critic Brian A. Oard puts it: The Carveresque image allows the reader to glimpse the terrible waste of his characters' lives (something the characters themselves can sometimes feel but rarely see) and forces the reader to reconsider the entire story in the image's dark light.

His stories are short, his language is stark, his characters are uncomplicated and his symbols are basic. None of this, however, implies poverty of meaning as Carver's short stories are about the meaning of life, the meaning behind relationships and the meaning underscoring human action (Hallett, pp. 488-89). As Carver himself explains in "On Writing," short stories are "glimpses" of life and, more importantly, "illuminating" glimpses² (p. 17). In other words, from Carver's point of view, even though they are nothing more than a brief glimpse at a particular moment in life, short stories illuminate one's understanding of life, insofar as they are focused, concentrated and in-depth 'glimpses.'

2. Major Themes

Carver repeats several essential themes that coincide with the reading of most stories in his work.

2.1 Delusion

In the majority of Carver's stories characters are unaware of the truth. Sometimes this is implicit, while other times it is very clear.

In "Feathers," Jack and Fran are not happy but realize it only when they visit Bud and Olla. They understand the isolation that reigns in their lives and try to change that by having a child.

In "Chef's House," Edna and Wes pretend that they are changing their dull lives through their vacation at Chef's. But that will end one day and they will have to face their problems again.

In "Careful," Lloyd believes he is recovering from his alcoholism, even though he drinks champagne for breakfast. This is another delusion in his life.

In "Fever," Carlyle convinces himself that he is over Eileen, but it's not until his sickness brings out his confession to Mrs. Webster that he realizes how much he has been tied to the past.

In "The Bride," Marge is not aware of how unhappy she is. But she lacks the strength to see her loneliness and tries and befriends Betty, instead relying on a pretense that her job is important and that her identity as a stylist is meaningful.

¹ Carroll, Maureen and Stull, William L. *Remembering Ray*. Santa Barbara: Capra Press, 1993

² Carver, Raymond. "On Writing." *Fires: Essays, Poems and Short Stories by Raymond Carver*. Santa Barbara: Carver Press, 1983.

In "Cathedral," on the other hand, the narrator does not confront his loneliness. Instead, he turns his unhappiness towards others, attacking people even for their disabilities (as with Robert). It's not until Robert forces himself into the narrator's life that the latter realizes he is lonely and desperately seeks more from life.

2.2 Change, Insecurity, Control, Conflict

In Jerry and Molly and Sam it can be noticed the theme of change, insecurity, guilt, control and conflict. The story is narrated in the third person by an unnamed narrator. Carver explores the theme of insecurity. Al, the main protagonist in the story, is worried about his job in Aerojet. Though he has been there for nearly three years, he still knows his job is not secure. Carver also explores insecurity again later in the story when Betty (Al's wife) tells Al that 'It's us! It's us! I know you don't love me any more –goddamn you! – but you don't even love the kids.' Not only is Betty insecure but what she tells Al also highlights the idea of conflict (internal) within Betty.

The theme of conflict is explored in the story when the reader discovers that Al is having an affair and that 'he didn't know what to do about it.' Again this would be an internal conflict (for Al). The other theme, that of change is also noticeable several times in the story. First there is the fact that Al believes by getting rid of Suzy (his lover), it will be the beginning of a positive change in his life. He knows he needs to change, though he is misguided to believe that by getting rid of Suzy, it will be the right change. There are also other examples in the story that highlight the lack of change in Al's life. First there is Molly in the bar. After Al leaves and is driving to Jill's house, Carver tells the reader that Al felt 'if he'd been in a different frame of mind, he could have picked her up.'¹ This is significant as it highlights that Al hasn't changed. The reader will recall that he picked Jill up in a bar. He is doing the exact same thing again (no change) but this time with a different woman. The other incident in which there is no change is more symbolic. After he has had his shave, Al decides to have a shower and doesn't change his clothes. This further highlights that not only does Al need to change clothes (he slept in them) but he also needs to change his life (stop having affair). However, in all probability he won't.

There are also several examples in the story which suggest to the reader the theme of control. There is the fact that Al is aware that he needs to reshape his life. He incorrectly believes that the first step in regaining control of his life is by getting rid of Suzy. Also the reader is aware that Al is having an affair with Jill. Though the narrator tells the reader that Al didn't know what to do about it, it further suggests an awareness (from Al) that not only does he need to change but he has to look at this affair with Jill in order to again, regain some sort of control in his life. Jerry, the barman in the story, though he is only briefly mentioned, is also significant. Significant because he can fix Molly's washing machine motor. This in some ways mirrors what Al is trying to do, he is trying to fix his life, to regain control over it.

The ending of the story is also significant as it suggests the theme of guilt, conflict and change. As Al is driving and looking for Suzy, it is obvious that he is continuing to feel guilty about having abandoned her. The narrator tells the reader that Al felt that 'A man who would get rid of a little dog wasn't worth a damn.' Just after this statement the reader learns that Al, 'He knew the situation was all out of proportion now but he couldn't help it.' Not only does this suggest an internal conflict within Al but on a different level it also suggests that Al is fully aware that there is a need for change in his life and getting rid of Suzy was not the type of change that Al needed. It also suggests a lack of control as Al isn't able to control what is happening in his life.

Carver closes the story with symbolism, for change. The reader is already aware that Al considers Suzy to be stupid. However, despite his opinion of Suzy, Al is relieved to have found her, 'he didn't feel so bad, all things considered. The world was full of dogs. There were dogs and there were dogs. Some dogs you just couldn't do anything with.' The last statement in the story is important as it not only suggests that Suzy will remain the same but also possibly Al too, despite his awareness and wish to control or change his life, he may not actually do so.

2.3 Isolation/Loneliness

Most of Carver's characters are separated from others, either physically or emotionally. Sometimes they are aware of this, while some others are unaware of how much their loneliness affects them.

¹ Collected Stories .New York: Penguin Group, 2009.

In "Feathers, " Fran and Jack live apart from others. They don't have much social interaction, and Fran attempts to stop them from visiting Jack's friend. Where Bud and Olla are also isolated physically, they nevertheless seem to be entirely happy in their world. The idea of having a child makes them further apart from one another.

In "Chef's House, " both Wes and Edna live lonely lives. Edna talks only about having a "friend" who she leaves to join Wes. Their relationships with others hold little weight, and so they try too hard to have what they've lost from one another. They are even isolated from their children. This is what drives them to try to create a kind of relationship but that unfortunately does not result as such.

In "The Compartment, " Myers lives an isolated life in which he sees few people. His trip to Europe represents an attempt to reconnect with others, but he spends most of his time in Europe alone, and ultimately decides he doesn't want such reconnection at all.

In "A Small, Good Thing, " Ann and Howard are separated from one another even though they don't realize it. Ann recognizes late into Scotty's hospitalization how she feels distant from Howard, and they grow closer through the experience. The story illustrates how far away from each other humans are through the many doctors the parents encounter. Their reunion at the baker is so haunting especially when the three people share their loneliness.

In "Vitamins, " all the characters are lonely. They want to be somewhere else, away from a life where their only friends are those with whom they work. Patti and the narrator live together but are emotionally separated from one another.

"Where I'm Calling From" is a story about a character who learns to accept himself. He refuses to call his girlfriend from fear of learning bad news, but the story ends with him deciding to try and connect with others hoping to help himself.

"The Train" has three characters. Miss Dent doesn't know anything about the people in the train station. Each one of them hopes to disappear into the anonymity of the late night train to address their own problems.

In "Fever, " Carlyle's issue is the loneliness he feels since Eileen left. Carol is only some comfort, since she has her own problems.

"The Bridle" is set in a landscape of loneliness. The apartment building is far away from life, and the characters are so separated that they play games to win divorces. Marge, so lonely with Harley, wants badly to have a friend in Betty.

In "Cathedral, " it is portrayed the individual isolated from others for several reasons. The narrator drinks too much and seems unable to communicate with his wife. The wife has earlier tried to commit suicide because of loneliness. Only the blind man, Robert, seems able to form lasting human connections. Though a blind person, he can be so interesting to talk with, he is able to see and understand beyond what others can see. The blind man was able to unravel the truth out of the husband. He realized his weakness as a lover to the wife. The blind man's touch connotes that he cares and that's what the wife in the story needs. Someone who will care and listen to her.

The story is also about connection – "She told me he touched his fingers to every part of her face, her nose – even her neck!" – and communication: "But she and the blind man kept in touch", something the narrator finds it hard to do. But his epiphany at the hands of the blind man transcend talk – it is a physical and mystical moment – "It was like nothing in my life up to now", experienced with his eyes closed and with no words to truly describe it: "It's really something, ' I said."

Unlike Carver's other stories, however, "Cathedral" ends with hope; although there is no proof that the narrator will overcome his isolation, for the moment, he is in communion with himself and another human being. He is happy to have company at night and what is more, he experiences the pleasure of freedom, the pleasure of feeling part of the world outside of himself.

2.4 Tragedy

The characters confront tragedies in their lives. Tragedy consists also in forces outside of human control. In such characters, even time is a kind of tragic force. It passes without people understanding it and once it is gone it cannot be undone. They may try to turn it back but in vain and the result is that they are left desperate and hopeless. For instance, the couple in "Feathers, " in "Chef's House, " in "Preservation, " in "Careful, " in "Where I'm Calling From, " and in "Fever." In these stories, the characters quite frequently become nostalgic and try to remember the time in which the relationship they had with one another was different.

The most typical example of tragedy is in "A Small, Good Thing." The tragedy of Scotty's death is devastating, but it ironically brings the couple together because they are the only ones who can perfectly understand each other's loneliness and desperation.

2.5 Inaction

Carver's characters know that they are unhappy, but are unable to take action to change this reality. On the other hand, they sometimes do not even consider the necessity of such a change.

In "Feathers," Jack and Fran are living a futile and meaningless life until Bud and Olla's situation changes them. Of course, the action they take only makes their unhappiness even more obvious.

"Preservation" is a story about inaction. The husband is completely unable to confront problems and this in the story is illustrated by the image of the frozen man. He is frozen in his unhappiness.

Myers in "The Compartment" is a character who has taken the decision to lead a life isolated from others and consequently take no action whatsoever. The irony in this story is that the central character has no intention of changing the situation. On the contrary, he accepts everything as completely normal.

Part of the pain in "A Small, Good Thing" is the lack of action anyone can take to help Scotty. This feeds into the theme of tragedy – no matter what parents feel, they cannot do anything to help their son. It is this kind of surrender that connects them with the baker.

The same happens in the short story "Vitamins". The characters feel unhappy however, they don't take any action. There is talk of leaving for Portland but still nothing happens. Those rare actions taken such as the date between the narrator and Donna illustrate how unwilling they are to improve their lives.

In "Careful," Lloyd wants to be happier but seems unable to control his alcoholism. Something similar happens in the short story "Where I'm Calling From" in which alcoholism can be perceived as a problem of inaction. The narrator is afraid of being unable to control his drinking. However, near the story's end it seems that he tries to take some actions when he asks for a kiss from Roxy and then calls her his girlfriend.

In "The Train," Miss Dent has taken action. She wants to take revenge, by holding a gun on the man who has treated her badly. But that action is followed by passive waiting. She can't do anything until the train arrives.

In "Fever," Carlyle wants to take some action and find a babysitter but cannot do so. What he does brings no results, and he even has to rely on Eileen, considered by him as an antagonist, to help him. His epiphany comes from finally accepting his helplessness when he confesses how he feels to Mrs. Webster.

In "The Bridle," Marge is unable to take action to improve her life. She almost confronts Harley at the end, but in vain.

In "Cathedral," the epiphany comes when the narrator, a man who chooses to live in front of the TV ignoring the rest of his life, finally takes action to create something for himself. Robert, who is interested in travel and learning new things, leads the narrator to take action towards being a part of the greater world and consequently leaving behind his loneliness.

2.6 Detachment

Carver's characters are detached from themselves. They feel distant from their own identities.

In "The Ducks," the theme of detachment is crystal clear. The story is narrated in the third person by an unnamed narrator and from the beginning of the story the readers realize that Carver is using the landscape and the flight of the ducks (black explosion) to set the mood for the story. Another interesting thing about the opening passage of the story is that Carver is also using symbolism (and a foreshadowing device) to suggest to the reader the idea of a detachment. The main protagonist, an unnamed man is chopping (or splitting) wood. This is significant as it suggests a separation or detachment, Carver mirroring the splitting of the wood to the sense of detachment that the main protagonist feels when he reflects on his own life.

Carver uses symbolism in the opening passages of the story to suggest the idea of detachment (from self) and which also serves as another foreshadowing device. There is the blanket that has fallen from the clothes line. Again this is significant as it is not only separated from the other blankets on the clothes line but it is also detached from the clothes line.

In "Chef's House," the characters (especially Wes) deceive themselves by pretending they don't have the problems. They behave as though a change in house can help them to start a new life, but they fail to do so when they understand that such a change would bring nothing as long as they have to face themselves.

In "The Compartment," Myers is not certain if he wants to connect with his son. He has been living for a long time a lonely life and deep inside feels the longing to connect with a world that looks so far away from him. However, it seems that he is unable to bring such a change in his life perhaps because he has been living alone for such a long time that he is accustomed to that. He is at the point when he does not know exactly what he really wants.

In "A Small, Good Thing," the characters seem to have no connection with the tragedy, as if it has not happened to them but to other people. It takes a long time before they confront the reality. The final scene is very simple. Not only do they feel helpless but they also accept their fate so they stop trying to be different from who they really are.

In "Vitamins," Patti says "maybe I don't dream." This is true of anyone in the story. They seem to want different things but on the other hand they do nothing to achieve them. Time passes but nothing changes, and so does their depressing lives.

In "Cathedral," the narrator hides behind meanness when what he really wants is to be connected to something. He cannot understand his real problems until Robert leads him to first look inside himself and then finally to see how can he live in a kind of communion with the world.

2.7 Alcoholism

Alcoholism is a prevalent theme in Carver's work. It is a theme directly related to the personal life of the writer who suffered due to his father's alcoholism and then his own. In his stories a considerable number of characters are current or recovering alcoholics. All of their problems and themes can be traced to their alcoholism, either as a cause, symptom or symbol of the problem.

2.8 Communication

Another major theme in Carver's works is the problem of communication. Carver depicted the desperate life of white- and blue-collar workers, salesmen, waitresses and their inability to express themselves. Things are not clearly expressed and the conflicts are almost never resolved. What the reader has to do is to understand the meaning of the story through implications. The loneliness, the lack of connection etc., relate to the inability to express oneself. There are times when narrators lack the vocabulary to express their longing, as in "Feathers," "Where I'm Calling From," or "Cathedral." In other stories, characters need connection but are not able to express their thought.

His short story "Cathedral" is the best illustration of the theme. A story that depicts the encounter between an initially close-minded narrator and a free-thinking blind man. As the story unfolds, it becomes apparent that both characters need each other in order to evolve. It has an optimistic ending, it features a man who transcends his limitations not through words but rather through a silent communion. In the same way Robert 'sees' greater life despite his blindness, the drawing of the cathedral leads the narrator to say more to himself about what he needs, even if he can't put it into words.

In addition, in almost all his short stories there are characters who can't speak to one another. Fran and Jack lack the playful language that Bud and Olla share in "Feathers." Lloyd is unable to tell Inez how he feels in "Careful." Marge lacks the strength to say aloud to Betty that she needs a friend in "The Bride." It seems that in the majority of the stories, we can find illustrations of limitations on communication.

2.9 Light vs. dark

The theme of light and dark is reflected in the sight and blindness imagery which pervades "Cathedral." The blind man is revealed not as the one who lives in the dark but, paradoxically, in light. He sees the infinite possibilities which the husband, with his sight, with his light, cannot see. Indeed, he teaches the husband to close his eyes, feel and see with his senses and, draw. It is, thus, that when she walks in towards the end of the story, she finds them both on the floor, drawing a cathedral. That cathedral is a symbol of the light which the two men find together and whose essence the wife represents.

Carver doesn't hide life's miseries; but, he also recognizes the little things that lead to hope. What do you really think about when you consider love? Love isn't perfect for certain; but, real people have the most profound capacities to accept each

other's faults, recolonize weaknesses, and still forgive. Why is this? It's because deep down we know that none of us can escape making mistakes, we too. In this text, Carver implies several attributes which may lead to success in love: recognize everyone makes mistakes, the person we love must one day accept our flaws, forgiveness means loving us anyway.

2.10 Materialism, Appearance and Morality

In Carver's short story *Are These Actual Miles* can be noticed the theme of materialism, appearance and morality. The story begins with Leo and his wife Toni. They have to go to bankruptcy court on Monday and their lawyer has advised them to get rid of the car before the courts take it off them. Leo thinks that it'll be better if Toni goes and sells the car, that she'll be able to get more money for it. What is interesting about the situation is that while Toni is getting dressed and ready to go out and sell the car she asks Leo how she looks. This is significant because it is a sign that appearance is important to Leo and Toni, how they appear to the outside world. Leo has made sure that the kids don't see the family fall apart. He has sent them to live with his mother for a while. Again the idea of appearance, to give the impression that everything is all right. The reader also learns how materialistic Toni and Leo are. They had expensive holidays, spent thousands on luxury items they couldn't afford because Toni believes that since she didn't have things as a child, her own children weren't going to do without.

Toni rings to tell Leo how much she has gotten for the car (\$625) but more importantly she also tells Leo what the salesman thinks of people who are bankrupt. He has told Toni that he'd prefer to be classified as a robber or a rapist rather than a bankrupt. It is through the salesman's opinion that Carver affords the reader the opportunity to see how important the American Dream is to people, money and possessions holding more weight than morals. The car is also a symbol for the American Dream, its sale is of benefit to someone else, the dream can continue for another person.

2.11 Masculinity as Homophobia

Michael S. Kimmel in his essay "Masculinity as Homophobia"¹ states that in Carver's work, men receive their sense of manhood from other men, which leads to homophobia because the prevalent emotion is fear. Based on Freudian model, the child desires his father and relies on him for his own masculinity. This reliance causes fear and exaggerated masculinity and consequently homophobia which plays a large role in three of Carver's short stories: "They're not your husband," "So Much Water so Close to Home" and "Cathedral".

The idea that men establish their masculine identity by the gaze of other men is most present in the story "They're not Your Husband." Indeed, the trigger of the narrative is pulled when the main male character, Earl, overhears two men comment on how "fat" his wife is. Earl is unemployed, and his wife has taken a job as a waitress. One night when Earl is half drunk he visits the diner his wife works at, seeking a meal on the house. While sitting at the counter he hears two men chatting about his wife. One man comments, "Look at the ass on that. I don't believe it . . . some jokers like their quim fat". Wounded in his masculinity, Earl at that point becomes determined to regain it by imposing a diet on his wife.

In "So Much Water So Close to Home" the narrator, Claire, tells the story of her husband, Stuart, and his friends finding a dead naked girl on their fishing trip. Instead of immediately calling the authorities and risking an abrupt end to their getaway they go ahead and drink and fish for a few days, deciding to cut their weekend short by only one day instead of missing out on the whole thing. What keeps the men from reporting the dead woman is their collective desire to prove their masculinity to each other. No one wants to be the sissy who decides to cut the trip short. Had any women been around with the men, the chances that anyone would put their hook in the water would have been presumably slimmer. Indeed, when Stuart realizes the extent of Claire's outrage he tells her, "I won't have you passing judgment on me. Not you". This statement suggests Stuart is used to having others pass judgment on him, namely other men, but will not allow his wife, or perhaps any woman, the same luxury; it could also suggest that his wife's (a woman's) judgment counts little, or less than that of the men

2.12 Epiphany

¹ Kimmel, Michael S. "Masculinity as Homophobia: Fear, Shame, and Silence in the Construction of Gender Identity." *Feminism and Masculinities*. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2004: 182-99.

One last theme is the moment when characters have a sudden realization or epiphany. The epiphanic moments are present in Carver's works but the menace, as Gunter Leyboldt¹ calls it, is created because the characters are either unable to give voice to the epiphany or are incapable of comprehending it. Therefore, the question is whether they are able to learn from it. Conversely, another theme would be hope for personal growth, as the narrator in "Cathedral" seems to have an epiphany at the end when he realizes that he can communicate with the blind man and that doing so makes him feel very different and alive in many ways.

Conclusion

The study aimed to show that Carver has written stories categorised as part of Dirty realism which uses fictional techniques to shed light on the dirty unwritten (and often unspoken) truths that we individually and collectively censor from public dialog. Characters and settings are closely based on real people and places while the plots follow real-life sequences of events, which tend to be less linear and predictable than traditional forms of fiction. Language provides sufficient precision and depth to challenge our most learned elite but that is also accessible to the not so educated members of society. Grammar and style are strongly influenced by informal spoken language which is authentic and with minimal complexity.

With different arguments it was proved that Carver's fiction explores grief, loneliness, infidelity, insecurity and escape. He writes about people living a sad lifetime with problems such as drug and alcohol abuse, divorce. His style is characterized by a reduction of words and a focus on surface description. His characters are ordinary, unremarkable people, often with few resources and little money. They all live in the cities and the majority are workers, adulterers, alcoholics, women or ethnic minorities, people who experience estrangement, loneliness and disillusionment every single day of their lives. As a result, they have become tough, their dialogues are elliptical. The metropolitanism is gone to give way to the rural American and often inarticulate, unsophisticated protagonists. These working poor people have to sell their labour or even their bodies in order to survive and who might at any time lose everything, including the basic dignities that make human beings human. Carver's focus is on the simple ritual of everyday life by giving all his attention to the concrete and avoiding all possible abstractions. In his short stories he describes emotions, disappointments and relationships with simplicity and stoicism.

Carver's work is the narrative of the middle-class. It focuses on contemporary fashion, on our culture's obsession with looking good and being hip, on the trendiness of dance clubs and jeans and alcohol and drugs and sex and on our consumer society packed with brand names. Carver is the writer who believes that the reader can smell, see, and touch. Moreover, we find a narrative that believes in its own logic: in chronology, in plot, in psychology, in selfhood. This is the universe where content is privileged over form and where language is transparent.

Carver can be considered as the best representative of Dirty Realism, who explored all the themes typical of it and who had a huge influence on the next generation of writers. He was the one to bring into light the normal people, ordinary ones who inhabit his stories by clearly stating the reality of American people not the American dream that was promised to them. In his work we can find the humanistic writer that perfectly understood the "daily tragedies" of people and with a brilliant mastery depicted their lives not as they should have been but how they really were. If one enjoys reading about normal people in real life situations and not larger-than-life heroes then that one may find oneself in Carver's crude realism.

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¹ S. Koch, et al. "Throwing Dirt on the Grave of Minimalism." *Columbia: A Magazine of Poetry and Prose* 14 (1989): pp. 42-61.

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THE CRUCIAL ISSUES ABOUT THE LEGALIZATION LEGISLATION ON ILLEGAL CONSTRUCTIONS IN ALBANIA. WHAT CAN WE LEARN FROM THE BALCANIC EXPERIENCE?

