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The Influence of Financial System in Albanian Economy

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Abstract: During the last years Albanian Financial System has continued its stable growth. The quite good financial outcome, in both banking sector and non-bank financial sector, was due to the better use of the financial sources and the ongoing relatively quick expansion of the investment activities with high return. The long-term trend for a gradual decline of the capital adequacy indicator of the financial system and particularly of the banking sector has continued, but the declining rate is reducing. The assets of the financial system have been steadily growing, but the weight of the non-banking financial sector still remains low, thus limiting the contribution of this sector on the stable development of the overall financial system. This article discusses the progress and the influence that the financial system has itself as a creator of money, not only lending. Is good for our analysis to remember how this concept has a direct impact on economic factors such as: the commercial debt that has been raised in recent months, inflation which has increased, and direct investments which have fallen. Naturally we are going to illustrate the principal methods that the financial management uses to prevent the various risks that represent the financial market, and which are the most appropriate indicators to analyze the situation of the Albanian financial system.

Keywords: Banking sector, financial system, GDP, FSA in Albania, banking indicators, creator of money, inflation, direct investment.

1. Introduction

Banks have the important role of creating money, and therefore in changing the money supply. The process of money creation stands in the base of the monetary transmission mechanism which shows how the shifts of the money supply, through the bank products and expenditures, have its influence on changes that occur in aggregate demand, price levels and in real production. Banks that operate in Albanian territory are subjects of the Albanian Legislation; they are coordinated with each other through the Central Bank of Albania.

The Bank of Albania plays an important role in monitoring the activities of loan companies through the management of loans to commercial banks, particularly through the base interest rate and the direct control over the money supply. The measures taken by the Bank of Albania at changing the money supply through its interest rates monetary policies influence the size of aggregate demand.

Banks and loan companies are financial intermediaries, based on the fact that they make possible the transaction of money from the agents with surplus to the agents with deficit of money. Their main activity is the collection of funds "temporarily in surplus" by the various economic agents that have positive savings, and their transfer to the agents in...
deficit, as businesses, government agencies or families for their investment activities or even for the consuming expenditures.

Unlike the other types of financial intermediaries, banks issue financial liabilities that perform the money functions (bank deposits) and we say that they have a monetary function.

Financial intermediaries collect the savings of various economic agents and transfer them in the form of credit, to the borrowers who may be consumers, or businesses, or even public entities. Banks and the other financial intermediaries pay an interest rate for borrowing the funds in the form of deposits. This interest rate of accepted deposits we call passive interest rate. Further, they charge with higher interest rates the funds which they lend to other agents. This loan interest rate we call active interest rate.

The difference between these two interest rates is called margin of interest or of intermediation which covers the operating costs and, it creates net profits. Banks and the other financial intermediaries make up the credit market where the interest rate presents the price.

Another advantage of financial intermediaries is their ability to reduce portfolio risk through portfolio diversification. They undertake the risk of the combination of maturities between assets and liabilities to best suit to the preferences of agents with surplus and of agents with deficit of the economy. Banks are often the only financing possibility for specific strategic sectors of the economy, serving to the most efficient allocation of collected funds.

Finally, the financial institutions play a special role in increasing the efficiency of payment service, which affects in economic development. There exist a large number of financial institutions that perform these functions and that have the above advantages, but starting by their characteristics, they are classified as: bank financial institutions, non-bank financial institutions and financial investment institutions.

In this paper, with financial intermediaries, we mean the bank financial institutions, because the banking system is the most developed segment of the financial sector in Albania.

2. Contribution and Benefits of the Study

The purpose of this paper is to identify the influence of the financial system in the performance of the Albanian economy reflected in the macroeconomic indicators. This influence will be seen in light of risk assessment, in the Central Bank's role in the creation of money, in lending activity, etc.

This technical article will serve to the Albanian politicians and legislators. It will serve even to the managers of the Bank of Albania, to the students and to the professors of the economy faculties and to the analysts or researchers of monetary policy field.

For this article we have used data available by the Bank of Albania, as well as by other competent authorities that supervise the financial market activity.

3. The methodology

In this paper we used the method of analysis of statistical data. Through method of comparison between different monetary indicators, statistical and econometric methods we have illustrate the relationship of monetary aggregates.

To assess the risks arising due to interaction with the surrounding environment, are analyzed macroeconomic developments as well as internally to market economies to foreign partners. There are evaluated and the overall economic growth expectations, the general price level, exchange rate and fiscal indicators. There are analyzed the latest developments in international financial markets and is making an assessment of their impact on the country's financial system and banking sector.

Also, is assessed the borrowers' solvency on the basis of personal income through the employment situation. To assess the risks arising from the operation of the financial system we have analyzed the developments of the key indicators of financial progress such as capital, asset quality and financial performance.

4. Hypotheses

Analyzing the Central Bank's decision making on Albanian economy in terms of impact of international economy we wondered:

- When the government applied expansionary fiscal policy, the Central Bank of Albania what kind of policies applied?
Did the Central Bank accompany the policies of the other foreign central banks, as the ECB, Feed, etc.?
Which was the impact of the expansionary fiscal policies over the public debt?

Exactly how did the banking system react as part of the General Albanian Financial System to foreign influences, to improve the negative impacts of macroeconomic indicators and economic development?

5. Statistical Data over the Current Situation of the Financial System in Albania

During the recent years, the financial sector has been moved toward an international banking system, where the majority of banks are foreign owned and where the presence of financial institutions of the EU is quite large. The Capital Flows channeled through the banking sector led to a rapid increase of domestic credit in almost the whole country.

The real economic indicators confirm that during the third quarter of 2011, the growth rate of the Albanian economy has improved. Each month of the period, the annual inflation rates have fluctuated around the targeted rate by the Bank of Albania (3%), followed by a stable exchange rate, a significant correction of the trade deficit and of the current account1.

Deposit growth (individuals have increased their savings in the form of deposits with 17.5% in annual terms) has improved liquidity in the banking sector by providing better support for private investment2. Also, the average level of credit in the economy during the second half of 2010 has been in slower rates despite the marked improvement in the last two months of the year. The cost of financing remains an element that can be better used by banks to stimulate the growth of lending activity.

Actually the Albanian financial market is dominated by the actions of the interbank market, of debt securities of the government and of foreign exchange. The other segments related to insurance, reinsurance and pension funds represent a small fraction of the total volume of financial market. During 2010-2011, the financial market situation has improved.

The interest rates in the interbank market showed a downward trend as liquidity indicators have improved as a result of the steady growth of deposits and of supporting operations of the Bank of Albania. In the market of securities of government debt, the demand of participants generally has been greater than the supply3.

Regarding to the cost of intermediation by the banking sector, it is noted that the difference between the average lending rate and the average deposits rate in domestic currency (ALL) operations has narrowed to 0.78 points of percentage. The reduction of loan interest rates, from 12.7% to 11.8%, gave the key contribute. The deposit rates in ALL are presented more stable, dropping during the period from 5.18% to 5.1%. For the foreign currencies this difference has narrowed with 0.28 points of percentage for the actions in American Dollars, and 0.8 points of percentage for actions in Euros, mainly due to the reduction of the loan rate in Euro4.

In domestic market, the fight to narrow the trade and the budget deficit has helped to alleviate the depreciating pressures of Albanian currency. The depreciation of Albanian currency against the late currencies has reflected the developments in the international exchange markets. The better functioning of payment systems and AECH and AIPS, which are administered by the Bank of Albania, has supported the financial market activity.

Financial intermediation in Albania, estimated as the ratio of financial sector assets5 to GDP6 is estimated at 85.7% in late 2010, by 84.4%, which was estimated in the first half of the year and 82% at the end of year 2009. The banking sector continues to remain the leading segment of financial intermediation in Albania, while non-bank financial sector continues to occupy a small share to the entire financial system.

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1 Mehilli T. Note that to get these results (29/09/2011) Bank of Albania has reduced the base interest rate by 0.5% in order to increase investment and reduce trade deficit, to increase the consumption that at the end of August (2011) amounted to 3.1% compared with that of January 2011 which marked out 4.1%.

2 In late 2010, business borrowing increased by 14.7% compared with the same month a year ago. Source: Bank of Albania

3 Mehilli T. I want to recall that, the Albanian Government in the second half of 2011 had increased the interest rate of his treasury bills from its 7.5% at 7.66%.

4 Financial Stability Report for the second half of 2010 Author: Financial Stability Department, Dt. 20.04.2011 Published by: Bank of Albania, the square "Avni Rustem", Nr.24, Tirana

5 Mehilli T. From theory we know that the financial system consists of: banks, non-bank financial institutions, insurance companies, savings & loan companies and supplementary private pension funds.