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Abstract:

In the process of transition of the Balkan countries towards democracy, the strengthening of the "rule of law" is a key factor. The process of legalization in Albania is a clear indication that this transition has not been developed as it should have. In post-communist Albania, ranging from the 1990s to the present day the problem of illegal buildings remains a disturbing fact to which, no final solution has been found, yet. The solution that the Albanian government has given to the problem is the implementation of the system of Ownership Reform substantial part of which is the legalization of these buildings through a law of 'legalization', which makes legal, situations that were illegal up to that moment. This paper will aim to provide a solution to the question "The problems that have arisen during the legalization process in Albania. What can be done in the future by observing and taking into consideration the experience of countries with similar experiences?". Thus we will deal especially with the evaluation fact of defining how much coherent and pragmatic the policy of legalization has been and how much acceptable it is valued by all stakeholders involved in this process (unlicensed builders, former owners, state, third parties, and international actors. Which are the main obstacles that have slowed down the process of legalization up to now and how to remove or overcome them. In conclusion it will be emphasized the positive elements by European practices especially from Balkan countries, to be taken into account. By observing in comparative ways, there will be noticed that the legalization process is not only an Albanian phenomenon but has occurred in all post-communist countries due to the unconsolidated market of real property trade after 1990 and because of the fact that many properties continued to remain "without an owner", for a long time due to the excessive length of the process of restitution of property to former owners. In conclusion, it can be said that in the future, only a well developed - 20-year vision territory planning policy, would contribute to the elimination of the phenomenon of informal constructions, which are a blocked asset not only to their builders but to the Albanian society as well.

Keywords: Process of legalization; Albania ; Balkan countries; ownership reforms; legalization legislation; illegal constructions.

Introduction

Since 1991, when Albania's democratic system was set up and up to 2014 on average it is estimated that 400,000 buildings were built without permit, a very large figure considering the population of only about 3 million people. This phenomenon is visibly widespread in all the Western Balkans countries. Being mainly developing countries, in the Balkans property rights have been very uncertain, and as De Soto noted: "property rights to land and dwellings in developing nations are notoriously insecure, a fact that has helped impoverish the citizens of those nations." (Benjamin, 2008) The widespread phenomenon of illegal buildings forced the governments of these countries to undertake the temporary legalization process. Legalization is simultaneously a consequence of a weak democracy and lack of law enforcement, but at the same time is also a necessity for a system of governance for the benefit of the citizens and an advanced economy. When people do not have a clear concept of law and the violation of the law becomes a rule, then state intervention is vital for any society because as Niebuhr R said "Man's capacity for justice makes democracy possible, but man's inclination to injustice makes democracy necessary." The most important initiative in the Balkan countries regarding the legalization process was the signing in Vienna on September 20, 2004 of the "Vienna Declaration on Informal Settlements in South Eastern Europe", from four countries (Albania, Macedonia, Montenegro, Serbia) and on 17.03.2005 by Kosovo. The focus of this statement was: "to commonly agree on actions that will regularize (legalize) and improve informal settlements in a sustainable way

and will prevent future illegal settlements." The signature of this statement has been very important and decisive in accelerating the process of legalization in the Balkans.

The essence of the process of legalization is: "To make legal or lawful; to confirm or validate what was before void or unlawful."¹ Legalization of illegal buildings "refers to the legal regulation of individual buildings or entire settlements considered "illegal" by the local authorities" (BPRI, 2014). Illegal buildings are buildings built on land legally owned by the builder or on the land of a third party, without planning permission or in excess thereof. Besides illegal isolated buildings, another phenomenon is entire settlements of illegal buildings which are a result of informal development. The latter is a social phenomenon deficient in legal form "Where people settle on land that may be owned by others or the state and build dwellings - usually sub-standard and temporary in nature. Informal development may even appear on legally owned land while it's illegality is related to zoning, planning, or building regulations." (Potsiou, 2012)

A result of informal development are informal settlements which, according to the Vienna Declaration, point 2 are "Human settlements, which for a variety of reasons do not meet requirements for legal recognition (and have been constructed without respecting formal procedure of legal ownership, transfer of ownership as well as construction and urban planning regulations), exist in their respective countries and hamper economic development." Legalization is crucial for a society because it serves "to incorporate these structures into the social, economic and physical (infrastructure and services) fabric of the surrounding city and society." (BPRI, 2014)

Causes of illegal buildings in Albania.

Firstly, legalization is generally due to the overall informality of a society. On its turn this informality is due to the incapability of the state to manage its territory, for the proper administration of land and to make the law applicable by all. Secondly, displacement of population and the urbanization process. "During the 1990s, as much as one third of the population of rural (mostly northern, mountainous) regions migrated to urban, peri-urban, and coastal areas in search of income generation opportunities, despite the lack of adequate housing infrastructure or public service provision." (WB, 2012). Freedom of housing and the right to move are negative freedoms, which implies the state must not interfere in the exercise of that right, but the intervention of the state during transition periods (not limiting the right to move but through helping the population and better managing the situation) affects more positively than a completely indifferent attitude, as actually happened in Albania after 1991. Thirdly, the need for better houses. During communism the majority of the population in cities lived in apartments in average 50 m², where a family with 4-5 members lived. These dwellings were owned by the state and were rented for little money to residents. These flats were privatized, becoming a property of the inhabitants only in 1992 with the Law "On privatization of public housing units." Unfortunately, since then up to now a negative phenomenon has been noticed. A large number of illegal extensions have been built, this as a demonstration of the need for larger residence space. Fourthly, prolonged procedures to obtain building permits. The building permit is the main document to enable the construction of a building within the rules. During the years 1998-2009 (just the period when the majority of the illegal buildings were built) the law "On urban planning" was in power and it, was it stipulated in Article 45: "Every natural or legal person, domestic or foreign, that will build on the territory of the Republic of Albania should be provided with building permit. This is the only legal document on the basis of which is permitted to construct." But corruption, complicated procedures and prolonged deadlines make it difficult to obtain a construction permit. According to BEEPS 2study of 2008 "29% of firms said that informal payments were expected for construction permits, the highest for any business process in Albania; 3 times higher than SEE average." (Rontonyanni, 2011). Also as Doing Business survey in 2011 highlighted, Albania is the last in among all Balkan countries concerning the number of days it takes to get a building permit. It takes 331 days (approximately 11 months) in Albania, compared to 169 days in 146 days in Greece and Macedonia, in Montenegro 230 days and 279 days in Serbia. The procedures to obtain building permits are also quite complicated. In the study of Doing Business 2013, "Albania is the only country in SEE that does not have a clear practice on getting a construction permit" (Rama, 2013). Fifthly, there is a lack of state policies on preventing illegal constructions, especially in urban areas, where preliminary screening may be more effective. The principle that "An ounce of prevention is worth a pound of cure." applies in this case too. Legalization or demolition of illegal buildings is a pragmatic solution, but their prevention is the best solution and with the lowest cost. "Experience shows, legalization, penalties and even demolition has not completely stopped informal development." (Un-Habitat, 2010) Sixthly, the overlong process of restitution of property

¹www.thelawdictionary.org/legalize

² Business Environment and Enterprise Performance Survey

to former owners, expropriated during the communist regime. This process began in 1993 and was scheduled to finish in May 2014, but has been postponed again until 30 April 2015. Due to the excessive length of this process for years it is not defined the ownership of the land of former owners, indirectly fueling the construction over them of illegal buildings from former owners who claim ownership or third persons. Restitution and compensation process affects the process of legalization. If the former owner of the property has been physically compensated or his land has been restituted before the start of the process of legalization, he is considered a legitimate owner. If the process of legalization begins, it should be terminated until a solution to the conflict in court between the former owner and illegal builder. On the other hand the process of legalization affects the conclusion of the return and compensation process. If a decision, whether the property will be returned physically or will be compensated, hasn't been made and meanwhile the process of legalization of illegal building built on his property has begun, the process of return/compensation should be suspended. There can't be made a physical return of the property to the former owner, if the legal deadline foreseen in the Law on Legalization hasn't terminated. The judicial cases at Albanian law courts with "property disputes" object, especially between former owners and their squatters should be treated with priority by the Albanian state. This is a demand repeated by foreign authorities. "The Courts have not been successful in resolving property disputes or enforcing property rights, potentially damaging Albania's EU integration prospects. Property disputes represent a large share of court caseloads and citizen complaints to the People's Advocate, but enforcement of court decisions in these matters remains problematic." (WB, 2012). This prolongation has led to lower investments from foreign countries. "A survey conducted in 2008 as part of the World Bank's Investment Climate Assessment found that insecure property rights and access to land were considered to be severe or very severe obstacles by over 20 Percent of firms respectively. (WB, 2012). Seventhly, housing policy for vulnerable populations (especially Rome minorities) have been missed or have not been effective after 1990.

Regarding the importance of the process of legalization, firstly it has a great importance for the economy. "Legalization has the potential to convert this dead capital into useful capital, workable capital that can make its way into the formal system." (WB, 2012). In 2010, in Albania it was estimated that there were about "400, 000 structures covering an area of 300, 000 ha, at € 10 billion." This is an enormous amount taking into consideration that the official GDP of Albania for 2011 is \$ 27.78 billion². It is clear that legalization is connected with immovable property and buildings, which constitute an essential element of the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) of a country. As "UNECE" estimates that: "at least 20 percent of the Gross Domestic Product of most nations comes from land, property, and construction." (Montealegre, 2010). Through this process, tax revenues are increased and illegal buildings are transformed into exploitable capital. For example, in Macedonia there wasn't in power a legalization law until 2011, when "Law on the Treatment of Unlawful Constructions" was passed, by the explicit declaration stated by the Macedonian government that: "The legalization process was launched in order to raise government income from property taxes." (BPRI, 2014)

Only through the process of legalization, illegal buildings can be sold and bought freely, to be mortgaged, or can be divided. Albanian Supreme Court (SCA) in the Unifying Decision No. 1, dated 24.03.2004 states that: "real estate items of whatever nature they are, land surface, the extensions of buildings with or without permission of the competent authority, on the ground registered or not , if they themselves are not registered in the records of RERO4 , should not be subject to judicial division, otherwise with it's decision the court would legalize illegal and unfair actions of the parties in the trial. "

Secondly, it is laid before Albania as an obligation to secure EU membership. Informal Settlements constitute in Albania "one quarter of the population and 40% of the built up area of major cities" (Montealegre, 2010). As stated in the Vienna Declaration, point VI: "The urban, social and economical integration of informal settlements within the overall city structure will be a key factor in preparing for accession to the EU." European Union has consistently raised during the years before the Albanian government the issue to develop a comprehensive strategy in this area: "the opinion of the European Commission on Albania's application for opening accession negotiations includes the adoption of a strategy and action plan on property rights, which should cover the restitution / compensation and legalization processes, among the key priorities which Albania will need to address prior to opening accession negotiations." (European Commission, 2010) As the World Bank states: "Resolving property disputes and enforcing property rights through the courts has been problematic, damaging Albania's reputation with regard to the rule of law and affecting the Albania's EU integration process." (WB, 2012).

Thirdly, it is the best alternative facing other opportunities, such as the collapse of the illegal buildings. The demolition of illegal buildings would bring a greater cost to society in general. "In Croatia 1, 600 buildings were torn down in the period

¹ footnote-Law no. 9583, dt. 17.06.7.2006 "Article 28/1" For the real estate, on which unlawful objects have been set up by the third parties, physical return can't be applied without the completion of legal term provided on the law of legalization ..Upon completion of the prescribed legal term for the process of legalization, there will be applied, where possible, physical return of real property, while the rest will be compensated. "

² www.cia.gov

³ United Nations Economic Commission for Europe

⁴ Real Estate Registry Office

2004-2007. However, this is an unusual case in democracies, creating major social and political problem, and is not an example of good practice, and is not recommended." (Potsiou, 2012). Especially for the economy, the collapse would bring huge losses in Albania because "It is estimated that approximately 6 to 8 billion USD has been invested in informal development construction in Albania, and that 40, 000 hectares of land is occupied either informally or illegally." (Un-Habitat, 2010)

Slowdown factors of the legalization process in Albania.

The legalization process has moved very slowly in Albania. "the latest data show that from 293, 000 applications presented, only 22, 000 applications were completed, leaving hanging a whole category of citizens who have respected administrative procedures and have declared their buildings, but have not yet received an official response on their applications" (AO, 2014). According to official data of the Ministry of Justice as well, legalization has proceeded slowly "the agency has implemented administrative procedures for about 80% of buildings built before the 2006. Legalization permits are granted for 52'000 properties. About 100, 000 informal properties were in the preparation process for technical and legal documentation." (CMD Nr.405, 2012)

There is no doubt that the corruption of the administration is a major inhibiting factor. "Corruption remains a particularly serious problem and is prevalent in many areas, including law enforcement institutions. There are still serious gaps, e.g. in monitoring local government corruption." (European Commission, 2013) Corruption has really slowed the process. "The difficulties in implementing the entire legalization process have been reinforced by a lack of political stability. Widespread corruption represents a serious obstacle in this regard." (BPRI, 2014)

Also, an inhibitory factor was the overlong process of restitution of property. The failure to pay the value of the construction plot by the illegal builder is another decisive impeding factor. "However, legalization has not been completed for about 90, 000 properties, because the process requires repayment of financial obligations by the holders of informal settlements." (CMD Nr.405, 2012)

A slowdown factor has been also the lack of thorough studies which should apprehend distinguishing features of the Albanian reality. The legalization legislation should be more appropriate for the Albanian society. Even though in 2006 the Albanian government adopted an action plan for legalization², this decision does not set a fixed date when the legalization process was supposed to finish. For the first time the "Reform in the area of property rights 2012-2020" 3 2013 was set as the deadline for completing the legalization process. This term not only wasn't achieved but there are still several years ahead to fully complete the process .

In the face of this situation, the EU⁴ has raised before the Albanian government to develop a strategy with regard to property rights in general, and particularly in relation to legalization. "The opinion of the European Commission (EC) on Albania's application for opening accession negotiations includes the adoption of a strategy and action plan on property rights, which should cover the restitution/compensation and legalization processes, among the key priorities Albania will need to address prior to opening accession negotiations. (EC, 2010). Seeing that there was a concrete solution, the EC presented the 2013 "Roadmap for 5 priorities for 2013", where one of the main priorities was to analyze the legislation for ownership within April to June 2014. Given the fact that the legalization process is crucial for the integration of Albania into the EU, especially after the Foreign Ministers Council of EU approved the granting of candidate status to Albania in June 24, 2014. "Major and systematic efforts are needed to address persisting problems in the area of property rights. Property restitution, compensation and illegal construction are issues that need to be tackled." (EC, 2013) Legal initiatives undertaken by the Albanian state concerning legalization process.

The solution the Albanian government initially gave to the illegal constructions problem was the silence, ignoring the problem and not undertaking any legal initiative. From 31 March 1991, when the first multiparty elections were held in Albania and until 2004 there was no serious attempt by the Albanian government to address the problem of illegal buildings. The silence of the authorities indirectly encouraged the increase of these buildings, which were "invisible" to the economy of the country. In order to give a solution to the problem, the Albanian parliament adopted initially the Law No. 9209, dated 23.03.2004 "On the legalization of extensions to the buildings" that had as a target the legalization of illegal additives in

¹ Agency for Legalization, Urbanization and Integration of Informal Areas

² CMD (Council of Ministers Decision) Nr. 397, date 21.6.2006

³ CMD Nr. 405, date 27.6.2012

⁴ European Union

unfinished construction and completed constructions raised before the entry into force of the law. Secondly the Law no. 9404 of October 29, 2004, "On legalization and Urban Planning of Informal Zones." Its object was the legalization of illegal buildings in informal settlements (established before the entry into force of this Act) and the urbanization of these areas. Thirdly the Law No. 9482, dt.03.04.2006 "On legalization, urbanization and integration of illegal buildings." which unified in a single law the legalization of illegal buildings in formal and informal areas and unauthorized extensions in buildings constructed with a construction permit, raised prior to the entry into force of the law. The reason for adopting this law was the lack of success achieved by the two previous laws because of the lack of a serious commitment to its implementation and failing to compile a feasibility study to make the law effective based on the peculiar features of Albanian society. As the World Bank affirms, the laws passed in 2004 "had limited success due to insufficient resources and expertise at the local government level." (WB, 2012)

Summarizing the characteristics of the legalization process in Albania we can conclude firstly that in all the adopted laws the legalizing process was initiated according to the claim of the person that had built without permit, within a limited period from the entry into force of the law. Furthermore according to the three Laws the process is under the responsibility of the local authorities. ALUIZNI was created in 2006 (Agency for legalization Urbanization and Integration of Informal Zones and buildings), which is a public legal person subordinate to the Minister of Transport and Infrastructure. This institution will accept the pleas and will manage the process of legalization and will issue the legalization permit at the end of the process. But it won't remove the competences of the local authorities in this process. Under these laws the consequences if the claim wasn't made within the term, if a false declaration was made or if the person failed to complete the technical and legal documentation were the exclusion from the legalization process and demolition of the building.

It is worth the survey more thoroughly the most important concerning the legalization procedures, the Law 9482/2006. This law addresses these three main processes: First: The process of legalization that aims to make illegal builders, owner of the building build without permission and of the land underneath the building. This law classifies illegal constructions depending on the type of property on which they were built (a) Constructions on the property of the builder (b) Construction on the property of a third person. (C) Construction on the state property. The greatest number of illegal buildings are built on third party property: "According to ALUIZNI data, 29 percent of the identified illegal constructions were built on land belonging to the owner, 24 percent on state land, and 35 percent on land owned by another person; information was unavailable for 12 percent of cases." (WB, 2012) Secondly: The process of the transfer of the ownership of the building plot, and "expropriation" and compensation of the owner of the building plot whereon the illegal building is constructed, in the case when the land on which the building is built belongs to a third party. Albania's Constitutional Court (CC) stated in its decision No. 35, dated 10.10.2007 that: "Although the law (legalization law) does not mention the term "expropriation" and does not provide a formal expropriation procedure, the persons registered in the Register of Immovable Property (RIP) and compensated because of the registration of the owners of illegal buildings, will be called de facto and de jure dispossessed. "This expropriation is done in the public interest, which in this case aims at legalization, urbanization of informal settlements and their integration in the infrastructure of the entire territory¹. As the ECHR² states in the decision "Former King of Greece vs Greece", dt.23.11.2000: "the notion of public interest should be understood broadly, especially in connection with decisions to issue laws on expropriation, which take into account political, economic and social motives." The legalization motives are economic and social and related to the interest of all the society. The third process is the urbanization and infrastructure construction of informal settlements. This urbanization will be funded through the state budget. Sustainable urban management, means under paragraph IV of the Vienna Declaration (VD) that "Informal settlements be integrated in the social and economic, spatial/physical and legal framework, particularly at the local level." Not only urbanization but the whole legalization process is under the responsibility of local authorities. Albania's Constitutional Court (CC) affirms in the decision Nr.3/2009 that: "Urban planning and land management are full and exclusive powers of the local authorities and are included in the legal concept" its assignment", according to which via the freedom and authority to give decisions, they are responsible for their implementation. Urban planning is described as a technical and political process that has to do with people's welfare, control and use of land, the design of the urban environment, as well as protecting and enriching the natural environment. The Court specifies that are specifically the local government bodies administrators of the territory under their jurisdiction. The Court considers that, including any decision or action, that has impact and implies land use and urban composition, in the area of "urban planning" and "land management", it isn't left out of this concept the legalization process of informal areas and buildings "

¹ Article 41 of the Albanian Constitution 1998: "1. The right of private property is guaranteed; 4. Expropriations or limitations of property rights, equivalent to expropriation, are permitted only against just compensation. 5. For disputes over the amount of compensation may be appealed in court. "

² Supreme Court decision, nr.179, dt.19.04.2011 www.gjykataelarte.gov.al/

Trial Practice in Albania regarding the legalization process.

At the prolonged processes of restitution of property and legalization process we can find one of the main reasons of the weak economic development of Albania for the period 1992-2014. "When property rights are secure, people can spend their time creating wealth rather than defending it." (Benjamin, 2008).

Some of the main problematic issues regarding the legalization process that were observed by the practice of the First Instance Court in Tirana and the Supreme Court of Albania(SC) concerning the legalization process are: Firstly, the closing moment of the legalization process is the instant when the applicant obtains the legalization permit. The legalization process can't be considered complete, even if the applicant has paid the value of the construction lot. According to the Law on Legalization if the owner of the construction lot files a suit for claiming his property in the Court against the illegal construction builder, the legalization process should be suspended. The allegation of the unlawful possessor that the recovery claim must be dismissed because it was filed after the moment when the illegal builder has paid the value of the land and undersigned the "contract of sale with reservation of property" is not accepted by the Court. The Albanian Supreme Court (SC) Decision nr.274, dt.23.04.2013 asserts that "it turns out that the respondent is not yet equipped with the legalization permit which constitutes the final document which closes the legalization procedure and legitimizes the subject to record the construction in the Register of Immovable Property. "

Secondly, the legalization process should be suspended in the case of a conflict over land ownership: (a) In the case the owner proceeded with a recovery claim, whose property is occupied by illegal constructions, involved in the process of legalization, the issue is not must be drawn out of the judicial jurisdiction, but must be explored by the court. In the decision Nr.168, dt.6.03.2008 Supreme Court (SC) affirms that: "the law" On Legalization "can't stop the hearing of the ownership disputes in court. It is the duty of The Court to assess whether the plaintiffs are owners of the land they claim to be returned and if the defendants are lawful possessor thereof. "(B) The same reasoning as above was followed by the Court in cases where the third person sues negative indictment, claiming the violation of joint public facilities by the illegal building and requires suspension of the process of legalization."Plaintiff seeks judicially from ALUIZNI, the suspension of the legalizing process of the illegal construction carried out by his neighbor, as he claims this construction prevents the use of the common driveway crossing, especially in an fire emergency. The plaintiff has the right to address ALUIZNI as the competent institution in the legalization of illegal constructions, in order to protect its legitimate interests that may be affected by the decisions of this body and has the right to require a decision in favor of these interests, but the lack of exhaustion of such a road does not prevent the claimant to petition the court with the same search. "(C) Suspension of the legalization process is done even when a third person who pretends the ownership of the construction parcel files for "inheritance claim suit"¹ (d) The owner, who alleges violation of his right, may raise in same trial a civil and administrative lawsuit simultaneously. The Supreme Court's decision nr.274, dt.23.04.2013 asserts that: "The owner can raise simultaneously in the same trial a denial claim (suing the illegal constructor) but also administrative lawsuit (by suing ALUIZNI) for opposing the administrative actions taken during the process of legalization. So simultaneously with the civil court process can also be considered an administrative process of reviewing the legality of administrative procedure, suspending the administrative process."(e) With regard to resolving the civil cases in which the owner of the land sues the illegal builder (where the latter claims that the building is in the process of legalization) the Supreme Court stated in Decision no.113, dt.12.02.2013 that part of the land on which no building is built should be returned to the owner. While the land on which the building without permission was constructed and the functional surface of the building, are not returned to the owner. "The court determines that it belongs to ALUIZNI to consider the request of the defendant and if the illegal building isn't legalized, at the end of legalization process its construction should be brought down and the land returned to the owner or if the defendant's building is legalized land owner (plaintiff) must be compensated."

Thirdly, it is a common phenomenon the self-declaration of people who have not actually built the building, or not including all persons who have contributed to the construction. In these cases the persons claiming to be contributors in the construction have forced ALUIZNI by Court Decision to recognize them co-owners of the building, and the self-declaration was found partially invalid by the Court. SC in the Decision Nr.391 Civil College, dt.18.09.2008, states: "In the case object of this judgment, the plaintiff has sought judicially to be recognized as null a document with legal consequences for her. This document is the self-declaration made before the defendant ALUIZNI by petitioner's former brother in law, pretending that the unauthorized construction was constructed by him. For this declaration the plaintiff claims that is partially null, bringing legal consequences in the exercise of the right to legalization. Plaintiff also seeks to restore the violated right

¹ Supreme Court Decision, nr.434, date. 11.10.2011.

for a self-declaration on her honor, hereupon the legalization of the house object to judgment. Claims with a legal reason as above are classic civil suits and are examined by court jurisdiction. "

Fourth, because of the spread of illegal buildings in a large extent, the Albanian Parliament for the first time added in 2008 to the Criminal Code, the offense "illegal construction". The added article 199/a predicts that "the illegal construction of a building on its own land is punishable by fine or imprisonment up to one year. The same act committed in public or state land or the land of another, shall be punished with imprisonment from one to five years. "We see that in the first paragraph it is a criminal offense while building on the land of another is a crime. 1 A serious problem present the cases where criminal charges are filed by the prosecution for the criminal offense mentioned above, while the building was in the process of legalization. So there is a need for more cooperation between all state institutions so that the process of legalizing not only to be as fast but cost much lower for all subjects participating in it.