6 The IMF’s forecast for nominal GDP is distributed across quarters based on the distribution of quarterly real GDP, which is published by INSTAT, for 2010 the value of GDP has been realized about 1,224 billion lekë.
Thus, the total assets of the nonbank financial sector, represents about 5.45% of total financial system assets, from 5.6% the previous semester. Non-banking sector activity represents about 4.8% of GDP of the country, almost at the same level, marking a six-month earlier and 0.45 percentage points more in comparison with year-end 2009.

To ensure a well-capitalized and balanced bank activity, as well as encouraging banks for a careful control of operating risks, aiming the increasing of bank transparencies to customers, to improve the security environment in the business of lending the Bank of Albania has adopted regulatory changes to ensure the value of the loan. In this regard the development of "Register of Credit" is one of the achievements of the Central Bank.

But the most important improvement is that of making the regulation "On credit risk management." These improvements have been made to maintain the stability of the banking system but also the stability of the financial system too. A need which is particularly pronounced in the recent years when the credit of the banking system is associated with an increased ratio of problematic loans total loans (now over 18.4% of total loans). Improved regulation increases the demand for better management of developments in the field of credit and in maintaining its quality.

6. Risks of financial intermediaries and preventing methods

During recent years, the activity of financial intermediation has been subject to major changes. In fact, the activity of banks has expanded significantly and they do not have as duty only the mobilization and allocation of funds. As a result, have changed and increased the risk types that are commonly associated with the financial intermediation. In particular, we can mention here the market risks (Bundo SH. 2012) that may affect the value of stock portfolios, the value of bonds and of loans.

Among the market risks we can mention the three following:

- The risk of interest
- Foreign exchange risk,
- The risk of price.

Interest rate risk is the risk associated with assets and / or sensitive liabilities to changes of interest rate. In fact, a change in the interest rate may affect the value of assets and liabilities held in the portfolio. But, above all, such a change could adversely affect the "gap" created between assets and liabilities hold by an intermediary. In theory, to be protected from interest rate risk, there are introduced several methods and models that help us to manage this risk. In particular, we can mention the techniques of financial protection as “Gap Analysis” and “Duration Gap Analysis”.

Referring to price risk, we say that it is the risk associated with stock prices of a portfolio. In particular, the portfolio may contain shares whose price varies according to the expectations that investors have. Usually, to cover this risk it is important to diversify the portfolio by selecting stocks / securities that are not related between them.

Foreign exchange risk is verified at the moment when a financial intermediary has established balance sheet assets and liabilities in other currencies than euro, taking the latter as reference currency. The risk of currency exchanges can be invalid in cases where the intermediaries do not have to conduct transactions in different currencies or where the assets and the liabilities denoted in foreign currency not only have the same expiration date but also have the same value.

In contrast, the bank assumes a risk of exchange rate, when the assets and liabilities have different values even if denoted in the same currency. In this case, an exchange in euro/ currency will result in a non-zero effect on economic performance, because there will be a disequilibrium at the end of the term in denoting in euro the transactions denominated in the currency in question. We can manage the identification, measurement and protection from currency risk using the methods of Asset & Liability Management, similar to what happens in credit risk management. In order to manage this risk, the intermediary should minimize the mismatch that is created within the portfolio. Another way to manage the currency risk is the use of derivatives / such contracts as swaps/currency swaps, spot, forwards, options and futures in foreign exchange rates. If we refer to the intermediaries who provide loans in foreign currency, we can say that they are subject not only to the exchange rate risk but event to the credit risk. In order to assess the risk of currency exchange, you first should design a cash budget in relation to monetary assets flows in foreign currencies, which makes

\footnote{The data of non-bank financial institutions, of the insurance companies and SHKK refer to the third quarter of 2010, while for the non-bank financial institutions and pension funds supplementary information refer to the end of the year 2010 (as published by AMF).}
known the exposures which are subject to risk. Thus, a preliminary analysis refers to the time of the various items in the balance sheet to see whether the assets and liabilities match or not.

In order to correct the exposure to exchange rate risk we can use additional financial transactions.

6.1 Statistical evaluation of the activity risks of the Albanian financial system

Relating to the assessment of risks to which is facing the banking sector, the Bank of Albania realizes steadily test of resistance in the sensitivity analysis form and of different scenarios show that the banking sector in general remains stable to different shocks referred to quality and adequacy of capital. As regards to the market risks, the results of these tests show for a moderate impact of the direct risk of exchange rate, due to the low value of open position in foreign currency of the banking sector. In relation to interest rate risk, the difference between sensitive assets and liabilities to interest rate dictates a lower risk for the maturity terms up to three months.