Fifth, the decision to grant the legalization permit is an administrative act, for this reason after the legalization procedure ends, this decision can be appealed to court, by the unlawful occupier and the expropriated owner. 2

Sixthly, during the course of the legalization process the state should carry out a full check on buildings build without permission. The illegal occupier of the building should not be allowed to demolish the building for which he has applied and to construct a brand new building over the former one. In the decision of the First Instance Court of Tirana, Nr.329 dated. 26/02/2014, we find such a situation: "The defendant is resident displaced from Kukes to Paskuqan in Tirana district, since 1992. In 1993, he built a one-storey house with an area of about 130 square meter, in an area that belonged to the state. On 08.11.2006, the house was entered in the legalization process. In this building, the defendant resided until February 2013. Since it had become uninhabitable and risked his own life and that of his family, he has demolished it without proper permit and began constructing a new house. The new facility was being built by the defendant in the same area where the old building had been built and which is freely used by him for a period of about 20 years. "In this decision the defendant was found guilty of illegal construction, followed by high financial costs for the state and for the illegal builder: (1) from year 2006 to 2013 the state has invested in the legalization procedure of the first building which was destroyed by the owner of the building, due to the lack of control by the state, (2) cost of the fine that was paid by this subject (in this case around 2500 euro), (3) there is the possibility that the second building and that he constructed can be torn down by the authorities.

In the seventh, the prolonged process of legalization leads to the emergence of an informal market, where builders of illegal constructions due to the inability to sell the property through the procedure that law requires, sell the building through written agreements between them, without notarial act. 3

The eighth, according to the law and the very essence of the legalization process, it isn't recognised the right of reinstatement of the term to apply for legalization by the physical and legal person who has not been able to submit the application within the period of self-declaration assigned by the law. The SC Decision Nr.1478, dt.26.12.2007, asserts that: "the applicant society" X "(limited liability company), which scope of activity is in the construction field has been given permission for the construction of an object, but this company has built several more floors than it was allowed. With the emergence of Law nr.9209/2004 the applicant was entitled with the right that, within a time limit specified in this law, to request and submit the necessary documentation to legalize the additional surfaces ..Under any provision of the law it isn't provided the competence of the court to reinstate the term to apply for legalization. In these conditions, we are in front of a case that should not have been presented to the court, equivalent to a claim that can't be submitted. "

Ninth, it is noted that the Court has recognized the right of one of the co-owners to divide the common parcel even if there is built over this land an illegal construction by some of the co-owners, and this building is under the legalization process. The SC concluded in Decision no 430, dt.10.12.2009, that the trial for the division of the land should continue and the case is under the judicial jurisdiction and not under the administrative one, although the building built on the land is under the legalization process.

¹⁴ The number of criminal cases relating to charges of committing illegal construction "in the District Court of Tirana remains low. In 2010-6 issue / issues 2011-8 / 2012-5 issues/2013-3 issues. For 2014 there were reviewed 19 issues, of which 11 were punishment decisions.

<http://www.gjyk.al/tirana.gov.al/>

² With regard to the right of the owner of the land, expropriated during the legalization process, to appeal the decision of ALUIZNI, the Albanian Constitutional Court affirms in the decision Nr.35. Dt.10.10.2007: "In Article 18 of the Administrative Procedure Code it is provided that in order to protect the constitutional and legal rights of private persons, the administrative activity should be under audit by the courts, in accordance with the provisions of the Civil Procedure Code. This means that the relevant decisions of ALUIZNI can be appealed in court. The right to appeal in court is a constitutional right that is sanctioned by Article 43 of the Constitution, so as long as according to Article 4/3 of the Constitution, its provisions are directly applicable, although the law has not explicitly accepted, not denying the individual right to appeal in court for any aspect of the law, which may arise disputes between interested persons." www.gjyk.gov.al/

³Decision of Tirana District Court, Nr.300, dt. 24/02/2014

Legalization Process in Balkan Countries

Generally speaking the dwellings built without permit in Albania, as in all countries of the Western Balkans, are buildings in a good quality and very good living conditions. "In many cases illegal construction in Europe is well built and can be considered as "affordable housing" rather than as "slums."(Un-Habitat, 2010). The main causes of illegal buildings in the western Balkan countries are different. "In Albania, for instance, the largest number of informal settlements occurred in the 1990s after the previous system collapsed; in Republika Srpska, and specifically in Prijedor, they have emerged as a result of the war, and in Macedonia the informal settlements were largely a result of the village-town migration during the 1970s."(NALAS, 2009) The legalization problem is serious across the Balkans and the figures are alarming "nearly 780, 000 structures await legalization in Serbia, 1 million in Greece, 200, 000 in both Croatia and Bosnia and Herzegovina (BiH) and 100, 000 in Montenegro."¹

But what is common for all of the states is their government's attempt to give a final solution to this problem. This is noticed in the legislation passed in 2011 in Macedonia and Croatia, Kosovo adopted the law on legalization in 2013 and Montenegro in 2012. Further on we will dissect some Balkan countries specifying their similarities and differences to and between our country.

Let's take Greece first. The beginnings of the informal structures are ancient, since the end of World War the Second."There was a lack of affordable housing, and general social and economic conditions in Greece were bad. Between 1945 and 1966 an estimated 380, 000 informal houses were built around Athens and Thessaloniki. This is called the "first generation of informal settlements." (UN- Habitat- 2010) The first step of legalization was undertaken in 1956 by legalizing all the illegal buildings existing when "The revised General Building Code legalized." was passed. Although since 1956 several initiatives regarding the legalization legislation, yet in 2014 the illegal buildings are a problem for the Greek state. Just like in our country, "Many informal developments in unplanned areas are of reasonably good quality."(UN-Habitat, 2010). Also Greece is making serious studies and is reviewing the legal framework for the process of legalization. But still there isn't full co-operation and the administration has many difficulties in implementing in practice this process. " A cadastre is crucial for monitoring the development of informal settlements. Low political commitment and administrative capacity are obstacles."(Montealegre, 2010)

Unlike Albania, legalization is a very complicated process "The planning laws and regulations are not clear to the citizens who must hire professionals to support the process." (UN-Habitat, 2010) For many years the Greek government left the legalization process treatment in the shadow." Only in 2008, in an effort to improve real estate market due to EU harmonization framework, the government started investigating procedures to legalize the planning and building violations (permit exceeds) that exist in the planned areas (like the build-up of semi-open areas of the buildings)."(Potsiou, 2012) Unlike the Albanian practice, legalization is estimated to last at least 30 years "Law allows the formalization of planning and building informalities, only for a period of 30 years. Within the 30 year period that those properties will be formalized in the non-planned areas, local authorities are expected to proceed with the compilation and implementation of the necessary city plans, otherwise owners of such properties will be asked to pay extremely high penalties in order to "buy" the necessary land and formalize again.(Potsiou&Boulaka, 2012).

Legalization process costs are higher in Greece than in Albania." A rough analysis of the declared informal buildings shows that the majority of those declared are commercial constructions and a few expensive informal residences. This proves that so far only the wealthy owners declare their informal properties. However, the majority of the Greek owners of informal buildings cannot afford to pay fees due to severe salary reductions, increased prices, and increased income and property taxes." (Potsiou & Boulaka, 2012) In Albania, the properties are registered after the legalization process finishes. Whereas in Greece, legalization is a very lengthy process and the registration of land, on which the illegal construction was built, is done before the legalization process. This is done for the purpose of having the allotment free in the civil circulation.

Regarding Bosnia-Herzegovina, as all Balkan countries, this state is facing the problem of illegal buildings "Between 200, 000 to 400, 000 illegal structures, inhabited by up to 1.2 million. (Montealegre, 2010) Just as in Albania, in Bosnia the process of restitution of property has hampered the implementation of the legalization process. "The focus on return of property and the related application, hearing, decision, and execution process makes it difficult to establish title to many parcels, and execution of decisions by municipal governments has been slow." (USAID, 2007). The process of legalization is dependent on the fact that who is the owner of the land on which the building was constructed. The legalization process,

¹ <http://www.setimes.com>

is seen as a competence of local government bodies, which have the primary responsibility for this process. "Towns and municipalities are introducing urban plans to regulate the presence of buildings that were illegally built. If a building is allowed to remain according to the urban plan, there is a procedure for legalizing it." (BPRI, 2014). Also it is provided the offense "illegal construction" as an attempt to stop and prevent illegal constructions. "Today, new regulations criminalize informal buildings, and a program for demolishing illegal buildings is in place." (BPRI, 33) Unlike Albania, the main causes of illegal buildings have been socio-historical conditions in which Bosnia has been found: "There is also an existence of partially illegal settlements that have established themselves with the migration of large groups of people as a consequence of war (NALAS, 2009).

In the completion of the legalization process, an inhibiting factor has been the lack of ownership Registers, damaged during the war. "BiH has had a framework in place for land titling and registration since the 1930s, implemented by the Austrians. Although land registers exist across BiH unbeatable 30 Percent of the registers were destroyed in World War II and many were not replaced." (USAID 2007).

We can see that the unlawful buildings are quite problematic even in the newest state of the Balkans, Kosovo. There has been no special law to treat the unlawful constructions issue up to 2013. Indirectly this has stimulated the increase in number of such buildings. The figures are alarming. "It was difficult for municipalities to manage this situation and as a result it has been (unofficially) estimated that the proportion of new buildings without a building permit could be as high as 50%." (WB Kosovo, 2013) Up to 2013, it was the duty of the local government to identify and give a solution to the unlawful buildings. "Due to the lack of such a law, several municipalities over the past few years have adopted local regulations on the legalization of informal buildings. Owners who can prove land ownership and meet safety standards can apply for the legalization of their buildings" (BPRI, 2014) Only according to the new Law "On the treatment of illegal buildings" in 2013 it is finally foreseen a unique treatment in the entire territory. Every building set up before 30 August 2013 will be legalized, but it isn't estimated the social and economic cost of the buildings that were built after this date or that are still in process of construction. Efforts should be made not to make the same mistakes as the other states of the Balkan have. The latter, have postponed the legalization term many times. The new law that was approved will be in power only for 3 years from the moment it was passed. This is different from our country where differently where legalization law has no deadline for legalization, but it is the government which based on the recommendations of the European Commission, sets deadlines for this process. The adoption of a law with a strict term can be seen as an attempt to speed up the process. It will be seen with the passing of time how fruitful this will be.

As far as Macedonia is concerned, only in February 2011, in the Parliament, "the Law on the Treatment of Unlawful Constructions", was passed. It will be in operation for a 5 year period. Until this moment, informal settlements were considered as illegal, and should be demolished by the authorities. The number of self-declarations of 353.800 made within 6 months from the entry into force of the law shows the gravity of the situation.

The main cause of illegal buildings has been the population shift towards urban centers and conflicts in neighboring states. It is noted that there are more illegal buildings even after the adoption of the law and the process of legalization is proceeding slowly. The Legalization law was drafted having as the main focus the vulnerable groups "The goal was to create simple and short procedures and at the same time to make as attractive as possible to the citizens. That is an example of good practice." (Potsiou, 2012) Even the people who receive social assistance will not pay any fee for this process. The legalization process is very decentralized but central authorities carry out frequent checks on the way the local authorities are operating "Given the high degree of decentralization in the implementation of the law, the Ministry of Communication and Transport imposes strict deadlines and demands quarterly reports on progress in the legalization from each municipality." (BPRI, 2014). This practice should be followed by Albania facilitating sharply the control of this process and will boost its acceleration.

Even in Serbia the phenomenon of illegal buildings is widespread. "About 1 million illegal units nationally, approximately 500, 000 in the Belgrade metropolitan region." (Montealegre, 2010) But the process of legalization has been even slower because of the situation in which the system of properties administration system is found. "Property rights and land administration in Serbia are under stress, owing to the country's dynamic and turbulent history." (USAID 2007) Just as in Albania, the main cause of illegal buildings has been urbanization and unplanned displacement of population from rural regions. "the large number of illegal settlements in the countries of former Yugoslavia were constructed in the 1970s when the process of industrialization caused mass migrational movements from the villages to the towns." (NALAS, 2009) Just like our country the legalization process has not been efficient because while this process continues, there continue to be constructed buildings without permits. This is the reason the self-declaration deadline has been postponed several times. "The new law adopted on 31 October 2013 provides a 90-day deadline to submit self-declarations. But this has hindered

the application procedures requiring more detailed documentations from applicants. "The previous law required more limited technical documentation in the form of photos and an expert's technical report about the structure's condition, whereas the Owners must now submit a full project for the constructed building, which must be certified by an architect." (BPRI, 2014)

Finally, regarding Montenegro, being a country that has gained independence from Serbia only 8 years ago, through the referendum of 21 May 2006, his process of legalization has been influenced by the policies of the Serbian state. There are not to be found fully accurate data about the number of illegal buildings. Official data are much lower than those which foreign studies declare. "According to the official data from the cadastre, on the territory of Montenegro there are 39.922 illegally built structures, of which the largest number is in the capital city of Podgorica, 16.430 structures." (Potsiou, 2012) Meanwhile, a UNDP study declares their number is estimated to be almost three times the official figures." 100, 000 informal the structure in Montenegro Which is approximately one third of the total housing stock in the country." (Helleren, 2011) It is to be noted that until 2012, the process of legalization has been different in each municipality. Only in September 2012 a bill was drafted by the government. In 2014 it is still in the final stages of discussion. The prolongation of its approval shows a lack of political will. Just like our country, Montenegro is a coastal state (called "Ecological country" in its constitution). Consequently legalization is crucial for the development of tourism. Most of the illegal buildings are of a very good quality. The prolongment of the return and compensation process is one of the causes of illegal buildings. "In 2004 a Law on Restitution of ownership rights passed in Montenegro but its implementation is doubtful" (Potsiou, 2006). As in all Balkan countries, corruption is one of the main reasons that has led to difficulties in administering the land, which is prompted more by a lack of expertise by administrative bodies. Just like in our country, illegal construction is considered as a crime since 2008. "Since 2008, illegal building has been considered a crime, but prosecution has been delayed for small primary residence." (BPRI, 2014).

But unlike Albania illegal constructions are a phenomenon that emerged in the period of communism because of non adequate housing policies. Only after the declaration of independence, the causes of illegal buildings have changed: some of them are the poverty and internal migration. The legalization process is quite complicated, with not a very low cost and is highly centralized although according to constitutional principles it should be as decentralized as possible. "The planning procedure and construction permitting is being compiled in two levels (Construction permitting Responsibility is shared between the central government and the municipalities); in general it is still highly centralized, expensive and inflexible, except some special cases." (Potsiou, 2012). The law tends to protect vulnerable groups, providing that if the illegal building is demolished, the state provides to the individual a house, if it was the only house where his family lived. "The draft law states that people living in illegally built primary housing that will be demolished due to the law, must be provided with an alternative housing solution by the municipality." (BPRI, 2014)

We can see that all Balkan states have positive elements to be considered as an example, but in general all of them are far behind in this process, and much work still remains to be done.

Recommendations

(a) The category of persons who have built property which are in the legalization process must join together in associations. This interest group needs a single voice in front of the state bodies, because at the moment is quite fragmented. 1A positive example is the joining of the former owners' interests who are united in the Association "Property on Justice.". Its field of activity focus is the protection of the interests of the former owners, who are deprived from ownership through nationalization, confiscation and in other forms by the totalitarian regime. This association is quite active in the public's eye and in its initiatives.² Only by being united the subjects affected by this process, they can have a stronger influence on the legislation drafting process. (B)The prevention of illegal buildings in the future. Despite the fact that the Albanian government has set this among its main priorities of judicial reform "³, from 2004 illegal constructions continue to rise." With the persistent legalization challenges, the consequence of the widespread inability to enforce the laws in the Western Balkans region (ie, authorities' failure to prevent illegal construction or evict illegal residents) is a continuation in

¹ In May 2014 the Roma minority submitted before the President of the Republic of Albania a petition with 40,000 signatures, asking the president not to enact changes in the Law for Legalization.

² In 2007 this association asked the Constitutional Court to declare the law of legalization as unconstitutional, claiming that the law violates the rights of former owners. This request was rejected by the court decision no. 35. Dt. 10.10.2007.

³ CMD, no. 405, 2012 "Preventing of illegal new construction will be based on completion of regulatory plans and more open and more efficient procedures for the issuance of permits, including a special register in RERO office for the registration of building permits and the strengthening of control and demolishing process.", page 18

illegal construction." (BPRI, 2014) (c) Setting realistic deadlines for the government to complete the process of legalization. The tendency of the Albanian government is to set unrealistic limits and which do not have a real possibility for implementation. For example, this deadline specified in DCM Nr.405, dt.27.06.2012 was 2013 "100% finalization process by Aluizni of the legalization process of 270, 592 illegal construction by 2013". (d) To be facilitated the legalization process, minimization of procedures, required documentation and decrease of the cost of this process, and accelerating the whole process. The vulnerable groups must be more in focus (especially Roma), offering them free assistance during this process and facilitation for the payment. This is also the attitude the Albanian Ombudsman has had in his report of 2013 year "Recommendation for speeding and simplifying the procedures for the legalization of informal settlements, as well as urbanization and integration." (AO, 2014). (e) Better cooperation by all state agencies and stakeholders and an increase of the public awareness for the importance of this process. (f) The process of legalization, expropriation, and the restitution and compensation of property process should have a better intertwining between them. "None of these processes (first registration, legalization, restitution, or compensation) has advanced substantially in terms of implementation, largely due to incoherence among policy initiatives in these areas." (WB, 2012) In connection with the performance of the ALUIZNI, Albanian Ombudsman in its report of 2013 stated, "the activity of this body leaves much to be desired in its functioning since 2006. There is a lack of effectiveness and cooperation of Territory Councils, County Councils, with other bodies local Government and local Real Estate Registry Office." (AO, 2014) (g) Greater protection for the holder of the illegal buildings in the legalization process if this building will be expropriated for public interest.(i) While the construction is under the legalization process there should be greater control have to impede the subject to demolish the building that is being legalized or to construct extensions without permission. (k) There should be paid special attention toward the urbanization and integration process, which comes after the completion the legalization process. There should be taken effective steps that immediately after the legalization process, the process of urbanization and integration can have a full legal preliminary framework applicable in practice. (l) the need for a greater decentralization of powers of the local government during the legalization process. (m) There is a need for serious studies on the advancement of the process of the legalization which should be made before the changes on law. These changes should have as the main focus the particular characteristics of Albania. (n) Compensation of property owners over which are built illegal construction requires a concrete planning and realistic projections for its fulfillment, "the payment of compensation for expropriation due to legalization remains insufficiently funded. AKKP reports that neither ALUIZNI nor the state budget has provided the 4.5 billion Lek needed to pay the compensation called for the legalization decisions submitted by ALUIZNI. There is a risk the failure to compensate expropriated owners could cause expropriation decisions to be declared invalid." (WB, 2012). (p) Development of a database with all the data derived during the process of legalization, starting from the self declaration phase and progress of the process. This database must be accessible by all stakeholders and researchers in relevant issues. (Q) Prosecution of illegal builders of constructions must be performed only when, at the end of the legalization process, the legalization permit is refused by a decision of ALUIZNI. (r) Low cost and simplification of the procedures to obtain a building permit. Often it is cheaper to legalize buildings than to construct a building respecting the laws in force. (H) A full analysis is needed from the Albanian state in order to acquire the best experiences from other Balkan countries. Although the Stability Pact and the Vienna Declaration have laid the foundations of a regional cooperation, still remains much to be done in this field. A regional structure (independent of the European Union) created especially by the Balkan states, which will be focused only on solving the problem of legalization, exchange of best experiences and, creating a database of data for all Balkan states would be mitigating for all stakeholders in this process.

By the end we can say that the legalization process and its application, must be adapted to the characteristics of each country. This is very important, because: "When Countries are not able to integrate informality into the formal economy, they will be doomed to muddle along" (Soto , 2000)

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Measuring External Complexity of Complex Adaptive Systems Using Onicescu's Informational Energy

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Abstract

During the last decades the complexity theory of complex adaptive systems has captured the attention of a plethora of people, ranging from scientists and to the general public, through its discussions on emergence, behavior, self-organization, computer simulations and so on with a strong emphasis in the globalization context. The intuitively given explanations about produced phenomena are hardly accepted, by regular people, without giving them scientifically proofs with some measurements and figures. Thus we are forced to find new measurements and analysis tools or to adapt the existing ones, for better understand those systems. The social systems and economic systems become more complex and unpredictable and necessitate the use, among other things, of the acquirements of social psychology to better understand and monitor them. Having a large number of mutually internetworked and interdependent parts the complex adaptive systems are hard to model and understand, so that any theory or practice defined/ applied to reduce the area of the analyzed complexity and making analysis, modeling and simulation feasible is welcome and useful. The analysis of both, external complexity and internal complexity of complex adaptive systems, as defined by Jüergen Jost, become a starting point. The external complexity addresses the volume of inputs (as information/ energy), from system's environment, that the system is capable to manipulate or to process, while, the internal complexity is a measure of input representation by the system, in fact, the model complexity. For both categories the existing model uses entropy, or other formulas based on, to measure the system. This paper introduces the usage of Onicescu's Informational Energy theory and measures, based on frequencies used in statistics, to approximate the measurements of external complexity. The aim of the paper is not to use a technology instead another, but a way to simplify and express some measurements in terms of normal frequencies, the general people encounter daily and better understand, and not in terms of probabilities that requires mathematics skills and, maybe, sophisticated computational tools from the normal reader part, for better understanding.

Keywords: External Complexity, Complex Adaptive Systems, Informational Energy, Entropy

1. Introduction

The presentation in this paper was oriented to an easy formal style and, for that reason, the introduced concepts have a surname given as a single letter used later on to define mathematical models and their computational formulas. The systems can be broadly defined (Avram&Dodescu, 2003) as sets of functionally inter-correlated elements (E) that acts to achieve specific goals (objectives, one or more). The elements are described by properties and behavior, specific and/ or common to all. Systems are combinations of elements including all or some of the sources: objectives (Z), inputs (X), outputs (Y), processes (P), and other internal relationships (dominant; collaboration; prediction), and a boundary with the rest of the universe, or system's environment. The way the system reacts to changes (generally on inputs) forms the system behavior. The systems are artifacts created by humans to facilitate communication, abstraction and, analysis and they simplify the explanation of phenomena that appears complex and unrelated. If the artificial systems are fruits of human thinking, the natural ones have an objective existence (they exists independently of human concern, as the solar system, for example). A system is characterized by its status (S) dependent, as a rule, on inputs and represented by any well-defined conditions or properties that can be recognized as such if again appear. If the status of the system changes the system categorized as dynamic, otherwise as static. A system is said adaptive if depending on its status and the status of its environment can

act differently to attain its objectives or even can change those objectives. If a system realizes exchanges, as inputs and outputs, with its environment, the system is open, as opposite for lack of those exchanges, when closed. The elements of the system are the smallest parts that can be used in system description and modeling. An element belongs to a system if and only if it contribute to the system's activity. The elements can form distinguishable parts to the system, and these, in turn, can participate to form larger (aggregated) parts (parts from parts, recursively) to the system. The elements and parts are coupled together to form a whole. If the parts inside system have the characteristics of a system in fact they are systems in their own right and they are called subsystems. Each element influences the elements to which coupled by influencing the input of those elements or, generally, the environment of those elements. The complex systems have a large number of mutually internetworked and interdependent parts and, at least for this, are hard to model and understand. Formally, two elements (or parts) e_1 and e_2 can be coupled in one of the ways:

- e_1 is coupled with e_2 so that it influence e_2 and e_2 has no influence to e_1 . We can say that e_1 is dominating e_2 (is a normal unidirectional communication channel or is a feed-forward/ prediction link);
- e_1 is coupled to e_2 so that both coupled elements reciprocally influenced. We can say that between e_1 and e_2 we have a feedback (the value of this can be positive or negative and the result is called collaboration).