The risk appears more highlighted for longer terms of maturity. However, resistance exercise test shows that the impact of this risk in the indicator of capital adequacy of the banking sector appears moderate. In this context, the recent increase in food, energy and raw materials prices, can lead to higher interest rates in different countries due to the stability of increasing influence on of inflationary pressures. In the banking sector, for the existing portfolio of loans with variable interest rates, the possibility of increasing the interest rate for loans, although it may occur gradually, would be associated with increased burden for borrowers by affecting their ability to pay. For this reason, banks should consider such a possibility in their risk scenarios and should be ready to provide in the right time the relevant stocks.

In relation to liquidity risk, the ratio of liquid assets to short-term liabilities (with maturity up to one year) was estimated at 30.6%, versus 32.6% a year ago. The minimum value of this ratio determined from the regulatory framework is 20%. According to currencies, the value of this ratio is presented lower for the euro by about 15.6% and higher for ALL (lek) currency with about 42.9%. The differences between assets and liabilities according to the structures of maturity terms, both for the items of balance sheet, and even after the inclusion of the off-balance sheet items, result in negative values. However, these differences are covered for several times by the value of liquid assets, providing a full ability to pay the liabilities at the moment of their maturity. However, in this context, it is needed to be monitored carefully the situation of foreign currency liquidation, especially for the euro currency. Loans over deposits ratio was estimated at 60.4%, for about 4.8 percentage points lower than a year ago. The decline of this report was dictated by the slowdown of credit growth rate compared with the growth rate of deposits, especially for the foreign currency. Credit/deposits ratio for the transactions in foreign currency has resulted in a level of 86%, being about 13.4 percentage points lower than a year ago. Credit / deposits ratio in Lek has resulted 35.4%, being generally stable throughout the year.

However, the credit /deposit ratio is expected to grow again in the recovery phase of credit activity of banking sector. Another form of administration of short-term needs for liquidity is borrowing in the interbank market or borrowing to the Bank of Albania. Generally, this is a collateralized borrowing and the type and the sufficiency of assets that can serve as collateral in this case, is another element to be monitored for assessing the ability of banks on meeting their needs for liquidity in the short term.

Credit risk remains the main risk for the Albanian banking sector. In late 2010, problematic loans were up at 68.5 billion, with an increase of 21.4 billion lek since the end of 2009. However, in the fourth quarter of 2010, the increase of problematic loans was 3.4 billion lek, the lowest in two years. Compared with November 2010, in December 2010 problematic loans have decreased by 1.1 billion lek. As a result, for the first time in the past two years, it results a decrease of the monthly index of problematic loans ratio, from 14.4% in November to 14.0% in December 2010. This performance can be a signal of the stability of problematic loans value, but however it is needed to be repeated in some other periods in order to be confirmed as a stable performance. The "net problematic loans to regulatory capital ratio", is increased at 35.9% compared with 28.2% a year ago. The loan portfolio quality has declined as for businesses, as well as for individuals. The ratio of problematic loans to the loans surplus for businesses and for individuals is estimated 15.5% and 11.7% respectively in December 2011. Also, the quality of loan portfolio according to the currency has declined for the credit portfolio in lek, and even for the credit portfolio in foreign currency. The indicators “problematic loans in lek/credit surplus in Lek” and “problematic loans in foreign currency / credit surplus in foreign currency” were

8 Financial Stability Report for the second half of 2010 Author: Financial Stability Department, Dt. 20.04.2011 Published by: Bank of Albania, the square "Avni Rustem", Nr.24, Tirana
9 Financial Stability Report for the second half of 2010 Author: Financial Stability Department, Dt. 20.04.2011 Published by: Bank of Albania, the square "Avni Rustem", Nr.24, Tirana
estimated respectively at 14.4% and 13.7%. In response to the situation of credit risk, banking sector has created its own reserve funds to cope with potential losses. In late 2010, the reserve funds to manage the credit risk (provisioning) by lending to residents, went up to 36.1 billion leke, about 33% higher than their level at the end of 2009. The ratio of provisions to problematic credits was estimated at 52.7%, the highest historical level.

Regarding to the solvency, at the end of 2010, Albanian banking sector is considered as well capitalized. Capital adequacy ratio was estimated at 15.4%, being 0.8 percentage points lower than in June and compared to a year ago. The minimum level of this indicator determined by the regulatory framework is 12%. Regardless the level of capitalization of the banking sector is good at the individual level, the capital requirements should be carefully assessed and to be fulfilled at the right moment by the banks.