1.1. Complex Systems

"Complex systems consist of many interacting components and many hierarchical layer and, in general, it is impossible to reduce the overall behavior of the system to a set of properties characterizing the individual components. The interaction between components is able to produce properties at the collective level that are simply not present at the component considered individually. (Moffat, 2003)" Heylighen shows in (Heylighen, 2008) that the complex systems "components are in the same time distinct and connected, both autonomous and to some degree mutually dependent". In simple words it means that the properties and behaviors at the whole system level (its higher hierarchical level) are not a summation of properties and behaviors at lower, or generally base level. In a hierarchical organization of the system, each layer, at a higher level in the hierarchy can have properties and behaviors unfound at lower levels of its base hierarchy.

Between coupled elements take place communications, of different natures, that send (outputs) and receive (inputs) messages or signals containing messages. In simulations and models of the systems we can focus our research and analysis on that type of communication but we must have in mind the strong link with (or determination of) the material or energy flux taking place in parallel or sequentially, on the same channel. The system achieves its objectives by the process of converting inputs (information, transactions data, raw material, parts, electrical pulses, light, water and minerals etc.), that supplied by its environment and crosses the boundaries to become parts of the system, into outputs (decision and control information, finished goods, parts, or any other kind of output such as carbon dioxide, urine and feces, common for living organisms) that crosses the systems boundaries to become parts of the environment. Not all kinds of elements of a system must be present to a concrete one, for example, inputs and outputs are missing for closed systems (they do not exchange any kind of inputs and outputs with their environment).

"The social systems are different in many aspects of most other kinds of systems in the way the elements belong to the system or not. The system do not "die" if one (or some) of its members eliminated from the system. The social systems implies individuals and their relationships to form groups and to interact with other individuals, groups, and institutions. As members of different forms of social organization they obey to laws and rules of that. The individuals can participate in the same time in many different groups and generally can quit a group by different reasons (can migrate in another group, can die etc.). In such systems applied the large numbers law: we can eliminate/ add individuals/ groups from/ to the system without affecting the whole system. Consequently the subsystems of social systems are very hard to be precisely delimited by the nature of their boundaries. Thus, the social systems become more complex and unpredictable and necessitate the use of social psychology to better understand and monitor them. (Rizescu&Avram, 2013)"

1.2. Complex Adaptive Systems

As starting point, here are accepted the complexity sources and characteristics as outlined by Fromm (2004, p. 23): "Complexity emerges from the clash of opposite forces, and is characterized by consonance in dissonance, regularity in irregularity, cooperation in separation, integration in differentiation, order in chaos, simplicity in intricacy and unity in diversity". The complexity is considered as being situated somewhere between order and disorder and the complex systems are not neither, regular and predictable and, nor random and chaotic (Heylighen, 2008). The complexity of a system is the

amount of information needed in order to describe it which, in turn, depends on the level of detail required in its description (Bar-Yam, 1997).

The complex adaptive systems (CAS) are dynamic systems able to adapt and change within, or as part of, a changing environment (Moffat, 2003). The components of complex systems are most commonly modeled as agents (for example, people, firms, animals, cells and molecules, neurons etc.), usually are goal-directed (try to maximize individual fitness, utility or, preference) or, if not goal-directed follows a cause-and-effect or condition-action logic, their number is variable (they can multiply or "die" within the system) and, the environmental conditions to which an agent reacts can be affected by other agents (Heyligen, 2008). The complex adaptive systems have three basic characteristics: adaptation, self-organizing and emergence (Heyligen, 2008). The self-organizing is a characteristic given by the system's structure, by its internal processes and, represents the tendency of the larger dynamic systems to organize them itself in a critical status of high organization (perfection). The emergence (from Latin "emergere") defines a qualitative change in the system behavior when changing its observation scale, such as from one element scale to group of elements scale. Emergence is a common characteristic of complex adaptive systems for which the behavior of the whole is more complex than the sum of behaviors of its elements and parts. The emergent properties have two important aspects: they lose when decompose the system in its component parts and, when a component is eliminated (detached) from the whole this one loses its emergent properties. We can say that the system (the properties and functionalities of) is always more than the sum of its parts.

The study of complex systems and their parts, of interaction among them and of behavior, cannot be always done on the system itself. The common scientific way is to ignore some system details and to find a higher level abstraction of the system as a model that can permit realizing simulations of the studied system. Miller and Page defines in (Miller&Page, 2007) a general model (or modeling) of a system characterized by a set S of different statuses and a transition function (a collection of processes, procedures, functions) $F(S)$ that maps a given status at moment t into a new status at moment $t+1$. If the dimension of status space is too high this one can be reduced by generating few equivalence classes (mapping) $E(S)$ which maps a subset of real world statuses S into a model status s and, in this context, finding a transition function $f(s)$ useful for modeling. In a cybernetic context (here introduced as described in Avram&Dodescu, 2003), the inputs X are transformed by processes P inside of the system to obtain the results (outputs) Y and we can express that by a generic equation of the system that can be written as $Y=P(X)$. Most of the time between the outputs and objectives we have some differences that can be expressed as $Z\#Y$. For that reason, it is necessary to correct this differences by intermediate of a regulator R (a feedback processor) that corrects the inputs by an average value ΔX (that can be positive or negative feedback) and the generic equation can be written as: $Y=P(X+\Delta X)$. This describes in a simple way an adaptive system.

The general approach in studying and simulating on computers of complex adaptive systems is realized by iterating some simple rules locally in an interacting agent population which generate in turn complex global phenomena. The usual representation of elements and parts of a complex system together with their internal relationships (and dependencies) is in a shape of complex networks. Examples of complex networks are neuronal networks, social systems, social networks, neural system, economic systems etc.

2. Methodology

Initially the developments and conformity checks realized on some dependant characteristics about Internet infrastructure represented by the server operating systems and webserver software used. The results are very satisfactory from many points of view, but, since data collected and based only on online surveys the proof of the validity of proposed formulas for the measurements must be realized on an incontestable trustable source. To find the circumstances and ways to replace the difficult computations, such as conditional probabilities, here used the statistics data obtained by 2011 census in Romania (Romania Census, 2014) and selected the repartition of population on age categories, genders and area and, adapted as notations to the needs of the mathematical models, as shown in Table 1. The columns in the table represents the events categories and they are mutually exclusive. The data inside table refers to (calculated based on) grand totals at country level. For columns and rows used letter characters as an alias of that used, later on, to express the computational models and to evaluate them, for conformity checks of the theoretical findings.

Table 2 is a sample randomly selected (by generating of two random numbers, one indicating the age and the other the number of the detail line for area) taken from similar data in the 2010 Romanian Statistics Anuarry (2011:1) at detail level (population on age groups, counties, cities and, gender). The sample (excerpt) is shown in Table 2. The total population was taken 1000 for the sake of simplicity in mental computations and is not computed as for statistical surveys. When we

want to make a specific research, for a specific target population, these aspects will have their own importance and accuracy, as required.

Tables 1 and 2 used to show how to compute both, entropy and informational energy on data referring to total population (Table 1) or to samples from that population. If you compare the tables you see that the probabilities associated to corresponding categories are closed while between the corresponding absolute value do not exist a visible common rule (such as division, multiplication or other kind of formula) to determine the excerpt value from its corresponding total value, thus proofing the validity of the selection realized randomly.

Table 3 contains processed from data taken from the 2011 Romanian Statistics Anuarry (2011:1, 2011:2), Chapter 2 Population and Chapter 3 Labour Market. It shows the structure, as absolute values and frequencies/ probabilities, of two broad categories of population defined depending on their participation on the labour market mainly, active population and non economically active persons, distributed by group ages. For the active persons are indicated the common characteristics for different input model structure in the Labour Market (sub)system, by $\{\gamma_1, \gamma_2, \gamma_3, \gamma_4, \gamma_5, \gamma_6\}$, as designators for the age categories. These characteristics are common for every reporting year.

Table 4 shows the retirement age combinations, for both sexes, male and females, used in Romania after 2001. These combinations affects the γ_5 and γ_6 categories in Table 3, so we consider having different input models for labour market, denoted in the table by the column θ (for which all entries having status "current" covered by ninth entry in table).

The tables and the evaluations of different formulas are realized in Excel 2013 and imported in this document.

3. Representing System Statuses as Weights

Every kind of system, either natural or artificial, is individualized by some qualitative and/ or quantitative characteristics related to their inputs, outputs, internal relationships etc., defining its status. The status, when represented by energy or information, can be revealed by related weights or ratios. The most common way to determine that ratios or weights is as frequencies or as probabilities. Consider a system characterized by the statuses s_1, s_2, \dots, s_n having the corresponding associated weights w_1, w_2, \dots, w_n with respect for the constraint $\sum_{i=1}^n w_i = 1$. In Table 1 the statuses denoted by γ_i (they are the s_i equivalents, the notation in table having importance for the correlation coefficient of Informational Energy and for extended input of external complexity) are represented in absolute value on column "Total Population" (or T) and as and as frequencies (in that case as probabilities too since computed on entire population) in column w_i . Both, probability and frequency, uses a similar formula, and we can say they are the mathematics of chance. The difference is that they address to different sets of population (or different scales): the probability request measurements on the entire (whole) population and, the frequency request only representative excerpt (or sample) from the population (a small percent from total population). If s_k is an event (or status) that can occur in a population having n members ($k=1, 2, \dots, n$) then the frequency (weight, in the context) is $w_k = \frac{\text{frequency of } s_k}{\text{sum of frequencies}}$ with respect of constraint $\sum_{i=1}^n w_i = 1$. For our case in Table 1 column 2 these are $\{0.0505, 0.0491, 0.0516, 0.0563, 0.0803, 0.0752, 0.0827, 0.0776, 0.0811, 0.0566, 0.0688, 0.067, 0.054, 0.041, 0.0435, 0.0331, 0.0206, 0.0109\}$ and their sum is 1.

For the entire population (or statuses) the frequency of s_k is exactly the number of times s_k occurs within the population over the sum of frequencies that is the total number of population n and the frequencies equals the probabilities. It is intuitively clear that observing and measuring excerpts of a population is easy than do the same for the entire population.

All the measurements realized are helpful, from a point of view, to understand the system status and maybe to predict its next behavior. Not all the time, the measurement of the different statuses taken in isolation, are helpful in understanding the observed phenomena. In real world contexts and systems the statuses depends one of another due to the multitude of relationships between the system's elements that they characterizing. Thus if we want to measure or to know the probability of a status s_k , in correlation with all its influencing statuses to which related, the computation formula for the probability is changed. We must compute the so called conditional probability: it means the probability of the random variable s_k conditioned of the knowledge of all other random variables on which depends. In other words, to compute the chance of a status, we must know the chance of all other related statuses. We give down here a very simple expression of computation formula as given in (Beisbart&Hartmann, 2011). Let's S and T two events for which we assume that the probability of T is non-zero, $P(T) \neq 0$. The conditional probability of S given T, denoted by $P(S|T)$ is the probability of the joint occurrence of S and T (it means $S \cap T$ - what they have in common), divided by the probability of T, $P(S|T) = \frac{P(S \cap T)}{P(T)}$ and, the probability

of the joint occurrence of S and T is $P(S \cap T) = P(T) \times P(S|T)$. The columns 4 (S, Female) and 6 (U, Male) from Table 1 are computed as conditional probabilities relatively to total population.

The complexity of the measurements is in direct ratio with the number of conditionings and becomes harder determined as increases the number of the conditionings. The largest number of dependencies of one characteristic or category on the other characteristics or categories of a system is a specific of the social systems. Concluding, as the number of dependent analyzed characteristics increases, the difficulty in determining them increases too (we can say in an exponential way for the human mind, alone).

In this context the internal probability distribution $P(X(\theta))$ used to quantify the informational value of data in the Jürgen Jost model of internal and external complexity, is in most of the cases a conditional probability. This is given by the intrinsic dependencies between the inputs (modeled as data representing the volume, the amount) from the environment, each pattern of that being an expression of dependencies in a specific context (such as a time scale, for example), corroborated with the internal complexity as complexity of representation of that data. This can be argued by analyzing the θ input models taken as example in Table 4. The input for the labour market is represented by the same categories, generically named y_i in Table 3, but we increase the input amount when we change the retire age for womens, it means we change the upper bound of the last category. When the age is not the same, for Male and Female, we are forced to compute conditional probabilities and to work on a joint data set between the sets associated to each sex, as shown in Table 1 columns S and U. When the age is the same for both genders we can work at a centralized level (as shown in Table 3, column "Total Population") and we reduce the inputs complexity and increase in the same time the amount taken on one input source, it means in the scope of the external complexity model.

4. External Complexity and Internal Complexity

The complex adaptive systems modeled as networks consists of intelligent autonomous agents (as nodes or constituents of parts). By definition an agent collect information about its environment and applies some methods to select a properly action. According to Fromm (2004) based on Holland (1995, 1997) the complex adaptive system (CAS) can be defined as a collectivity of self-similar adaptive agents in interaction and, the multiple-agents system (MAS) as a system composed by multiple agents in interaction. The notions of MAS and CAS are similar, but only apparently and that because they reflect different components of complex systems. CAS is associated with the higher level structures and phenomenon of the system while MAS is associated with the components and elements of base level of that. A complex adaptive system is nothing else than a system that can be simulated, described and explained by a dynamic multi-agent system, and reciprocally, the multi-agent system simulations can be described as complex adaptive systems.

The system's environment is always more complex than the system itself (Jost, 2005) and, consequently never cannot be completely predicted. The system depends on environment regularities in order to maintain its replenishment with the required energy necessary to support (or preserve) its internal structures and processes. CAS try to reduce the internal complexity and to increase the external complexity (Jost, 2005). Jürgen Jost defines in (Jost, 2005), both, external complexity and internal complexity and found a way to model them, as summarized in this paragraph. The external complexity is defined as a measure of the input volume (information and/ or energy measurable by entropy) obtained from the environment and that the system is capable to manage and process: given a model θ the system can model data as $X(\theta)$, with $X=(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_k)$ the set of input types. $X(\theta)$ introduces an internal probability distribution $P(X(\theta))$, to quantify the informational value of data, so that we can measure its organization using the entropy formula:

$$-\sum_{i=1}^k P(X_i(\theta)) \log_2 P(X_i(\theta)) \quad (1)$$

in the hypothesis that the system will try to maximize its external complexity. The probability distribution is associated in fact to the partial knowledge about an out from equilibrium system. The system is considered in the equilibrium state when all probabilities of its stature where equal. Entropy is maximum for equal probabilities, is unaffected by extra states of zero probability and, changes for conditional probabilities computed on the same original dataset distributed over dependant characteristics (like total population distributed on age categories and that distributed on sexes, Male and Female, as shown in Table 1 and Table 2). When computed on messages the entropy measure our ignorance about the message in its entirety or, in other words, "how likely the best predictions of the rest of message are to be wrong (Sethna, 2006, p. 88)". The entropy calculated here on data in Table 1 for the dataset in column labeled 2 and is 4.1699 which indicate a highly predictable dataset and is approximately 6 times less (read less organized) than maximum entropy 24.2622. When we express the dataset on two broad categories represented by sexes the conditional probabilities associated to age categories

are distributed on columns 4 and 6. The entropy computed on these values is 5.0748, increased relatively to the one computed on column 2 but in accordance with its behavior "entropy changes with conditional probabilities". The entropy now is only approximately 5 times less than the maximum entropy, we can interpret the measured system as a bit more organized. The entropy is now computed on the sample data in Table 2 column 2 and is 4.0627 which indicates, as the one determined for Table 1 column 2, a high predictable dataset. Until now the computations of entropy realized with the scope to have enough examples for comparisons with the informational energy, later on. The inputs for the labour market, in Table 3, designated by $\{\gamma_1, \gamma_2, \gamma_3, \gamma_4, \gamma_5, \gamma_6\}$, it means the values $\{0.0889, 0.2677, 0.2967, 0.1946, 0.1126, 0.0395\}$, forms a complete system of probabilities and corresponds to ninth θ model in Table 4, $\{65, 65\}$. In this context the valuation of the formula is 2.3379 which is approximately 10 times less than the maximum entropy of considered population (14, 946, 046), it means 10 times less organized than maximum possible (23.8333). This is very good since a low entropy dataset is highly predictable. Thus the internal complexity is defined as a measure of the complexity of the representation of the input by the system (representing in fact the model complexity). When external complexity measured as entropy this can be viewed as data complexity. The scope of the system is to manage as many inputs as possible using the simplest possible model. The increasing of external complexity is dependent on the time scale involved and the system is considered that has gathered input, noted with Ξ , on a time scale when the distribution of input patterns become stationary. After attaining that stationary state the model should be improved to handle as many inputs as possible, which is defined by Jost with formula:

$$-\sum_{i=1}^k P(\Xi_i | \theta) \log_2 P(\Xi_i | \theta) - \log_2 P(\theta) \tag{2}$$

where $P(\theta)$ is the probability assigned to the the model (dependent on its internal structure). The $\Xi = \{0.0410, 0.1236, 0.1370, 0.0899, 0.0520, 0.0183, 0.1505, 0.2569, 0.0909, 0.0335, 0.0277, 0.0311, 0.0733, 0.1314\}$, build by extending the input to the entire population able to participate on labour market (is excluded the category of childrens and the part of retired or too old from the last category). The formula here evaluates to $3.4438 - (-1.1148) = 4.5586$ and here is an improvement since is only 6 time less than the maximum entropy (28.3839) in that case when population on input increses (18, 141, 057). The determination of this improvement of the system must be realized while minimizing its internal complexity, defined as:

$$\min_{\theta} (\log_2 P(\Xi_i | \theta) - \log_2 P(\theta)) \tag{3}$$

an objective function like for the model. The objective function of the model try to minimize the difference between how efficient is the model (the first term) and how complicated is the model (the second term). So, can be considered that the external complexity addresses the volume of inputs (as information/ energy), from system's environment, that the system is capable to manipulate or to process, while, the internal complexity is a measure of input representation by the system, in fact, the model complexity. For both categories the existing model uses entropy, or other formulas based on, to measure the system.

5. Onicescu's Informational Energy

This paragraph is based on the information provided by Onicescu itself in the reference (Onicescu&Stefanescu, 1979) and the presentation in reference (Rizescu&Avram, 2014). The concept of informational energy and associated theory and practical methods developed by Onicescu before the year 1979.

Consider a system characterized by the statuses s_1, s_2, \dots, s_n having the corresponding weights w_1, w_2, \dots, w_n with respect for the constraint $\sum_{i=1}^n w_i = 1$. The global information of the system, denoted by ES, can be expressed by the Onicescu "Informational Energy", determined as the mean of weights w_i relatively to the individual statuses s_i , by the formula:

$$E_S = \sum_{i=1}^n w_i^2 \tag{4}$$

(a sum of squares of weights), with $\frac{1}{n} \leq E_S \leq 1$.

The informational energy is $1/n$ only when all statuses have the same weight $1/n$ (the system's uniformity attained) and is 1 when one of its statuses weight is 1 (and consequently all others 0). For Table 1 the Informational Energy in column 2 is 0.0629 which indicate a relative differentiation from equal chance case (0.0073), and is approximately 1, 265, 424 times far away of maximum (1). To the same data corresponds an entropy of 4.1699 which indicates a relative differentiation from perfect organization and compared with the maximum entropy of 24.2622 which is 6 times greater. So, both measurements, given to us a similar characterization of the system which is not in its equilibrium state, is not uniform, and not completely

disorganized. The informational energy computed now on the conditional probabilities in Table 1 (columns 4 and 6) this is 0.1237, it increases relatively to the one computed on data in column 2. The increase means that the indetermination, uniformity or, disorganization of the system decreases (is a little bit more organized), a similar conclusion as for corresponding entropies. The informational energy is now computed on the sample data in Table 2 column 2 and is 0.0628 which is closed to the one determined for Table 1 column 2 and indicates a high predictable dataset too. Based on comparissons realized between entropy and informational energy we can conclude that the both measurements gives to us comparable information about the system. For Table 2 column 4 and 6 we compute the informational energy values for each one because they are individual complete probability repartitions (the sum of the values in each one is 1).

It was proved that the informational energy decreases in direct proportion with the raising of the systems uniformity, disorder, or indetermination. In other words, the informational energy increases in direct proportion with the raise of system differentiation that is the source of social system existence, for example. The informational energy of a system composed by two or more independent elements (or parts) is the product of their corresponding informational energies. For social systems (or groups of people or, more formally, agents) and in the context of globalization is difficult to find, in the same space, two populations having nothing in common. Thus is possible to determine the correlation between two population (or groups of, or generally parts of a system) S and T, noted CS, T , having in common the characteristics $\gamma_1, \gamma_2, \dots, \gamma_n$ with the corresponding weights w_1, w_2, \dots, w_n , for population S and, q_1, q_2, \dots, q_n for population T, using the formula:

$$C_{S,T} = \sum_{i=1}^n w_i \cdot q_i \tag{5}$$

The formula (5) permit us to have dependent sets we associate complete sets of probabilities, it means without computing first the conditional probabilities, and to see if between two population is a relationship (like having something in common). The CS, T evaluates to zero ($C_{S, T} = 0$) if and only if all terms in the expression are null (the two parts or populations do not have something in common). The correlation coefficient is applied for data in columns 4 and 6 in Table 2, as separate datasets, and its value 0.0624 is closed to the informational energy for the entire sample 0.0628. The value of the correlation of a population S with itself is his informational energy. The informational correlation coefficient (noted RS, T) of the populations S and T obtained by normalization of the correlation:

$$R_{S,T} = \frac{C_{S,T}}{\sqrt{E_S \cdot E_T}} \tag{6}$$

where $R_{S, T} = 1$ if and only if S and T identical. The correlation and the correlation coefficient can be applied to any number of population having in common the characteristics $\gamma_1, \gamma_2, \dots, \gamma_n$ by extending the formulas with the corresponding weights.

6. Conclusions and Discussions

When we make use of complex adaptive systems and use entropy to measure and characterize the external complexity we must determine the conditional probabilities, and we can say that this is very hard be realized when the conditioning involves more than two conditioning input statuses. If we have the complete probability system then we can apply the computation formula and see the difference from maximum entropy. The frequencies, determined for the inputs from environment, are used as source for informational energy and correlation coefficient determination. Thus, instead computing the conditional probabilities is easy to determine the frequencies input status and to compute the informational energy and the correlation coefficient.

The - (minus) sign in the formulas (1), (2) and (3) is required to produce a positive value since the logarithm on fraction numbers (as probabilities are) produces a negative value. Because for informational energy we use square values all results are positive. With these considerations, shown here and in the previous paragraphs, the original model of external complexity, described by the equations (1), (2) and (3), based on entropy, can be adapted to use informational energy, by the formulas:

$$\sum_{i=1}^k P(X_i(\theta))^2 \tag{1}$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^k P(\Xi_i|\theta)^2 + P(\theta)^2 \tag{2}$$

$$\min_{\theta} (P(\theta)^2 - P(\Xi_i|\theta)^2) \tag{3}$$

In the last formula (3) the terms are changed between them because in (3) the first term produces a negative value while the second a positive one, the operation is to minimize the difference between them. For entropies on excerpts the distance between the entropy and the maximum entropy is uncontrolable reduced. For our example in Table 2 column 2 the

maximum entropy is only 9.9657 that is too less than the maximum entropy 24.2622 in Table 1 column 2, so we can say the entropy for the sample is not a very good measurement. We can say that for samples, because the number n of counted events is drastically reduced, the maximum entropy computed for $1/n$ is reduced too and this will influence in direct proportion, we can say, our conclusions. If the entropy is closed on that maximum we can conclude that the equilibrium of the system attained and we must do something to change that status because it becomes unpredictable. In reality our system can be highly predictable.

For the same data the informational energies are very closed, 0.0629 and 0.0628 respectively, and they have a comparable distance against the minimum ($1/n$) and maximum informational energy value 1. The minimal informational energy in table is calculated for equal chance associated to measured categories and is the same for both tables (0.0556). The problem, when we use a sample with a reduced counted people the ratio $1/n$ increases (relatively to the number of entire population) and in this situation we can conclude that our computed value is too closed on the lower bound and the system is highly predictable, in reality, for the entire population, being far away of that. When energy is closed to lower limit we consider the system as disorganized, undetermined and uniform and that situation can make us searching for new ways to change that. The outlined characteristics shows in fact that informational energy uses as source of data the normal statistical measurements used to characterize the evolution of a society, an economy, a group of countries etc. That is, as the large numbers law stipulates, we can measure only representative excerpts without affecting the real understanding of the behavior. It can be directly applied to measure, similarly to entropy, the disorder degree of a system together with the degree of interdependencies, of its observed parts, by intermediate of the coefficient of correlation.

The informational energy measurements don't exclude or completely replace the usage of entropy and valuation of that for a given system. They can be used together and valued on the available data source on an efficiency basis and in correlation with the dataset characterizing the observed system. What we can say is that the informational energy can be used for both cases, those of entire population and those of representative sample because a higher lower limit is not so bad (we have a higher energy in reality while measurements indicates a bit less). The usage of entropy for such samples change the maximum value of that and we can conclude that a system is highly organized and nothing to improve. In this context we can say that the impediments of each one on excerpts can be avoided if we know the total number of population n and we use $1/n$ in the computation of maximal entropy and as lower limit for informational energy. This replacement allows to increase the accuracy of measurements and the trust in these.

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Tables

Table 1. The Probabilities Associated to System's Characteristics γ_i and the Conditional Probabilities for S and U Parts of the System for the Same Characteristics (2011 Romania Census)

Characteristics (Age Category)		T (Total Population) {wi}		S (Female)	Probability of S conditioned By T {pi}	U (Male)	Probability of U conditioned By T {qi}
0		1	2	3	4	5	6
γ_1	0-4	1045029	0.0505	507949	0.0252	537, 080	0.0267
γ_2	5-9	1054391	0.0491	512532	0.0255	541, 859	0.0269
γ_3	10-14	1090226	0.0516	530854	0.0264	559, 372	0.0278
γ_4	15-19	1108453	0.0563	540381	0.0269	568, 072	0.0282
γ_5	20-24	1366374	0.0803	662022	0.0329	704, 352	0.0350
γ_6	25-29	1303077	0.0752	636401	0.0316	666, 676	0.0331
γ_7	30-34	1522719	0.0827	749707	0.0373	773, 012	0.0384
γ_8	35-39	1538897	0.0776	756054	0.0376	782, 843	0.0389
γ_9	40-44	1743878	0.0811	856309	0.0426	887, 569	0.0441
γ_{10}	45-49	1076258	0.0566	531963	0.0264	544, 295	0.0271

γ_1	50-54	1332266	0.0688	677525	0.0337	654, 741	0.0325
γ_3	55-59	1448043	0.067	759139	0.0377	688, 904	0.0342
γ_3	60-64	1244286	0.054	671438	0.0334	572, 848	0.0285
γ_4	65-69	890340	0.041	497321	0.0247	393, 019	0.0195
γ_5	70-74	901370	0.0435	530454	0.0264	370, 916	0.0184
γ_6	75-79	729965	0.0331	444583	0.0221	285, 382	0.0142
γ_7	80-84	462807	0.0206	292233	0.0145	170, 574	0.0085
γ_8	85 & >	263262	0.0109	176199	0.0088	87, 063	0.0043
Total:		20, 121, 641	1	10, 333, 064	0.5135	9, 788, 577	0.4865

$$S \{ w_i \}$$

$$\Xi = \{ p_i \} U \{ q_i \}$$

Entropy
(Maxim 24.2622)

Informational
Energy

Entropy
(Maxim 24.2622)

Informational
Energy

Current (c)

4.1699

0.0629

5.0748

0.1237

Equal chance (ec)

4.1699

0.0556

5.1699

0.0278

Table 2. The Frequencies for the Characteristics γ_i as for the Representative Sample Data obtained by randomly selecting data from detail reports

Characteristics	S		W		Q	
	{w _i }		{p _i }		{q _i }	
0	1	2	3	4	5	6
γ_1	51	0.0448	23	0.0574	28	0.028
γ_2	50	0.0449	23	0.0554	27	0.027
γ_3	53	0.0487	25	0.0575	28	0.028
γ_4	54	0.0507	26	0.0574	28	0.028
γ_5	81	0.0721	37	0.0903	44	0.044
γ_6	76	0.0741	38	0.0781	38	0.038
γ_7	81	0.0819	42	0.0801	39	0.039
γ_8	77	0.0741	38	0.0801	39	0.039
γ_9	82	0.0799	41	0.0843	41	0.041
γ_{10}	57	0.0585	30	0.0554	27	0.027
γ_{11}	68	0.0663	34	0.0698	34	0.034

γ_{13}	67	0.0682	35	0.0655	32	0.032
γ_{13}	53	0.0565	29	0.0493	24	0.024
γ_{14}	42	0.0507	26	0.033	16	0.016
γ_{15}	43	0.0448	23	0.0412	20	0.02
γ_{16}	32	0.0390	20	0.0246	12	0.012
γ_{17}	21	0.0273	14	0.0144	7	0.007
γ_{18}	12	0.0175	9	0.0062	3	0.003
Total:	1000	1	513	1	487	1

$S\{w_i\}$ Entropy (max 9.9657) Informational Energy W U Informational Energy CW, U

Current (c) 4.0627 0.0628 0.0610 0.0655 0.0624
Equal chance (ec) 5.7958 0.0556 0.0556 0.0556 0.0556

Table 3. Population structure, by participation in economic activity, by age group, sex and area, in 2011

Age Categories	Total Population		Active Population				Non economically active persons	
	Amount		Amount		Amount		Amount	
Total	21354396	1	9844377		0.4610	11510019	0.5390	
< 15 years	3213339	0.1505	-			3213339	0.1505	
15-64 years	14946046	0.6999	9460847		0.4430	5485199	0.2569	
from which:			pi					
15 - 24 years	2817377	0.1319	γ_1	0.0889	876204	0.0410	1941173	0.0909
25 - 34 years	3354614	0.1571	γ_2	0.2677	2640081	0.1236	714533	0.0335
35 - 44 years	3516544	0.1647	γ_3	0.2967	2925765	0.1370	590779	0.0277
45 - 54 years	2582403	0.1209	γ_4	0.1946	1918725	0.0899	663678	0.0311
55 - 64 years	2675108	0.1253	γ_5	0.1126	1110170	0.0520	1564938	0.0733
65 years and >	3195011	0.1496	γ_6	0.0395	389791	0.0183	2805220	0.1314

γ_i Entropy (max 23.8333) Informational Energy π_i Entropy (max 28.3839) Informational Energy

Current (c) 2.7987 0.1445 3.4888 0.1022
Equal chance (ec) 2.8074 0.1429 4.1699 0.0555

HOMELESSNESS WITHIN SOCIAL CHANGE

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Abstract

Homelessness, which is a combination of so many social problems, is one of the important indicators of the tragedy of humanity nowadays. It has become a current social problem again because of some reasons such as urbanization, be refugee status as a result of wars, migrations because of unemployment and poverty, alcohol and drug addiction, mental illnesses, terrorism, domestic violence and natural disasters. Although there are different descriptions of homelessness it is generally the event which some people sustains their lives in public places, parks or streets because they have no shelter of their own. Homelessness is a prism that reflects especially the frustrations of housing, welfare, education, health services and the justice system. This complex social phenomenon opposed to the basic definitions and resists against easy solutions. Homeless are not just the people whose opportunities and options are limited by poverty, but also those who are restricted because of mental illness, drug abuse, physical and sexual violence, ignorance, complex medical problems and getting older. The aim of this research is to discuss the psychological, sociological and economic problems of people who do not have a place for their own to use as a shelter; and to compare the solutions and strategies of some countries for the prevention of homelessness. In the study we focused on identification of the phenomenon of homelessness, the reasons for homelessness and the general characteristics of the homeless people. The sample of study is a social worker working in Istanbul, Turkey Darülaceze (Hospice) Institution and eleven homeless staying there; a social worker working in the city of Kassel, Germany Soziale Hilfe e.V. Kassel Institution and eleven homeless staying there; eight social workers working in the city of Ljubljana, Slovenya Kralji Ulice Institution and eleven homeless staying there; and a social worker working in Shelter Institution. The data were collected using interview, questionnaire, survey techniques and observations were made where appropriate.

Key Words: Homelessness, Social Work, Darülaceze, Türkiye, Germany, Slovenia.

INTRODUCTION: HOMELESSNESS WITHIN SOCIAL CHANGE

Homelessness has become a current social problem because of some reasons such as urbanization, industrialization, be refugee status as a result of wars, unemployment, migrations because of poverty, alcohol and drug addiction, mental illnesses, terrorism, domestic violence and natural disasters. It has increasingly reached a feared significant problem for all countries. Although seen throughout human history, homelessness has not been a living problem in the recent years.

There are 100 million homeless in the world according to the reports of the United Nations (The report on the homeless in Turkey, 2011). These are the people who do not have a place to stay in and live in the streets (Parks, under stairs, in doorways, under bridges) or in refugee camps.

Homelessness was seen as a major problem especially in many European Union member countries and developed and industrialized countries of the world and social scientists have done some researches on this issue.

Aim of the study is to identify psychological, sociological and economic problems of individuals who do not have a place used as a shelter of their own or rented; to compare the services for homeless people in Turkey, Germany and Slovenia; and to provide recommendations for the prevention of homelessness.

For this purpose, the questionnaire which was prepared in Turkish, English, German and Slovenian language has been applied to some homeless people living in Turkey, Germany and Slovenia. The questionnaire is limited to a total of 20 questions which eight are open-ended and 12 closed-ended. The data obtained in the survey are shown "findings and comments" section in the tables and comments have been made according to the results.

In this study, some of the non-governmental organizations related to homelessness located in Istanbul, which is the most populous city in Turkey, the city of Kassel¹ in Germany and the capital city of Slovenia, Ljubljana² were examined. The study is limited to ten social workers, thirty-three homeless, four institutions, three cities and three countries as total. A social worker working in the city of Istanbul, Turkey Darulaceze³ (Hospice) Institution and eleven homeless staying there; a social worker working in the city of Kassel, Germany Soziale Hilfe e.V. Kassel⁴ Institution and eleven homeless staying there; eight social workers working in the city of Ljubljana, Slovenia Kralji Ulice⁵ Institution and eleven homeless staying

¹ This section has been prepared basing on my student Selman Bölükbaşı's (Sakarya University, Faculty of Arts and Sciences, Department of Social Work) final assignment done in 2012 to which I served as a consultant and have directed to study on homeless.

² This section has been prepared basing on my student Selman Bölükbaşı's (Sakarya University, Faculty of Arts and Sciences, Department of Social Work) final assignment done in 2012 to which I served as a consultant and have directed to study on homeless.

³ Darulaceze (Hospice) is the oldest institution serving in Istanbul. It was built in 1896 and put into service Sultan Abdulhamit II's (1842-1918) request to gather beggars, unaccompanied children loitering in the streets, lonely people lying in the courtyard of a mosque and diseased people who lived in Istanbul and to make them the chastening of art and in order to have homeless people end their lives in peace.

The purpose of Darulaceze is to serve those who have born and settled in Istanbul, and those who are disabled and incapable for work, those who have no facilities to ensure the amount of gain, and disabled, infirm and elderly people over 18 years old who have no one legally obliged to take care of themselves in the Istanbul or in the provinces, and those who have been found on the streets, and underprivileged children in the 0-3 age group and the children under protection.

Hospice which is a compassion home has been serving people regardless of religion, language, race, class and gender differences. Here, all the needs of shelter residents such as clothing, shelter, food, health and care are covered by the institution and the service continues 24 hours a day.

Residents' physical examination and treatment services, preventive health services and acute or chronic illness have being treated, in the situations that require further examination and treatment any medical treatment is implemented by establishing links with hospitals. The places of worship of the monotheist religions mosque, church and synagogue are in a combination in the yard of the Hospice that does not exist any country in the world.

These are the service units located within the institution:

Child Care: It is a unit where 0-3 age group street deserted children's all kinds of needs are met (housing, food, clothing, health care).

Semi-Adequate Male Department: It is a unit where all kinds of needs of male residents who partially remedied their daily living activities are met.

Self-sufficient Male Department: It is a unit where all kinds of needs of male residents who can perform their daily living activities without assistance are met.

Bedridden Women's Office: It is a unit where all kinds of needs of female residents who are bed-bounded and do not fulfill all kinds of activities of daily living shelter, food, clothing, health care) are met.

Self-sufficient Female Department: It is a unit where all kinds of needs of female residents who can perform their daily living activities without assistance are met. It has 96 bed capacities (<http://www.darulaceze.gov.tr> e.t.: 23.06.2014).

⁴ Although there are many non-governmental organizations carrying out studies on homeless, the Soziale Hilfe e.V. Kassel we examined as an example in this research has been established on small scale assistance such as aid and housing in 1885. Many voluntary organizations, supporters and sponsors are mobilized support the work of the organization and to improve the status of the city's poorest people. In recent years, it draws attention that the number of young people who want aids has been increasing and the highest rate of them is young women. The actual financing of the organization is covered by Hessen State Administration and the European Social Fund.

The following activities are carried out today in the center of Soziale Hilfe:

Night Mansions: the social services which are provided for homeless not subjected to cold in winter. In cold weather, the accommodation of homeless people at nights is provided with mobile flats or homes.

Panama-Day Accommodation: It is a place where the homeless who have economic and personal problems come to rest and to take counseling danışmanlık almak. It gains importance especially during the cold season. The services offered here include: Lunch is € 1.25, while fruits and tea are free of charge. Toilet, shower and bath services; clothing and finery; washing and drying; the health service, luggage room; financial management; various entertainment and cultural educational activities such as newspapers, magazines, and the Internet; crafts, games and sports activities; social counseling; help for homeless and former prisoners.

Among 4 Wall - Life Women: it is designed for homeless women. The women who are living in unsafe housing, do not have a fixed place at least for two months, released from prison may be substituted for guest houses. The aim is to provide a safe shelter and social issues to develop a personal perspective for women.

Eastern Panama - Regional Office: It helps those who live in Bettenhausen and gives services such as breakfast, counseling, support and leisure.

Kassel prison Counseling: Every day from 14:00 to 16:00, counseling services are given by social workers for those who are in prison and want consulting.

For foreigners: It is the assistance provided to special case of foreign prisoners by Hessen State Government.

Studies in Public Places Support Presentations and Street: It is the support which is provided with local authority for homeless people.

⁵Kralji Ulice, which was founded in the capital Ljubljana and continues to serve in an active way today, is the sample of this research. Kralji Ulice, which means "King of the streets" in Turkish, is a non-governmental organization provides services for the homeless.

The beginning story of the Kralji Ulice is described as follows: In December 2004, Professor. Dr. Razpotnik Špela and a group of social pedagogy students decide to spend 24 hours on the streets with homeless people in a cold winter day. During the time they spend together, the people live on the streets help them. Practitioners saw that the people living on the streets are as not as terrible personality as they appear. In the following days they

there; and a social worker working in Shelter1 Institution. The data were collected using interview and survey techniques and observations were made where appropriate.

1. HOMELESSNESS

Homelessness is the event which some people sustains their lives in public places because they have no shelter of their own. Drake et al (1982) has defined Homeless as "Every single person without his or her home". But Larew described homelessness as "the lack of suitable conditions for settlement and social marginalization," (Türkcan ve Türkcan, quoted from 1996). Under U.S.A. law, homeless is described as the people who do not have a house or a residence, living in the streets and avenues, no appropriate place to sleep at night; the ones who stay at hotels, housing estates, prisons and places for mentally ill that provide temporary living conditions; the ones living in social housing which are under control; the ones living in institutional settings, allowing for temporary housing. Homelessness is described as the status of the process of living such life style (Yağan, 2009). It is known that according to researches, since 1980s in the United States, more than 1.5 million people become to live on the streets, about 3 million people do not have a place to live for, and 13.5 million people living in this country are homeless at some time in their lives (Plumb, 1997).

Homelessness is a prism that reflects especially the frustrations of housing, welfare, education, health services and the justice system. This complex social phenomenon opposed to the basic definitions and resists against easy solutions. Homeless are not just the people whose opportunities and options are limited by poverty, but also those who are restricted because of mental illness, drug abuse, physical and sexual violence, ignorance, complex medical problems and advancing years. When the subject focuses on the studies are examined, it is emphasized that poverty is not the only reason for homelessness. Alcoholism, drug addiction and mental illness are the features which also seen in homeless people. Poverty and inflation, reduction in earning power and opportunities, economic downturn, industrialization and however resulting unemployment, lack of social security policies are defined the main reasons for homelessness (Baum ve Burness, 1993).

gather various aids to help people who are homeless and make necessary arrangements with organizations. In May 2005, the first number (say) of the first Slovenian Street Magazin (Street Papers / Straßenmagazin) related to social subjects with homelessness printed and sold by homeless people. Kralji Ulice charity was established by the homeless in September 2005. In July 2006, Newspaper Distribution and the editorial Center of Kralji Ulice started to give service at Poljanska Cesta 14. In October 2009, it moved to its present location the Prazakova 6. In the Institution, some activities and services such as book reading, information retrieval, talk to social workers and volunteers, keeping their belongings, using computer and internet, eating and drinking something are given for the homeless. In 2008, the Norway model is applied as a pilot project and apartments for the homeless were rented to live in one and a half years. By 2011, there were 5 apartments with this project and 18 people living in Ljubljana.

The following activities are constantly organized at this institution:

Street Broadcast magazine: The number of 62 published until July 2011 and sales reached 10.000 each month.

Street Magazine Sales and Distribution: there have been 300 sellers so far. 80 people sell monthly. Sellers buy a magazine for € 0.50 and sell € 1 on the street.

Under the Stars College: it is a kind of open education planned with limited facilities for individuals who are socially excluded. At this training some activities are carried out such as social organizations, cultural and educational workshops, theater, video, music, language, and computer and so on.

Field Work and Social Work: healthy vehicles for safe use of drugs and syringes are provided at field works. Within the social works; counseling, monitoring, parity and communication services are provided for homeless people who stay on the streets, unsafe housing, shelters and other institutions and organizations such as hospitals, prisons and so on.

Volunteer Working: a tutorial basic education and social services are given for future social workers. In addition, the opportunity to work as a volunteer with homeless people is offered to students who study in faculty of education and social services.

Empowerment of People Deprived of Social Rights: It is a kind of information point. It comprises the services such as social assistance, consulting, internet and telephone usage, hot drinks and light meals, second-hand clothes, money storage, donation distribution and so on.

¹ Shelter is a special part of the program for the Centre of Social Services in the center of Ljubljana. It is the first shelter for the homeless in Slovenia and the model was the starting point for a network of similar programs throughout the country. There are five staffs; a social worker and four volunteer and another five professional staffs work at the part of the container. Although 86% of financial instruments have come from the city and the other countries, the rest of the tools are provided by donors for users. This institution offers low possibility programs for the survival of people living on the streets. With the efforts of volunteers new conditions have been created for the users to benefit actively from here. People who use containers as shelter were collected in three groups (Kosec, n.d):

Shelter-Residence: It is a program that provides social support and functionality. It provides social services such as accommodation, food, clothing and footwear, maintenance of hygiene for 24-hour. It is reserved for homeless people residing in the community of Ljubljana for the last time. Users from the other communities can provide accommodation only under special conditions. Shelter can not be completely filled in order to help people in need in case of emergency.

Food Distribution: Hot meal is given once in a day. Food distribution is done by approximately 100 people. During visits, if the homeless want, they can be laundered. It is open for the homeless from 11:00 to 13:00 every day and until 15:00 peak days. The highest rate who benefited from the distribution of food is the retired people. However, the other users are young people, alcohol and drug addicts. Most of people who benefited from service have social problems as well as psychic disorders.

Shelter for the night: the program has become operational since 2005. The only requirement to use the service and to be accepted to the shelters is to obey the rules respectfully.

Homelessness, which is a serious social problem, has begun to be felt increasingly in Turkey too. Problems such as migrations from villages to cities, housing problem and unemployment have been caused to homelessness. Apart from these, problems such as rapid population growth of cities as a result of migration from villages to cities, unplanned urbanization, lack of appropriate infrastructure (basis/bases), divorces, lack of social security, low income, not to benefit from health services enough, inadequate and unbalanced nutrition, drug addiction constitute a significant social destruction for people. The number of unhealthy and problematic people has been multiplying, in parallel with this; the number of homeless people in the streets of big cities has rapidly been increasing day by day (Altun, 1997).

1.1. Types of Homelessness

Smith (2000), İihan and Ergün (2010) made three types of classifications about homelessness. These are:

Episodic homelessness: The ones, who are likely to remain homeless from time to time, live below the poverty line and faced with the risk of becoming homeless constantly.

Temporary homelessness: The ones whose homelessness is not a very long time. Unlike the homeless people, they describe themselves as a part of the society. Anxiety, depression symptoms, alcohol and substance abuse can be seen at this type of homeless. Their lifestyles are not accepted. They strive to regain their homes, jobs and social status.

Chronic homelessness: Kind of ongoing long-term or repeated homelessness. They accept to live on the streets as normal and clearly identified as homeless. They are very skeptical at communications with other individuals in the society.

1.2. Reasons of Homelessness

Homelessness, depending on Industrialization and globalization, is one of the major social problems felt in every country in the world. There are several theories attempting to explain the cause of homelessness. These are: systematic reasons theory, personal inadequacy theory, victim model theory, aggrieved model theory.

According to the systematic reasons theory homelessness occurs as a result of inadequate or failed mental health policies, high unemployment rate and lack of opportunities such as inadequate housing. The theory of personal inadequacy accepts alcoholism, drug addiction, and mental illness, lack of social relations, not to take responsibility, laziness or free lifestyles as the causes of homelessness. While victim model theory describes homelessness as remaining of individuals helpless in difficult life conditions (Özdemir, 2010), aggrieved model theory describes as the lack of adequate social support and problem solving skills (Van, 1993).

Roth and Bean (1986) show the causes of homelessness in their studies as in the following:

Deinstitutionalization: The process of reducing a person's dependence on an institutional environment, the practice of moving people (especially those with developmental disability) from mental institutions into community-based or family-based environments. The releasing of institutionalized individuals from institutional care (as in a psychiatric hospital) to care in the community.

Economic factors: unemployment, poverty, lack of opportunities to obtain suitable housing, imbalances in the distribution of wages and so on.

Social issues: the parents, relatives and friends of homeless would not adapt to them or do not wish to adapt to them, marital problems, previously being lived in a variety of care institutions and so on.

1.3. Shelters of Homeless: Health, Food and Drink and Clothing

During the summer months, many of them stay at parks, gardens, walkways, park benches. However, in the winter months, they will have to find indoor and sheltered places such as ATMs, under bridges, bus and train stations, abandoned houses to avoid themselves from cold and rain. They have been trying to protect themselves from the wind and rain using discarded cardboard boxes or old sponges as beds most of the time.

Generally, they continue their lives with the money and food given by public and the shopkeepers. Some of them eat food collected from the garbage and, they wear old clothes. They can not figure out health problems because they have no money and social security. When they are ill, they either wait for self-healing or wait for the suffering end. Due to cold, hunger and inadequate sanitation they face to all kinds of diseases.

2. RESULTS AND COMMENTS

The questionnaire about the homeless in Turkey, Germany and Slovenia was prepared in Turkish, English, German and Slovenian languages. It is limited to a total of 20 questions which 8 of them are open-ended and 12 closed-ended. The data obtained as a result of questionnaire is shown in the following tables.

According to some researches, more than half of the homeless people are men, but according to some researches done in recent years it has shown that the numbers of homeless women are more than men. It is understood that this situation is related to domestic violence and one third of homeless women left their home because of they faced to istismar and they become homeless (Yağın, 2009).

Analyzing the data of Table 2, the distribution of homelessness according to sex it is seen that the proportion of men (78.8%) is more than women. Furthermore, when every country is compared among them it is understood that the homeless rate of men is almost the same but the homeless men in the homeless population are more than women. In my opinion the reason of this can be explained by women can easily find a place for accomodation than men and the number of woman shelter houses are more than man shelter houses.

According to the data of table 3 it is understood that the rate of unmarried is at the first place and most of the homeless are unmarried. There is no relation between the development level of countries and marital status. It can be said that not having a continuous housing has affected the marital status of homeless and made it difficult to have a relationship with the gender.

Considering the number of homeless children in Table 4, it is understood that a large proportion of homeless people, such as 66.7% have no children. And the ones with children only have one or two. In the study, there is no significant relationship between the number of children and the rate of development of countries.

Considering the general level of education of homeless people in total (Table 5), it is understood that, 15.2% not have any education, 39.4% graduated from primary school, 24.2% graduated from secondary school, 12.1% graduated from high school and 9.1% graduated from colleges or universities. Although the data show that most of the homeless are graduated from primary school, at the same the data reveals the fact that higher education graduates might be homeless too.

When the countries compared on the basis of homelessness and education; it is understood that in Turkey the level of education increases, the rate of homelessness has decreased (Table 5). In Germany, the absence of homeless without education whereas people who have higher education are homeless is noteworthy. In Slovenia, there is proximity to each level of education the proportion of people who are homeless.

As it is shown in Table 6; 12.1% of homeless people's parents are alive and the mother and father were married, 18.2% of their mothers are alive, 6.1% of their fathers are alive. 42.4% of their parents have died, and 21.2% of thier both mother and fathers are alive, but live separately. According to this result, it is understood that the vast majority of homeless people's (42.4%) mothers and fathers are not alive. This result should be seen as the basic indicator of the family which serves a protector duty in society. It is likely to be homeless when taking any moral and material support from the family. However, in the case of if the father is still alive being homeless rate is low compared to the mother is still alive. This should be regarded as a sign of father who is seen as a source of income in the family and who provides the necessary economic support of the child.

One of the applicants in Slovenia stated being his cause of homelessness as his mother chuck out him of the house. In the EU countries, families cut subsidies due to economic and personal independence of children after 18 years, so this situation can be among the reasons for the high number of homeless in these countries. In Turkey, where the traditional structure is dominated, the children (girls or boys) are separated from their parents after marrying and starting a business. Even they continue to get the support from their parents lifelong.

According to Table 7, 54.5% of homeless people live alone and 27.3% of homeless people live with friend(s). These two rates are higher than the others shows that homeless prefer to live alone or with close friends and colleagues environment.

When we compare the data by countries, it is seen that as the countries developed, the loneliness rates of the homeless are increasing and in Germany it is seen the highest level. In Turkey homeless people prefer to live with friends and groups.

When we examine how many of those who participated in the study were homeless at what age, it is understood that the highest frame rate is 39.4%, with the age group of 18-30; and the other rates are close to each other (15.2% 0-17, 18.2% of 31 - 44: 21, 2% 45-59% 6.1 's 60 years of age and older). This shows homelessness starts at any age.

There has not been established any relationship between the development level of countries and homelessness. It is seen that in all three countries, homelessness starts since the age of 18. Another feature of the homeless people is it is their choice to live on the streets. A large part of these people refuse to enter an institution and live under the rules and regulations. It is indicated that homelessness has a cyclic structure; the majority of homeless people left the prevention (housing) system within two years after they are included the system (Karamustafaloğlu, 2007).

As shown in Table 9 when asked how long they were homeless, according to the study the average 12.8 months in Turkey, Slovenia, 22.7 months and 38.1 months in Germany. The average of the countries is 24.5 months.

According to these data, Turkey is below the overall average, Slovenia is close to the overall average and Germany is above the overall average. So, it can be said that there is a direct correlation between time of being homeless and the development level of countries.

While long-term homelessness is common in Germany, temporary and short-term homelessness is mentioned in Turkey. In the period the questionnaire was applied it was encountered that there was culture of homelessness in Germany and some of the applicants have stated that it was their own choices to be homeless. It is possible to show this situation among the long-term causes of homelessness.

According to the data in Table 10, 39.4% of the homelesses never exposed to oppression and violence, but 36.4% of them exposed to psychological, and 24.2% of them exposed to physical oppression and violence. None of the homeless in the survey mentioned that they were exposed to other types of domestic violence or oppression.

In Turkey and Slovenia, while physical pressure and violence leave its place to psychological pressure and violence, in Germany, being more advanced country, physical violence and repression surpassed the psychological pressure and violence. According to the interview results identified, in Slovenia, it was understood that the homeless people were humiliated as the form of "Why do you not work, find a job? Why do you lazy around, dirty guys? Do we have to feed you?" as psychological pressure and violence. The homeless in Turkey stated that they exposed to physical oppression and violence from the thinner addicted individuals.

According to the data Table11, it is understood that 39.4% of the homeless benefited from non-governmental organization or any charity organisations; 21.2% of them benefited from the state and state institutions and agencies, 21.2% of them benefited from religious institutions and organizations; 12.1% of them benefited from other sources.

When these data were evaluated according to the countries, it is understood that in Turkey, the homeless benefited from religious institutions and agencies are in majority (54.5%), while rate receiving assistance from the state is 9.1%. In Slovenia, religious institutions and organizations left their places to civil society organizations and charities (54.5%). In Germany, individuals are both benefited from non-governmental organizations and charities as well as government and state institutions in the same proportions (45.5%) and supported by aid. Thus, it is understood that Germany provides more powerful support to the homeless compared to other countries which constitute the sample.

When the data in the Table 12 are examined, it is understood that 78.8% of homeless people always smoke; 6.1% of them occasionally smoke; 15.2% of them are non-smokers. Accordingly, it can be said that the vast majority of homeless people are smokers; there is no significant relationship between the country's development level and homelessness-smoking rate.

According to the data Table 13, when "yes" and "occasionally" items taken together, it is understood that the rates of homeless who use and not use alcohol is close to each other. When we compare the countries, it is noted that the "occasionally" ratio is equal in Turkey and Slovenia. In Germany the rate of alcohol use of homeless people is less than expected, because beer can be accepted as a traditional beverage and not a spirit. In Turkey, a "yes" can not expressed because drunken people are not welcome to stay or shelter in the state-owned or private institutions.

Information obtained from open-ended questions of the questionnaire can be briefly summarized as follows according to the countries:

Turkey:

Reasons of homelessness: Earthquake, unemployment, migration, economic, terror, war and conflict.

Result of homelessness: negative impact on social welfare and community communication, abstraction of individuals themselves from society.

Social security: Most of them have no health insurance; a few of them have green cards.

Health problems: common cold, pneumonia, cancer.

Whose decision to be homelessness: According to most of them it is not their decision, but they are homeless due to unavoidable reasons.

Demands: They want the state to increase business opportunities and support its citizens.

Advices: Strengthening of social guarantees, to provide home and job opportunities to the poors, to treatate patients.

Germany:

Reasons of homelessness: Loss of housing, unemployment, statelessness, economic, freedom, disease and war against capitalism.

Results of homelessness: it does not affect social welfare and social communication

Social security: Almost all of them have health insurance, and most of them Krankenkasse and AOK1.

Health problems: a few of them are tuberculosis.

Whose decision to be homelessness: according to most of them it is not their decision; they are homeless because of reasons mentioned above; there are individuals who indicates that to be homeless is their decision, those who say they live such a life to lead away from the imperialist world set the culture of homelessness and there are people who have adopted the culture of homelessness.

Demands: more social housing.

Advices: fight against the homelessness and capitalism

Slovenia:

Reasons of homelessness: The biggest factor is drug addiction, then expel from the family, later immigration, economy and unemployment.

Reasons of homelessness: The biggest factor is drug addiction, then expel from the family, later immigration, economy and unemployment.

Social security: Partial health insurance as required by the State.

Health problems: Drug addiction.

Whose decision to be homelessness: Inevitably reasons.

Demands: They want the Government to make more homes and ease of construction policies.

Advices: Never use of addictible drugs.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

It is understood that, the services offered and the studies conducted on homelessness, which has become one of the increasing social problems in recent years, differ according to the societies. In this study it is found out that the phenomenon of homelessness is not seen as an important problem in Turkey, so the social services and assistance offered by the state for homeless people is not continuous, and the aids made mostly through charitable people and religious organizations (54.5%). This situation reveals the need for non-governmental organizations in our country. On contrast in Germany, the ones who get aids from the state government agencies and organizations (45.5%) is higher besides the non-governmental organization or charitable institutions. In Slovenia, the number of those who get aids from non-governmental organizations or charities (54.5%) are higher than the others.

It is understood that when the development levels of countries increases, the age of being homelessness increases too. In general, it is found out that the rate of homeless according to gender, men; according to marital status, singles; according to the number of children, people without children were more than. Almost half of the homeless people's parents (42.4%) are dead and more than half (54.5%) of homeless live alone. This situation emphasizes how necessary for human to live under the roof of a family being as a social creature and in need of nursing care (See Tables).

¹ Local Public Health Insurance Funds

Although the majority of homeless people had low educational level, there are also homeless people who had higher education. There is a direct relation between the development level of countries and duration of being homeless. While the vast majority of homeless people (78.8%) are smoking, the habit of using alcohol is not as high as the same ratio.

As a result, when the state's organizations are not enough in these areas it will be beneficial to the welfare of society to provide service to all kinds of people in need by increasing the number of non-governmental organizations, charitable associations and foundations. Especially in Turkey, it is recommended that governorships and municipalities, particularly in large cities, should establish houses, residences and social institutions which give permanent services to homeless people and citizens; the state should provide economic support to persons that establish such institutions; in these institutions, homeless people's all kinds of needs - material and spiritual- care, treatment and rehabilitation should be provided by the relevant staff; phone service should be provided so that to report the people living on the streets to the authorized persons and organizations; inter-agency cooperation should work in coordination with each other; the donations and benefits which given by the charitable organizations and religious institutions should spread throughout the year; some activities and vocational training should be done for the suitable persons to have a profession.

Briefly, the following can be said about these three countries: The homeless people do not have economic power to provide services to meet their basic needs and self-care. Staying on the streets for a long time and the negativity of living conditions lead to various health problems on these persons (such as schizophrenia, arthritis, pneumonia, drug addiction, etc.). These people living on the streets are faced to all kinds of social danger and risks. Their lives are put at risk by the mafia of organs and gangs of beggars. Therefore, many institutions and disciplines should cooperate with each other when creating services for homeless people. For this purpose, it must be performed that shelter, care and basic needs of homeless people should be provided; health problems should be eliminated; by making home calls, the ones who have family should be ensured to return to their family; and the ones who have no family should be placed into a permanent organization where they can take care and rehabilitation services.

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TABLES

Age		Country			Total
		Turkey	Slovenia	Germany	
0-17	Number	1	0	0	1
	%	9,1%	0%	0%	3,0%
18-30	Number	5	3	1	9
	%	45,5%	27,3%	9,1%	27,3%
31-44	Number	2	5	2	9
	%	18,2%	45,5%	18,2%	27,3%
45-59	Number	2	2	6	10
	%	18,2%	18,2%	54,5%	30,3%
60+	Number	1	1	2	4
	%	9,1%	9,1%	18,2%	12,1%
Total	Number	11	11	11	33
	%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Marital status		Country			Total
		Turkey	Slovenia	Germany	
Single	Number	8	6	7	21
	%	72,7%	54,5%	63,6%	63,6%
Have partner	Number	2	2	3	7
	%	18,2%	18,2%	27,3%	21,2%
Married	Number	0	1	0	1
	%	0%	9,1%	0%	3,0%
Seperated	Number	1	2	1	4
	%	9,1%	18,2%	9,1%	12,1%
Total	Number	11	11	11	33
	%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Number of child		Country			Total
		Turkey	Slovenia	Germany	
0	Number	10	5	7	22
	%	90,9%	45,5%	63,6%	66,7%
1	Number	0	3	1	4
	%	0%	27,3%	9,1%	12,1%
2	Number	1	2	0	3
	%	9,1%	18,2%	0%	9,1%
3	Number	0	0	2	2
	%	0%	0%	18,2%	6,1%
4	Number	0	0	1	1
	%	0%	0%	9,1%	3,0%
5	Number	0	1	0	1
	%	0%	9,1%	0%	3,0%
Total	Number	11	11	11	33
	%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Status of Parents		Country			Total
		Turkey	Slovenia	Germany	
Both alive and married	Number	1	2	1	4
	%	9,1%	18,2%	9,1%	12,1%
Mother alive	Number	3	0	3	6
	%	27,3%	0%	27,3%	18,2%
Father alive	Number	1	1	0	2
	%	9,1%	9,1%	0%	6,1%
Both dead	Number	4	5	5	14
	%	36,4%	45,5%	45,5%	42,4%
Both alive but separated	Number	2	3	2	7
	%	18,2%	27,3%	18,2%	21,2%
Total	Number	11	11	11	33
	%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Homeless age		Country			Total
		Turkey	Slovenia	Germany	
0-17	Number	3	1	1	5
	%	27,3%	9,1%	9,1%	15,2%
18-30	Number	4	6	3	13
	%	36,4%	54,5%	27,3%	39,4%
31-44	Number	1	3	2	6
	%	9,1%	27,3%	18,2%	18,2%
45-59	Number	2	1	4	7
	%	18,2%	9,1%	36,4%	21,2%
60+	Number	1	0	1	2
	%	9,1%	0%	9,1%	6,1%
Toplam	Number	11	11	11	33
	%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Table 9: How Long They Have Homeless (Monthly)

Duration		Country			Average
		Turkey	Slovenia	Germany	
Month		12.8	22.7	38.1	24.5

Gender		Country			Total
		Turkey	Slovenia	Germany	
Woman	Number	2	2	3	7
	%	18,2%	18,2%	27,3%	21,2%
Man	Number	9	9	8	26
	%	81,8%	81,8%	72,7%	78,8%
Total	Number	11	11	11	33
	%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Table 10: What Kind of Pressure and Violence They Encounter From Outside

Pressure and violence		Country			Total
		Turkey	Slovenia	Germany	
No	Number	2	3	8	13
	%	18,2%	27,3%	72,7%	39,4%
Physical	Number	4	2	2	8
	%	36,4%	18,2%	18,2%	24,2%
Psychological	Number	5	6	1	12
	%	45,5%	54,5%	9,1%	36,4%
Total	Number	11	11	11	33
	%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Life-style		Country			Total
		Turkey	Slovenia	Germany	
Alone	Number	4	6	8	18
	%	36,4%	54,5%	72,7%	54,5%
With friend/s	Number	6	1	2	9
	%	54,5%	9,1%	18,2%	27,3%
With mother and/or father	Number	0	1	0	1
	%	,0%	9,1%	,0%	3,0%
With spouse	Number	0	2	0	2
	%	,0%	18,2%	,0%	6,1%
With boy/girl friend	Number	1	0	1	2
	%	9,1%	,0%	9,1%	6,1%
Other	Number	0	1	0	1
	%	,0%	9,1%	,0%	3,0%
Total	Number	11	11	11	33
	%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Resources and Help Places		Country			Total
		Turkey	Slovenia	Germany	
State/Foundations belong to state	Number	1	1	5	7
	%	9,1%	9,1%	45,5%	21,2%
NGO	Number	2	6	5	13
	%	18,2%	54,5%	45,5%	39,4%
Religious foundations	Number	6	1	0	7
	%	54,5%	9,1%	,0%	21,2%
Red Crescent/ Red Cross	Number	0	1	0	1
	%	,0%	9,1%	,0%	3,0%
Family and relatives	Number	0	1	0	1
	%	,0%	9,1%	,0%	3,0%
Other	Number	2	1	1	4
	%	18,2%	9,1%	9,1%	12,1%
Total	Number	11	11	11	33
	%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Table 5: Status of Education

Status of Education		Country			Total
		Turkey	Slovenia	Germany	
Illiterate	Number	3	2	0	5
	%	27,3%	18,2%	,0%	15,2%
Primary	Number	3	4	6	13
	%	27,3%	36,4%	54,5%	39,4%
Secondary	Number	3	2	3	8
	%	27,3%	18,2%	27,3%	24,2%
High school	Number	2	1	1	4
	%	18,2%	9,1%	9,1%	12,1%
University	Number	0	2	1	3
	%	,0%	18,2%	9,1%	9,1%
Total	Number	11	11	11	33
	%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Alcohol Use		Country			Total
		Turkey	Slovenia	Germany	
Yes	Number	0	3	5	8
	%	,0%	27,3%	45,5%	24,2%
Sometimes	Number	4	4	1	9
	%	36,4%	36,4%	9,1%	27,3%
No	Number	7	4	5	16
	%	63,6%	36,4%	45,5%	48,5%
Total	Number	11	11	11	33
	%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Smoking		Country			Total
		Turkey	Slovenia	Germany	
Yes	Number	7	11	8	26
	%	63,6%	100,0%	72,7%	78,8%
Sometimes	Number	1	0	1	2
	%	9,1%	,0%	9,1%	6,1%
No	Number	3	0	2	5
	%	27,3%	,0%	18,2%	15,2%
Total	Number	11	11	11	33
	%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Smoking		Country			Total
		Turkey	Slovenia	Germany	
Yes	Number	7	11	8	26
	%	63,6%	100,0%	72,7%	78,8%
Sometimes	Number	1	0	1	2
	%	9,1%	,0%	9,1%	6,1%
No	Number	3	0	2	5
	%	27,3%	,0%	18,2%	15,2%
Total	Number	11	11	11	33
	%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Analysis of Quality of Life Domains in Emergency Hospital Services Personnel. Case Study: ICU Medical Team

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Abstract

Based on the demarcation professional group of which we want to investigate in the sociological perspective, we emphasize that our work is part of a multidisciplinary approach generated by very complex professional roles of the participants in our research. We note that the multidisciplinary aspect is associated with the presence of elements of the sociology and psychology confluence, however, we maintain the appearance of multi-disciplinary research approach towards the conceptualization and sociological operationalization of social relations and psychological impacts in the investigated facts. Medical practice is a mix of relationships, facts, phenomena and socio-medical processes subordinated to a major subsystem of society: health care system. Coming out of the sphere of medical sociology specific topics, we decided circumscribing our research field outside medical social relations such as: socio-cultural determinants of health and illness, the sociological and psychological aspects of the therapeutic relationship physician-patient, medicine as a social institution, social etiology of disease, etc. We restricted the research to a well-defined social environment: hospital emergency medical clinic called ICU and specific issues arising from professional roles of social actors (doctors and nurses) working in this area. More specifically, we wanted to investigate sociological and psychological aspects of these roles in interaction with specific professional environment, from a dual perspective. First, we have investigated an objective perspective of medical team: access to professional development, access to socio-emotional leaders with recognized medical skills, access to medical information technology and performance, and in terms of factors (professional activities / relationships) that are specific to generate satisfaction of medical practice in the Intensive Care Unit. Second, we have investigated a subjective perspective: interaction of personality traits with job satisfaction and individual system of reference values. The investigation carried out on the two social groups- physicians and nurses- have the form of a qualitative research through interviews and questionnaires, on a small sample of subjects, and is a preliminary testing of a comprehensive future research.

Keywords: Emergency Medical Services, Professional Development, Medical Leaders, Professional Activities / Relationships, Medical Practice Satisfaction, Personality Traits- Job Satisfaction - Reference Values System, Interviews

Introduction

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ICU (gr. "therapeia": to heal, to care") is the specialty of intensive medicine in which the patients in a very severe state are permanently assisted by medical staff in special wards ("resuscitation"); considered medical departments of maximum emergency. The patients admitted are patients with altered vital functions or damaged organs which put their lives at risk (life-threatening) and who require continuous medical monitoring and/or support of vital functions.

From a functional and organizational perspective we note some distinct characteristics of the medical environment in the Intensive Care Unit: complex, invasive and rapid medical techniques, modern medical technology, mechanical support of human vital functions, very little communication time with the patient, fast medical maneuvers, high risk of therapeutic maneuvers, patients with significantly impaired functional autonomy, high and permanent turnover of the number of clinical cases, medical casuistry with a high degree of gravity, high number of deaths in patients.

In this functional environment, the human socius has specific characteristics.

a) Quality of life of patients is presented in a clarifying summary: PTSD with prevalence between 17 and 22% among survivors of ICU, according to a meta-analysis (Davydow DS., Gifford JM., Desai SV., Needham DM, Bienvenu OJ., 2008) which took account of studies in the U.S., UK and several European countries. Other studies also consider other psychological consequences (Jackson JC., PsyD, Mitchell N., Hopkins RO., PhD, Criticalcare Database, 2009) of the psychotraumatizing environment of the ICU: delirium 80%, cognitive deficits 70% at discharge, 45% after 1 year, depression 25-50% at discharge, 26-33% at 6 months (a study in 13 ICU units), 58% at 2 years, 37% still taking antidepressant medication 2 years after discharge, anxiety 23-41%, with generative mechanisms: organ dysfunction, medications, pain, sleep deprivation, caused by specific ICU (Intensive Care Unit) treatment, activation of stress by means of the hypothalamic-pituitary axis, hypoxemia, transmission dysfunctions of the neurotransmitters due to brain injuries, especially traumatic stress disorder.

b) Quality of the medical staff's life is related to the activity with the patients, but has dynamic aspects specific to a distinct professional society. The medical doctors are not only social actors who have contact and intervene in man's relationship with the disease, with health, with dead or human suffering. The life of a professional category depends on the functional specificity of the professional environment, on the social mechanisms that intermingle roles and substantiate professional statuses, on the choices and decisions using the contents of the profession, on the values and characteristics of the social group and on the values and personality traits of each individual in the group. All this complex structure comprises multiple domains in which the quality of life can be assessed, measured and changed.

In research literature, the concept of quality of life involves definitions which present its components and areas of applicability, some of them pointing out the advantage of multidisciplinary of its content, others emphasizing the dual valence, subjective-objective, of the indicators measured. This concept was the core of political, ideological, philosophical and sociological concerns in Western capitalism in the 60s - 70s in Romania being introduced in the 70s - 80s (Zamfir, C., 1976).

The structure of the quality of the medical staff's life, targeted by our research is based on several main approaches to the concept of the quality of life:

a) A complex and comprehensive definition of the quality of life expresses the determinant-defining elements (welfare, human development, quality of society, social exclusion / inclusion, etc.), which means it will include: physical conditions, social, economic cultural, political, health status and so on in which people live, the content and nature of the activities that they perform, the characteristics of relationships and social processes in which they participate, the goods and services that are available, the consumption models adopted, lifestyles, assessment of circumstances and outcomes of activities performed, subjective states of satisfaction / dissatisfaction, happiness, frustration, etc.. (coord. Marginean, I. Balasa, A., 2005).

From this approach we extracted for this research paper the following social indicators concerned: research subjects' perception on the content and nature of activities, satisfaction with the results of activities performed, social relationships in the professional group concerned (doctors in ICU) peer relationships and relationships with people who can provide support / expertise (group leaders), impact on lifestyle (leisure, time spent on family, friends, their development).

b) Another definition of the concept useful in addressing this research is that of Constanza, R. (2008), according to whom the concept of quality of life is "the degree to which the objective needs of the individual are met in relation to subjective, individual or group perception on welfare". The author describes the objective needs in relation to subsistence, reproduction, security, affection, and so on, while the subjective perception aims at happiness, satisfaction with life and personal utility.

From this approach we extracted for our research work the following social indicators concerned: the social role in the family (type of emotional / financial support assumed), the perceived level of integration, cooperation and emotional support in the professional group, the perceived level of the ability of empathy, of professional stress management, of personal growth.

c) The approach in terms of "capabilities" of the concept of quality of life according to Nussbaum & Sen (1993), expands the content of the concept from resource to its ability to obtain valuable functionality (the ability of a person to gain valuable acts or reach valuable states). In his approach, Sen says that life is a combination of "states and actions" and that the quality of life is measured by, "the capability to obtain valuable functionality". Functionalities represent "parts of a person's mood - in particular, various things that the person succeeds to represent or do throughout their lifetime". This approach in

terms of capabilities and functionalities focuses on individual personality and extends the concept of the quality of life beyond resources, goods, wealth, etc.

From this approach we extracted for this research paper the following social indicators concerned: the subjective social content (eg, job satisfaction, etc..) and the objective content (eg access to medical technology, to educational resources, etc..), motivation, perception on the professional choices and decisions.

d) In continuation of this approach, Alkire (2008) brings on a clarification of the concept of quality of life: the quality of life derives from emotional states, and these states are not limited by material means.

Based on the extension of the concept of quality of life towards individual personality and states of mind, we decided to use variables derived from the personality of our research subjects (personality and temperamental traits) and from their reference value system. The socialization process of each subject formed sets of individual values that will influence the choices and preferences (eds.Voicu, B., Voicu, M., 2008). Thus, the indicators covered by our research are: the level of emotional capacity, the level of activism and the type of reactivity to the environment (primary type vs. secondary type, after Berger's G. typology (1950). From the perspective of the reference value system, we considered individual pro-social orientation focused on humanitarian group values and communion (traditional values) vs. pro-technology, progressive individual orientation focused on individualistic group values and competency-competitive (survival values).

This research has covered the range of areas and indicators of quality of life status by means of qualitative methods. This enabled the development of case studies included to outline the specificity of profession outside and inside the human being (Atkinson, R., 2006) who is committed to practice in a specialty so complex and difficult to describe in universal medical landscape: ICU.

Method: Type of research: qualitative

Participants

Incorporated analysis units: 12 practicing medical doctors in the ICU medical department, aged between 35 and 46 years old, amongst whom 9 women subjects and 3 male subjects. The professional seniority of the 12 subjects is between 10 and 20 years.

Research methodology (data sources and research methods)

1) Interviews - semi-structured, intensive and comprehensive, based on a depth interview guide.

In our research, these interviews had an exploratory purpose. We are currently in the process of selecting a representative sample of the same professional category, the sample within which the problems identified in our series of interviews were structured on specific areas of analysis, so as to allow for the statistical data processing. Statistical reporting (along with the data from our qualitative research extension) is destined for the awareness (Babbie, E., 2010) about the quality of life in the medical profession, for the area of social policies implemented in the medical system and health programs.

2) Observation - direct and participatory

Direct observation protocol included: types of professional behavior and dynamic of roles between social actors in the same professional group, observing the hierarchical relationships and the equal roles, and the implications of social status in the patient-physician-patient's caregiver relationship.

Participatory observation was facilitated by the researcher assuming a functional role within the organization, in this case, the role of psychologists participating in the interactions between the social actors involved: physicians, other members of the healthcare team, nurses, patients and their social or emotional support groups. Another benefit of the participation is the one pointed out by Michael Bloor (1997), in the sense of increasing the research depth over the sociological issues of health and medicine due to the pre-existing relation between the researcher and the practitioners.

3) The testing method – an evaluation test was used to reveal the dominant temperamental traits (Joues, J. P.,2000).

Materials

1) The interview-guide form: it contained items structured on 6 dimensions, operationalized in a total number of 40 indicators of state and level, as following :

a) Socio-demographic data: 1. age, 2. gender, 3. medical specialty, 4. professional degree, 5. work seniority, 6. type of work contract, 7. dwelling house (congruence "residence-place of work", dwelling place level of satisfaction), 8. marital status, 9. role in the personal family system, 10. wages linked level of satisfaction, 11. congruence level between the real and the expected level of remuneration.

b) History and self-perception in the profession: 1. current level of professional satisfaction, 2. another place of work (and the related satisfaction level), 3. the motivation in choosing this profession, 4. key-sources of individual interest and professional attraction in this type of medical specialty, 5. key-sources of individual difficulty and stress in this type of medical specialty, 6. fields of attraction and difficulty at the beginning of the carrier (technology and medical techniques, information, professional regulations and tasks, professional relations), 7. the individual time necessary for the adapting to this difficulties, 8. current perception and affinity/personal abilities for certain fields in this medical specialty (medical technology, professional information, professional expertise, professional relations, regulations and tasks, medical techniques), 9. the impact in time of the profession over the following fields: spare time, leisure time with significant persons/family, duration and quality of sleep, the self-perceived level of the personal health, the self-described level of personal energy, emotional sensibility, the capacity to empathize and the ability to communicate with other social participants (patients, colleagues and significant persons), the ability to manage the professional stress. 10. the perceived current level of these indicators. 11. the sign of future professional expectations in the current conditions.

c) Personality self-perception: 1. personal preoccupations and interests, 2. self-described type of personality (introvert or extrovert focusing, emotional or action-driven style), 3. individual strategies to cope with stress, 4. sanogenetic individual behaviors, 5. non- sanogenetic individual behaviors

d) Carrier development: 1. preferred strategies to develop carrier, specific to the field, 2. individual access level to the offer of education services and professional improvement, 3. the level of individual satisfaction for the offer of education services and professional improvement, 4. types of obstacles related to carrier development/professional improvement.

e) The commitment towards the progress and personal development: 1. personal benefits of human development generated by practicing this profession, 2. investments made for the sake of personal progress, 3. types of obstacles against personal development.

f) Individual perception over objectives and values: 1. personality traits that ensure the professional success, 2. the objectives necessary to obtain the professional competence, 3. social and personal values that are associated to competence and professional success, 4. individual expectations over the objectives and behaviors of formal leaders. 5. real level of satisfaction over the goals and behaviors of the formal leaders, 6. personal axiological scale.

The indicators had, from case to case, three types of answers: binary choices, multiple choices or self-rating on the Lickert scale.

2) The G. Berger Character logical Questionnaire is a questionnaire generated by the character logical French-Dutch school:

a) three fundamental factors of the individual characterial nature (Emotionality vs. Non-Emotionality, Activism vs. Non-Activism and Resonance, expressed as Primarity vs. Secundarity); b) six complementary factors (Extent of the conscience field, Genre polarity, Avidity, Sensorial interests, Tenderness and Intellectual passion).

In our qualitative approach, out of the 90 items in the test, we used the Romanian adaptation of the 3 fundamental factors (which contain a total number of 30 items):

a) Emotionality vs. Non- Emotionality (10 items) – the level of the psychical sensibility to emotions or interior and exterior disturbances

b) Activism vs. Non-Activism (10 items) – the individual's easiness to act, to swim into action.

c) Resonance (Primarity vs Secundarity) (10 items)– repercussion, the resonance of an event over the individual mentality

The three temperamental factors (of 10 items each) use the binary rating.

Procedure

Throughout the months of May - June 2014, direct, half-structured and intensive interviews have been performed, based on the interview guide, with an average of 3 hours per subject.

The G. Berger Character logical Questionnaire needed an average of 5-10 minutes to be integrally filled in by the subjects of the research.

Results

The purpose of our research was to cover comprehensive fields of professional activity, interpersonal relational levels and psychic adjusting mechanisms with effects in the ICU socios field. The following manifest "fields" of the life quality were identified and structured:

a. the relation, „factual variables – economical status”, b. perceived quality of life, c. work (the socio-functional environment and the participation), d. professional human environment

Findings of „Factual Variables - Economical Status”

The level of the economical status is referred to as being higher with the investigation subjects that have a professional activity of approx. 15-20 years as compared to the subjects with a professional activity of 10-15 years.

The marital status and the dwelling place satisfaction do not trigger alone the economic status satisfaction, because the interests for the purchase of goods and other consumption products taking into account the specificity of the age and of personality.

The subjects with small children perceive their economic status as being insufficient.

Another significant aspect is that of the unitary reference by all subjects of the investigation to the level of financial satisfaction through remuneration, as being unsatisfying and incongruent with the quality and responsibility of the work performed.

In what concerns the dynamics of the family roles, the individual assumed support type in the family (mostly emotional vs. mostly financial support) reveals a low satisfaction level over the economical status with the subjects that contribute financially to the family life. The type of emotional support is associated, with the subjects that assumed it in the personal family, with the less important concern and interest for the financial aspect.

Finding of „Perceived Quality of Life”

Concerning the life quality in the fields: free time, leisure activities, time spent with the significant persons (family, friends), personal health, emotional sensibility, subjects showed a significant decrease in all explored items, placing the current level of these aspects, with no exceptions, as being unsatisfying.

As a compensation, it was revealed that the subjects perceive a higher level of satisfaction in what concerns the quality of relations with significant persons, the empathy capacity and the communication skills with colleagues, patients and personal family; the more considerable the professional experience and the duration of the work activity are, the stronger the perception of the qualitative increase in these fields.

The extravert vs. the introvert type of personality and the emotion driven vs. the action driven personality types did not reveal influences on the increase in time of the self-perceived level of empathy or communication ability.

Findings of “Work (the socio-functional environment and the participation)”

The research revealed a differentiation of the current level of professional satisfaction referred by the subjects, depending on the motivation in choosing their profession; the subjects that stated a higher level of professional satisfaction being those that chose the profession from the desire to be a medical doctor and to cure, followed by the subjects that chose the profession because their considered it adequate to their own personality.

The subjects with the lowest degree of actual declared satisfaction proved to be the ones that chose the profession as result of significant losses (deaths or severe illnesses in the family) and those that chose this profession in order to "save lives".

The key sources for personal attraction toward this type of medical specialty were "the challenge", "dynamic adrenaline-packed activity", "the complex and difficult casuistry" and "the satisfaction of solving medical cases with low chances of survival". These represented, according to the subject statements, a substantial moral, intellectual and emotional compensation for the unsatisfactory level of wages. This compensation is valued by the subjects with a rational and competitive orientation more than by those with a predominantly emotional orientation and who prefer to work within a team.

The study subjects have considered the level of difficulty and risk of the composing elements of professional environment (medical technology, medical techniques particular to ICU, professional rules and tasks) as a professional stress sources only by those who share the conviction that they do not possess technical skills and who do not have a predominantly rational and competitive work style.

Findings of " Professional Human Environment"

The subjects who proved a higher self-perceived level of integration in the professional group have been identified as those having a rational and problem-solving working style, as well as those who value the extraprofessional areas of life or who invest in personal development (human evolution). The level of integration in the professional group was perceived individually as being unsatisfactory by the subjects who do not invest time in the traditional values (family) and who show an affinity for competitiveness and perfectionism.

It should be noted that the subjects who consider the formal leader as being emotionally unsupportive have proven an unsatisfactory level of personal integration in the professional group, if they are centered on emotion, while the subjects who are action oriented are affected only if they feel that the formal leader does not appreciate positively the quality of their work and their professional decisions.

The individual expectations of subjects concerning the objectives and behaviors of formal leaders have varied according to the degree of congruence with the sets of personal values of each subject and with their predominant orientation (traditional vs. progressive values)

Discussion - extrapolations and criticism

Following the assessment of the data yielded by the content of interviews we consider as important the differences highlighted by the four following aspects: a. the experience and the active time spent in this profession, b. the temperamental traits and the type of personality, c. the intrinsic motivation for choosing this profession, d. the sense and individual meaning of personal existence

The study has exposed qualitative aspects with a descriptive and explicative signification.

An important shortcoming is the lack of statistical power of the selected group, which did not allow a processing which would pinpoint the significant correlations between the explored variables.

The qualitative data of sociologic and psychological type that have been brought forward form - at this point- the introductory and exploratory part of a vaster study and their purpose is:

- a. to allow a comprehensive understanding of the medical field and of the implications of its functional specificity on the social relationships and on the psychism and the behaviours of the social players involved (Goffman, E., 1961a)
- b. to select the relevant indicators.

The replication of interviews on more representative groups can bring about contributions to programs designed to diminish the professional burn-out particular to the healthcare professions and to restructure certain functional and administrative aspects existing in the current medical system.

Another shortcoming of the current level of the study is the impossibility to highlight gender differences. Although the study has also taken into consideration aspects that pertain to the masculine vs. feminine roles, it has not set them as a priority purpose of the research.

Some other areas which were insufficiently explored are those related to the feeling of personal security at the workplace and to the society perception of the role, status and quality of work in ICU.

In conclusion, the professional group of the ICU medical practitioners is faced with specific professional difficulties; it is rendered vulnerable by the intensive type of the medicine they practice and by the psychological impact of the associated medical cases.

Among the primary coping resources the following can be mentioned: a. the type of personality, b. time spent and experience in this professional activity, c. the set of individual values, d. the individual intrinsic motivation for working in this field.

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Living Strategies of Dead Identities: Ideological and Psychological Motivation Behind the Expression and Transformation of Identity in the So-Called (Yugo)nostalgic Genre

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Abstract

Yugonostalgia is a phenomenon that remains vital in the regional (pop) culture and mediasphere, although the Yugoslav state community and its cultural framework, as the source and foundation of the (re) constitutive identity recognition and formation, have broken apart a quarter century ago. Moreover, there is still small community introducing demselves as Yugoslavs and demanding recognition as official minority. Partly comparable with Eastern European Ostalgie as a characteristic manifestation of an understandable identity crisis in a transition period, perseverance and representations of Yugonostalgia reflect the processes of desire for identity and identification through dialogue or debate between the past, towards which Yugonostalgia is directed, and the current time, which through its position and strategy Yugonostalgia not only interprets, but also confirms. After being politically inappropriate in the nineties, and commercialized in the early 21st century, Yugonostalgia in Croatia turns into a social genre through recent publications, responding to effects of global recession and pressures of neoliberal capitalism. All these genre changes of Yugonostalgia signal its continuing ability to revitalize and adapt resources of the Yugoslav imaginarium to identity crises and needs of the post-Yugoslav today to the extent that it would be interesting to estimate/ forecast its effective expiry date.

Keywords: Yugonostalgia, Cultural Memory, Strategies, Transition, Identity

Introduction

According to the Croatian edition of *Le Monde*, several hundreds of citizens in Montenegro and Croatia have identified themselves as Yugoslavs for the purposes of census in 2011, and in Serbia the number rose up to 23 thousand people (Dérans, 2013). Admittedly, there were those who identified themselves as Eskimo or Jedi as well, so it may be that some of the "Yugoslavs" opted for such identification motivated by the same thing as "Eskimos" or "Jedi". It may have been an expression of subversive opposition to administrative classification and the repressive approach of the government apparatus, and opting against the reductive identity simplification, as well as resistance to the use of identity as a powerful cause of stratification (Bauman, 2009).

However, according to Dérans, there was even an initiative by the Yugoslavs that they be recognized as a minority.

Such a thing is still not within a conceivable horizon of any ex-yu country's establishment, so the official replies are still categorically negative, followed by more or less reasoned explanations of how debatable the status of "Yugoslav identity" is in relation to the predominant, i.e. the official and nominal definition of the political and cultural identity. Danijela Majstorović (2013) defines the identity policies of the former Yugoslav republics as policies based on ethnic identity as the primary, or even sole criterion of essentialising the community. The ethnos or a nation, Majstorović says, is regarded as the focus of identity and loyalty, and it represents the base of collective actions. Ethno-nationality, she says, is the "organising and legitimising principle in which there are characteristic practices of delegitimation and relegitimation, which is manifested through a specific discourse, and through the creation of 'us' and 'them'. Nationalism is instrumentalised through people's fears, and when people have chronic fears, they become extremely vulnerable to authority" (p. 160).

The signifier of "they" changes the signified or the content depending on the movements of daily politics, so "they" sometimes denotes the European Union, sometimes the anonymous globalization forces and the global capitalist elite, while sometimes it denotes the neighboring ex-yu republics (in Croatia's case, those republics are Serbia and Slovenia).

Although analysts and newspaper columnists argue that restoration of Yugoslavia is an illusory and historically superseded idea, an idea that best demonstrates its hopelessness through the collapse of its project, fear of Yugoslavia is periodically restored in the public discourse. For example, when the term Yugosphere was implemented in the discourse (even though

the author of the term Tim Judah primarily had in mind the mapping of culturally close areas, and not a political renewal by means of "euphemism"), the voters were intimidated in the democratic election process through rumours of a certain party's "secret project" of Yugoslavia's restoration. The most recent example of the phobia was initiation of bilingualism in Vukovar, when one of the key slogans of resistance was: No to the Cyrillic is no to Yugoslavia.

In short, such an identity strategy is more often than not an explicit political project of tabooing the Other, an accentuated orientation towards identification as a process that is inevitably, at least in some aspect, a differentiation, which ultimately leads to exclusion of the Other (in fact, from the Croatian point of view, the Yugoslav project is equal to the Serbian hegemony and such a rhetoric greatly contributes to reinforcing the animosity towards the Serbian nationality).

On the other hand, the application and manifestations of the "Yugoslav identity" through the (pop) cultural and subcultural genres, as through the phenomenon of the so-called Yugo**n**ostalgia, have been present on the territory of former Yugoslavia for the past quarter century. The phenomenon appears in varying degrees and comes from different positions in dialogues and debates, so sometimes, paradoxically, it is even in accordance with the official discourse, so we can often witness the schizophrenic situation of political satanisation of Yugoslav cultural artifacts, at the same time seen as representatives of the Yugoslav idea and the products of media and mass culture (such as publishing of Tito's cookbook, stories of Tito's lifestyle, re-releases of the popular music albums from the Yugoslav period etc).

Therefore the aim of this study is to examine the discrepancy between the attitude towards Yugoslavianism and practices of Yugo**n**ostalgia as a form of political and cultural identity. The discrepancy will be examined with regards to the fact that the Yugoslav ideological, political and cultural history on one hand represents a trauma with association to a repressive, (semi)totalitarian and ideologised society (which has, among other things, ended in war bloodshed due to its nature, structure and the identity policy), and on the other hand it is an idealised space of nostalgia for "a better past". The following diachronic analysis of literary texts that, in nominal terms, belong to the so-called Yugo**n**ostalgic genre, will show that the representation of Yugo**n**ostalgia from one stage to another always serves to a current purpose, being in the role of a diagnostician, i.e. a critic of today, or as a propaganda opium of the dominant order, especially at a time when the post-communist societies of former Yugoslav republics are reaching a phase of legitimising and disseminating of a seemingly disideologised capitalist logic of the system.

Yugo**n**ostalgia will prove to be a necessity for preserving cultural memory continuity, and will therefore gradually move from the areas of opposition and subversion and be promoted into a carnivalesque space of permissible excess, which contributes to stabilisation of social order. Ivan Lozica (2007) says: "The truth is that the Carnival is not true rebellion, the truth is that its (always current) social critique does not violate the dominant order directly. Its effects are more therapeutic and conciliatory, and it is a diversion that strives to strengthen cohesion in the community." (p. 203). In fact: "Power always uses art as an instrument, though it is not always clear how it manages to do so, and why. The answer may be provided through comparison with the carnival: is the artistic freedom not merely an illusory diversion, and in reality only a controlled outlet?" (p. 206).

Even though the Yugoslav cultural identity was absorbed and co-opted through genres of Yugo**n**ostalgia for reasons to follow, resistance to the "excess" demand that Yugoslavs be recognised as minorities suggests an evident complex with which the dominant order is clearly still struggling. Furthermore, such a demand- given the specificity of Yugoslav history- indicates that there is a process of testing the theoretical apparatus that deals with the phenomenon of identity in this particular instance. In point of fact, the "radical" seriousness of the aforementioned initiative with its expressed degree already reflects the characteristics of a project identity (Castells, 2002), and it represents a public stand, a public intervention of a group that seems to find the identity continuity an insufficient indicator of subject coherence and the coherence of the meaning of life (Kaufmann, 2006) through popular forms of Yugo**n**ostalgic culture and other idiosyncratic techniques which an individual uses to "unify a multitude of identification references associated with their personal history" (Kalanj, 2008, p. 60). To conclude that these initiators represent a typically rigid and non-negotiable identity (Bauman, 2009) or to diagnose that their idea is a classic reaction to a situation when "new orders start being considered mere vectors of destabilisation, which implies an even more unrelenting fixation" (Kaufmann, p. 48), goes in the favor of the idea that they should be (dis)qualified as "incorrigible" Yugo**n**ostalgics, as those who have dysfunctional ways of handling their identity attributes in relation to the current sociopolitical climate. In other words, it is as if their categorical identification with the culture of the former order were "an imaginary enclave in real social space" (Jameson, 2005), especially if we accept the statement "that the 'here and now' we still have an 'imprisonment identity theory'" (Luketić, 2013, p. 299). Even in the "field (of culture, AN) there is a prescribed level of mandatory unity and a degree of acceptable diversity in a community" because "a culture has the task of presenting the imaginary characteristics of a nation" (p. 275).

Method

Materials and procedure

By using the findings of relevant identity theorists (Bauman, Castells, Kaufmann, etc.), the works of researchers of the phenomenon of nostalgia (Boym, Hutcheon, Velikonja, etc.) and the reactions of the media space, as well as the analysis of those elements of public discourse that relate to these issues, the study aims to detect the motives of a certain group's request for recognition of Yugoslavs as a minority. Through this phenomenon and in regards to the cultural context of the post-Yugoslav period, its ultimate aim is to bring new insights to the research of identity. In dealing with this form of "Yugonostalgia", the study applies the theories of memory, cultural memory and nostalgia strategies, finally offering an analysis of the inscribed policy of memory and nostalgia in the Croatian literary works that are, theme and genre-wise, nostalgic orientations based on the thesis that the nature of these texts and their mutual differences reveal strategies of identity, as well as the ideological motivation of the system's background. Particular attention will be drawn to the instances when the aforementioned discourses are accepted into cultural industry's momentum or into the discursive repertoire of political action. In the spirit of observations presented in the study *Literature through recall* (Škopljanac, 2013), a reading of literary examples demonstrates the mechanisms of memory, but also the blind spots of memory, whereby nostalgia is only one form of transforming the authentic past into a subjective experience, through which direction of the said subjectivity often provides an impulse in shape of a contemporary sociohistorical context.

Results

Even a diachronic cross-section reading of the Yugonostalgic genre in contemporary Croatian literature indicates that it is by no means a dogmatic or a conservative discourse, for if it were, as such it would be very short-lived or marginal. Instead, it is a dynamic genre that uses its spectrum of internal differences to show that it is capable of being current over and over by using the mechanisms of the memory industry, all the while detecting the neuralgic points of the social order, but also being prepared in certain circumstances to become an integral, even crucial part of narrative strategies in the process of ideologisation, which serves to constitute and maintain the order. In that, it is actually more important to grasp that the circulation, metamorphosis, adaptability and reactivity of the Yugonostalgic genre explains its vitality, durability, renewability and popularity for everyone who wonders how Yugonostalgia is possible and alive for a quarter century after its stem structure had collapsed. It is possible and vital not only because of the failure to master and dictate the cultural memory, but also because Yugonostalgia of the nineties is not the same as yesterday's or today's Yugonostalgia. It is alive, current and strong, as long as it skillfully recognises and translates relevant contemporary issues into the motives of its genre.

However, recognition of existence of the Yugoslav cultural identity through genres of Yugonostalgia and its political rejection based on refusal of the request that Yugoslavs get minority status, calls for questioning of Wodak's words:

if a nation is an imaginary community, and at the same time a mental construct, the imaginary complex of ideas that contain at least defining elements of collective unity and communion, borders and autonomy, then this picture is realistic to the extent to which someone is convinced in it, to the extent to which someone believes in it and emotionally identifies with the community. The question is how this imagined community comes to minds of those who believe in it is easy: a community is built and transmitted within a discourse (as cited in Majstorović, 2013).

The fact that new identity constructs, disseminated by discursive strategies and policies of the new elites, nevertheless failed to suppress the "emotional" power and "reality" of the Yugoslav imaginarium in some parts of the society, calls for an identity process re-evaluation in the place of the conflict.

Findings of identity

The request for official regulation of the Yugoslav identity as a minority group is (ir)rational for several reasons. It is rational in the understanding that identity is a socially necessary construct that creates conditions for effective action, and opting

for "social anchors" of identity within an imaginary space of the seemingly irrevocably past, but which becomes the source of retrospective construct, active fiction (Velikonja, 2010), even a sentiment. It is also a strong and a logical place of entanglement of individual memory and the cultural memory, personal identity and the once collective identity, it is a starting point of establishing and maintaining identity continuity and coherence. If we have already defined identity work as "that which selects and processes elements which then become active strongholds" (Kaufmann, p. 70), the idea that Yugonostalgic foundation of identity in the vicinity of the aforementioned social climate could serve to such a purpose seems paradoxical, that is, irrational. Even though identity is a (self-)reflective process that destabilises the tendencies of collective identity towards a holistic and monolithic totality, there is a contrast to (self-)reflectivity of individual identity- a collective identity prone to processes of stereotyping and essentialisation is more likely to have its subjects conserved into a "mimetic nostalgia that is serious, dogmatic, unchanging and explicitly political and continuous" (Velikonja, p. 144), so such an identity strategy could be more or less accurately interpreted as "something backward, static (...), as a mere inertia or a reproduction of the past" (p. 135).

However, seeing identity as a process is in itself a paradoxical act: although the essentialist notion that identity is an entity has been completely disassembled, the fact is that- since an illusion and a narratively established fiction was formed through time- the identity has an eternally temporary status, so that "it is not a thing, but a linguistic description, a discursive structure that changes its meaning" (Kalanj, p. 46), that which "hardened (...) into a 'fact', a 'given'" (Bauman, 2009, p. 23). So when Bauman tells us that identity "reveals itself only as a thing to be invented, not discovered" (p. 19), Kaufmann will comment on that paradox of an eternal process and a never completed identity, as well as the opposite tendencies directed towards the static, stiffening with the tendency of achieving a monolithic image of an "assumed I" so the subject could bear disparate meanings of an inconsistent reality, with a rhetorical question: "How can a movement (finding oneself) be induced by its opposite, a fixation (self-image)?" (Kaufmann, p. 80).

In the case of a seemingly futile functionalist foundation of identity as an experience of the Yugoslav culture and everyday life as a general framework that formed individual biographies, a psychological need for identity reliance as the animating principle of action which would form a meaning that should be attributed to actions, and in the "dual meaning of the word 'meaning': in the sense of significance, and in the sense of movement (Kaufmann, p. 128), the explanation lies in the effort to ensure continuity in biographical duration and to an even greater extent "self-esteem as a necessary energy in action" (Kaufmann, p. 59). Self-esteem should in this context be understood as a resource which the subject feeds on while "resisting (...) criminalisation of the past (...) thus keeping the continuity of identity from historical discontinuity. It preserves the past, which would have been stolen otherwise" (Velikonja, p. 165).

The seeming irrationality of such a strategy is therefore gradually losing the crucial prefix ir-. Even if construction of identity strongholds using the inventory of the past, cultural memory and personal histories is not controversial, it might seem controversial that in the said situation strongholds are not built of any given identity source from the historical and cultural repertoire, but of a specific, particular one. Such a thing happens not only because the individual is "being produced by the history he produces, (Kaufmann, p. 34), but also because he chooses the "troubling past" (Velikonja, p. 145) from the perspective of a legitimising identity which "instills the dominant social institutions to expand and rationalise its dominance in relation to social agents" (Castells, p. 18). So in this case we are facing a conflict between a normative and sociopolitical identity, as well as opposing the fact that "only those who have legitimate authority, the authority that stems from power, can impose their own definition on themselves and others" (Kalanj, p. 53). Heteroidentities, syncretic, dual or multiple identities are, of course, not a problematic category, but an interpreted, accepted and an implied occurrence of individual identity architecture. However, when it comes to an identity that is declaratively committed to the attribute Yugoslav, then this is worth of an observation by Rade Klanja who claims that the problem are dual identities whose "both reference halves are on the same level (...) and that there is no reason why a large number of identification references could not be unified into a single identity, except in those cases where a governing authority prevents it in the name of identity exclusivity" (Kalanj, p. 60).

Findings of nostalgia

Ivica Baković concludes that in the post-Yugoslav society Yugonostalgia transferred "from one constructed political scene (...) switched on (...) the other (popular) culture one", meaning to say that all the Yugonostalgic narratives come from the status of anti-narratives of a nation that (...) interfered with those ideological maneuvers through which the 'imaginary communities' gain an essentialist identity" (Babha, 2002, p. 168) and moved into a seemingly benign field of (pop)culture. Pop culture serves as an area that helps stabilise the order in terms of acceptable ways of dealing with the need for cultural

identity continuity, but also co-opting the resistance identity, so much the better if it manages to turn nostalgia into mere retro, on the track of Linda Hutcheon's interpretation in "Irony, Nostalgia and the Postmodern" that describes postmodernism as entirely marked by nostalgia, or more precisely, if nostalgia fails to undergo the strategy of the postmodern narrative, "from media culture to art, which, adding its dose of spectacle and pop, changes the past into an exciting, scintillating, trivial story" (Velikonja, p. 130). In other words, the order replied to appearance of the "nostalgic culture" with the "culture of nostalgia", because according to Velikonja the nostalgic culture is nostalgia bottom-up; predisposition of the audience to feel such a sentiment, while the culture of nostalgia is "top-down", an offer of nostalgic content produced by the culture industry.

A message that clearly reads from the refusal to recognize the Yugoslavs as a minority, with simultaneous tolerance towards former Yugoslav cultural industry contents' consumption, as well as the occasional referencing of the (pop) cultural products to that "yesterday's world" is that (pop) culture is a ghetto blessed by ranking out of which nobody can step into what is politically sensitive and into the "narcissistic neuroses of a national discourse" (Babha, p. 169).

Specifically, the real political charge and the ideological argument comes not from the invoking of the concept of self-managing socialism and titoism in the "post-communist neo-communism", or in the attempt of restoring the previous regime in its political totality, as a better option than the current social order, but in the fact that Yugonostalgia is a reaction to today's problems. Therefore it can be said that through nostalgic narratives the weak points of the current order and the cracks in its ideological discourse are shown.

Indeed, such a dislocated or transcendent commenting of unsatisfactory present from a perspective of a utopian, nostalgised, and later fictionalised history "which never was", has been interpreted in detail, deconstructed, disassembled, and even indicated that there are some constituent defects of such a strategy, in form of discrediting arguments which cause termination of every dialogue and respect for the position it comes from. When summarised, those points are reduced to the complaint of escapism, passivity and submission to simulacrum, and most of all to the seemingly active struggle with the current problems from a hypocritically comfortable standpoint. However, Linda Hutcheon will say "never underestimate the power of nostalgia", Velikonja writes that nostalgia "can also be a strong social, cultural and political force with practical effects in its environment" (p. 32), while Jameson briefly and clearly summarises that nostalgia is always "for the present" (Jameson, 1991, p. 279). Jameson tells us that viewing nostalgia in terms of diachronic comparison "then and now" is a distorted perspective, since nostalgia is more relevant as a critical and commentator statement, reaction, i.e. the result of a current crisis in the relations between synchronic elements (Jameson, 2005). Although nostalgia brings the image of a "better past", that image is installed through the criterion of present. The past is then "articulated in the present, it is nothing but a cultural form of the present" (Buden, 2013, p. 21).

To sum up all possible objections to this genre as possibly escapist and fueling sweet sadness without an object, a quote by Charles Maier can be used: "Nostalgia is to memory what kitsch is to art" (Boym, 2001, XIV). Nonetheless, a change in the focus interests of the Yugonostalgia genre, which uses Yugonostalgia as by no means random denominator and a remarkably chosen place of polemics, show that works of the Yugonostalgia genre are not necessarily a fossilization and the continuation of the past. Rather, they are a bi-directional active fiction: towards the past which is being retold or invented as a reductive and selective image that is, with its editing, not correspondent to the historical truth, but is distorted by desire, and equally towards the unsatisfactory present, criticising with the language of nostalgia the missing values of today, and a generally "less valuable present" (Velikonja), as well as the engineering of the identity. In support of this, Connerton says: "Our present world is experienced within a context causally associated with past events and things, and we therefore resource to them when we are unable to comprehend the present. And we will perceive out present differently depending on the different past times with which we can connect the present (2004, p. 6).

Findings of background in yugonostalgic literature

In the "brief" history of the Yugonostalgic genre in Croatian literature, the first major impact in terms of controversy and polemic was caused by a collection of essays *The Culture of Lies* by Dubravka Ugrešić, a work monumental for its long-term effects. Although it was primarily condemned in the former political climate for its critical view on the so-called tudmanism, i.e. the ideology practices of contemporary nationalist discourse, in which it indicated the similarity between laws of the nationalist discourse and the socialist ideology, Ugrešić's book had a crucial role in supporting and legitimising the presence of Yugonostalgia in society. It demonstrated Yugonostalgia as a phenomenon that is not a project identity, or a "threatening" tendency towards Yugoslavia's reconstruction, but- since it is directed exclusively to the inventory of former everyday life and fetishising the artifacts of the Yugoslav cultural industry-only represents the need for identity continuity,

for a relationship with oneself in relation to the proclaimed identity policy which has sought a radical with the former at every level, including the cultural and memory level.

People "remember (...) the history of triviality. And it is the culture of everyday life (and not a state or a political system), that is the source of Yugonostalgia", says the author (2002, p. 175).

Nevertheless, it was a time of a discourse that was "at the same time obsessively fixated on society's boundaries and the margins of the text, and unsure about those limits" (Bhabha, p. 163), frequently with such a normative and repressive discourse that "exaggerated ethnic identity (...) ceases to be a tool and turns into a straitjacket" (Devereux, as cited in Kalanj, p. 58), as was the case with reactionary development of odiousness towards vulgar practices and manifestations of empowering a new collective identity as Kaufmann's "increased singularity", "expanded self", or simply "personal enlargement". In such relations and tensions Ugrešić's book had identified and emancipated the culture of memory in relation to the dictatorship of oblivion, where we should highlight that "it is precisely the syntax of oblivion- or obligation to oblivion- which makes the problematic identification of a nation visible" (Bhabha, p. 180).

This campaign of identity resistance continued with a collection of essays *How We Survived* by Slavenka Drakulić, which is also a culturally and socially relevant realisation of mirroring and opposition to what Tanja Petrović (2011), using Marija Todorova's term lived communism, describes as "discrepancies between the prevailing 'official' attitudes towards socialist past experiences and the experienced socialism. The first are prescriptive (...). On the other hand, the experiences of socialism by the 'ordinary people' (...) offer a different view of the past and suggest a different hierarchy of values. Personal memories of socialism is very often not in accord with the dominant narratives (p. 427).

Klaus Roth (2012) adds that it was an undeniable fact that people were still integrated into the federal system of the time, where "socialist normality slowly and inconspicuously absorbed most people. Many eventually lost their awareness of the specific conditions of their normality, and this shared experience has created cultural intimacy, Roth points out (p. 33).

However, the key transfer of Yugonostalgia from a declaratively oppositional place to the Croatian literature mainstream was made by Goran Tribuson. He neutralised the explicit subversive nature of Yugonostalgia with his prolific sequence of autobiographical discourse and novelesque productions about a world and the protagonists that come from a Yugoslav cultural milieu (Bošković, 2013). He had done this from a point of view of an infantile narrator (i.e. free from all the ideological compromising as an innocent object of indoctrination), as well as a humorous discourse which solved the problem of "discomfort" and "recommended consorship" of the Yugoslav past in individual memories. The trouble with those points that are generally the same in anyone's biography as a former shared framework of individual memory was overcome through the procedure of re-structuring it into anecdotes and thus diluting the delicate weight of even the most traumatic places in the Yugoslav history by the emancipating power of laughter.

The past is relived, only this time there are no consequences: not only are there no consequences for the jokes about Goli otok, Tito and other totems of Yugoslav ideology, but there are also no consequences in the current regime. Therefore, the uncertainty of dealing with the newly established "taboos" by the criterion of the dominant order moves to the space of tolerated transgression. Figuratively speaking, the Yugoslav decor in the background of Tribuson's narrative is presented as a photo album over which we laugh at our own "infatuation" with former hairstyles, clothes, trends, lifestyle, (ideologised) rhetoric in general, because we have outgrown them. In fact- as it appears in Tribuson's work- today we can be Yugonostalgic precisely because we are not Yugoslav anymore, and we have drifted away from that "surpassed" heritage.

Tribuson has become unparalleled in this maneuver, not deciding on Kundera's understanding of the role of laughter in society, but on Viewegh's interpretation of a more or less totalitarian period as simply "the wonderful years of lousy living". Thus, when we say that Tribuson has a "warm" humor, we actually mean that the key to his success in legitimising the Yugonostalgic narratives lies in the impression of meekness, rather than the cold official discourse.

By Yugonostalgia entering mainstream and by its de-politisation, i.e. by its acceptance as a legitimate and "unjeopardisable" memory, the ideologisation is not completed, as it starts being colonised by the capitalist ideology. After it was recognised as a market, based on previous success with Yugonostalgic themes, Yugonostalgia will wholeheartedly harness this industry of memories and start a cycle of exploitation of its imagery. One of the initial works that were turned into a consumerist fruitful resource was a multimedia package *Happy child* by Igor Mirković, supposedly a documentary product on a "renaissance" period of urban culture and a quasi-counterbalance to the revival of turbo-folk, but at the same time it is, and perhaps above all, a representative example of mercandising. Not only does it use the fact that "youth is the golden age of identity creation" (Kaufmann, p. 170) and that the time was a pinnacle of achievement for a significant series of generations, achievement that Bauman interprets with words "We need links, and we need such links in which we mean

something, in which we define ourselves" (2009, p. 58), but also it attempts to "evoke nostalgia in consumers for what they have not lost in the first place" (Boym, 2001, p. 38).

It should be noted that Happy child deals with the 80s, a period Ildiko Erdei (2012) refers to as the vestibule of transition. This is due to intensifying of the consumer culture among the citizens which led to the collapsing socialist system not being able to meet and satisfy the citizens' needs, she claims, but her thesis that the mythologised and mystified 80s were a culmination of the "childhood policy" that former Yugoslavia conducted seems even more important. Its goal was to satisfy the needs of a child through material things as well (through toys and other items that feed a child's consumerism) and thus it indirectly ideologised. So many today, in their mature age, remember the candy made in socialist factories with Proustian nostalgia, the candy named after partisan heroes or the key words of "socialist revolution". (p. 73-96).

A perfidious flair of commercial nostalgia is most obviously represented by Ante Tomić's novel "Nothing Can Surprise Us" and the further exploitation of the hit through film adaptation that turned into a regional hit Karaula, directed by Rajko Grlić. It is a product with such conscious commercialism that the development, especially of the film version of the project, targeted the market of all former Yugoslav republics from the very beginning. The novel was published in 2003, when narration and indirect popularisation of The Yugoslav People's Army truly no longer presented a taboo, nor could any thematic commitment mean a subversive or even treacherous glorification of the "hostile forces". Be that as it may, Tomić and Grlić had recognised the potential demand in the market for "untold stories" in the void of an established regime of "silence" towards this aspect of most biographies, that is, due to the lack of publicly articulated experience of compulsory military service in the subsequently defamed YPA. In it, a multitude of individual stories mirrored and verified itself through the renewed common reference framework, the collective experience, especially since the genre of military stories in YPA still is alive in oral culture.

Petrović succinctly explicates that which the authors have recognised as profitable: the potential of military stories to represent individual and collective narratives at the same time and still connect people despite the ethnic differences. The author recognises the right place, the focal point of constituting identity and constructing oneself in this narrative: past every ideological and political perspective, it is a source of representation of masculinity which "should be understood as a memory practice that plays an important role in reproduction of certain types of masculinity" (2011, p. 425-429).

The Yugonostalgic genre is still not exhausted, even in the second decade of the 21st century. Its popularity is not ongoing because the repertoire of the ex-Yugoslav mythemes and emotional symbols is inexhaustible, but because it is a vital genre that rotationally adjusts to the current movements in the market and keeps giving new meaning to the repertoire of the Yugoslav imagery depending on the needs of the moment. Since the "forbidden fruit" of Ugrešić's Culture of Lies over the popular marketing of Yugoslav imagery thanks to the emotional instability of the audience towards the retromania spectacle, Yugo-nostalgia has recently (2013) turned into a social genre through autobiographical prose of Ana Tajder, Titoland. The work quite accurately hits a nerve of a pauperised society that recognises the growing contrast between what it used to have, and a sense that it will never have it again. Here we are not talking about a realisation that we will never again be young, but about knowing that there is no way to enjoy the benefits and the standard of socialist working class again. There is no longer a delusion that the socialist utopia will be replaced in some time with the American dream, and everything will be better again if we only go through the transition, but it is about a growing awareness that the neoliberal capitalism will drain us and discard us on the pile of wasted resources as Baumann's "human waste". In the clear realisation that the future will surely not be better, the image of a better past once again becomes strongly attractive.

Hence Titoland, another individualised Yugo-biography, will be directed towards the current collective sensitivity and it will specifically put emphasis on the social note. Through the description of her upbringing, schooling in anonymising school coats, and through superficial panoramic scanning of the material decor of a socialist bourgeois family, the author will convey the message of a "truly accomplished equality" which then reigned, as well as the benefits that have stemmed from it: the lack of crime, lack of consumerist hell of a never satisfied desire, lack of exhaustion and wearing of a man through competition and market pressure, lack of status rivalry, absence of stress over the lack of superhuman performance in inhumanly tight deadlines...

The overall picture of Titoland is fairytale harmonious: everyone had enough of everything, sufficiently enough so that nobody would strive for aggressive and insatiable accumulation. Rather, there was a socially conscious solidarity that had made all the surplus labor selflessly pour into the benefit of the community, which resulted in infrastructure flourishing for all the desire comfort of citizens and the expansion of social services for all conceivable public needs and problems of society members. This is a clearly addressed comment on today's 'privatisation and commercialisation of what used to

belong to the sphere of public and social goods. The peak of this idyllic idleness Ana Tajder underlines with the sentence: "those who were lazy, could remain being lazy".

From today's perspective, these images fall on fertile ground and offer themselves as support to existential uncertainties and anxieties of our identity today.

Discussion

Linda Hutcheon, referring to the dual nature of postmodernism as an ironic and nostalgic epoch, asserts that nostalgia is "transideological", which this paper calls into question. When we take into consideration that Hutcheon actually believes that nostalgia is a universal trait of the human nature which is used as a response to passing of time and that nostalgia is one of the dominant characteristics/ manifestations/ genres of the contemporary postmodern "structure of feeling", its "jargon of authenticity" with regard to the belief in the postmodern exhaustion in relation to antiquated treatment of culture, it turns out that nostalgia is not only a general philosophic problematisation of time, nor a sentimental reaction of the human soul to the imminent passing of time, but it is always concrete. It is firstly concrete with its choice of items of "yesterday's world" for meaningful connotations, but also with the message that it conveys with the gesture of seeming abandonment of the present. This brings nostalgia to the field of strained turmoil of ideological discourses and in it, it is never neutral nor is it devoid of ideological motivation. Slavenka Drakulić will assess the seeming de-tabooed topics in history and culture of the Yugoslav society in her essay "Cultural Yugonostalgia as the New Cool", not as a sign of emancipation from the burdening ideologised or falsified interpretation of all aspects of the Yugoslav society and everyday rhetoric of "yesterday's" nationalism, but as a moment of entry of the new ideology as a constructor of the ruling discourse: consumerism.

Certainly, the popularity of nostalgia strategies still needs to be read in a wider context, in addition to specifically detected ideological motivation and targets, and Svetlana Boym will say that nostalgia is "a rebellion against the modern idea of time, time as history and as progress" (p. XV), "a manifestation of collateral effects of the progress technology" (p. 10) in terms of traumatising the individual with the dynamic that actually makes a difference with a single constant. In this context Branko Malić (2014) will, in his essay "To Live and Die At the Last Time" analyse nostalgia as the only remaining time we have due to the crumbling of all possible connections, even with those closest to us, as a result of grinding everyday life. Nostalgia is, he points out, a way of feeling that life was once lived, which becomes a particularly understandable strategy in the transitional climate of these areas.

In this region, nostalgia is far more complex and far more conditioned by triviality: "things in post-socialism are very specific because the societies have been through a very disruptive process of different transitions (...), reckless revisiting of closer history, new exclusivist ideologies, planned amnesia- all of this not only causes an identity crisis with humans, but also serious breakdowns in their narratives" (Velikonja, p.30)

However, rejecting a demand for recognition of Yugoslavs as a minority testifies that such a desire for rehabilitation in the identity narrative, out of complex ideological, cultural and psychological reasons, needs and motivations can be tolerated in the field of culture, but it cannot be politically verified into a subject that would in such a way assume a distressing status, although realistically it would not represent a relevant political force. The underlying reasons for such (in)visible prevention as a manifestation of Freudian narcissism of small differences or the fear of small (Appadurai), as well as contact with the zone of incomplete Other (Luketić), to summarise the discussion, we would reach the key fact that Paul Connerton notes, that "social memory control largely determines the hierarchy of power" (p. 5) since "power relations determine which sphere will stand out in the construction of (Petrović, 2006, p. 215), and "to add unto does not mean to count in, but to distort the budget of power and knowledge" (Bhabha, p. 182).

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