Though the tests of resistance in the sensitivity analysis show that the banking sector in general remains stable however, the sensitivity of individual banks’ to these shocks has increased. For this reason, at the individual level, commercial banks need to assess their sustainability toward similar scenarios, and should act in advance for the strengthening of their capital state and for a better control of activity risks.

7. Correlation Executive - Central Banks (Albanian, EU) over the market problematic

The financial system has a special significance for the development of a country's economy. This becomes even more specific when we talk for the economy of such countries as Albania, Macedonia, Kosovo and other eastern European countries, which represent different features compared to the other countries. It is this reason that in the analysis of these economies should be taken into account all the factors that that influencing.

Albanian economy is representing by a small market and depended on many economic aspects by the international economy, particularly those in terms of monetary policy. We say of monetary policy because even in Albania as well as in other countries of market economy the achievement of macroeconomic indicators is realized through policy instruments where the most prominent are fiscal instruments and monetary instruments.

Fiscal instruments are applied by the government in support of other instruments for the promotion and the development of the Economy. Generally, They imitate the other countries policies, in particular of those countries which have recently have as economic system the free market. This is seen to the structure of taxes and fiscal legislation, setting of the flat tax10, and of other indirect taxes or in customs tariff system. Policies of Albanian Government in general are characterized by an expansionary fiscal policy on both sides: in the fiscal area and in the field of income distribution too. The Albanian Government, in the last 5 years, is generally concentrated to the growth of tax revenues according to two ways, first by reducing taxes and increasing the taxpaying entities and second fighting the tax evasion. The results of these policies have been and are visible in the budget indicators and in the macroeconomic indicators. Thus, from 2005 – 2011 the Albanian economy has these key macroeconomic indicators.

Table No. 1: Some macroeconomic indicators

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Nominal GDP</th>
<th>Unemployment Rate</th>
<th>Inflation Rate</th>
<th>The Budget Deficit including grants % to GDP</th>
<th>Public Debt % to GDP</th>
<th>Current Account without Official Transfers % to GDP</th>
<th>Exchange Rate Dollars - Lekë</th>
<th>Exchange Rate Euro - Lekë</th>
<th>GDP per capita in Dollars</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>815</td>
<td>14.2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-3.5</td>
<td>57.4</td>
<td>-10</td>
<td>99.9</td>
<td>124.2</td>
<td>2597</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006</td>
<td>882</td>
<td>13.9</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>-3.3</td>
<td>56.1</td>
<td>-7.3</td>
<td>98.1</td>
<td>123.1</td>
<td>2854</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007</td>
<td>968</td>
<td>13.5</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>-3.5</td>
<td>53.5</td>
<td>-11.4</td>
<td>90.4</td>
<td>123.6</td>
<td>3394</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2008</td>
<td>1089</td>
<td>13.2</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>-5.5</td>
<td>54.8</td>
<td>-15.8</td>
<td>83.9</td>
<td>122.8</td>
<td>4073</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2009</td>
<td>1151</td>
<td>13.8</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>-7</td>
<td>59.5</td>
<td>-15.6</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>132.1</td>
<td>3765</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>134</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>59.7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>103.9</td>
<td>137.8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Bank of Albania, Monthly Statistical Report 05/2011

10) Mehilli T. Flat tax in reality corresponds at a proportional tax (10%)
The revenue in the budget from 2006 to 2010 are increased by 93.5 billion (324.7-229.4), and from 2008 to 2010 with 33.5 billion (324.7-291.2). The budget expenditures from 2006 to 2010 are increased with 104 billion / ALL (362.8-258.8), while from 2008 to 2010 are increased by 11.3 billion / ALL (362.8-351.5).

According to the above data it is noted that the government has applied expansionary fiscal policies in that measure that has reached to an unsatisfactory debt limits. In 2011 the total debt to GDP has reached up to 59.7, so almost 60%. This is not a normal figure for an economy such as Albanian economy which in the recent years has mostly invested in infrastructure than in the other profitable sectors of the economy.

The Albanian government, particularly after 2008, the year which coincides with the aggravation of the global recession, applied highly expansionary fiscal policy. The sources of cash in domestic and foreign currency and were provided not only through incomes of taxation system, but also from the sale of state assets and the borrowing from foreign banks inside and outside the country. The Albanian government also tried to sell Eurobonds with a worth of 300 million Euros. An important source of coverage of periodically deficits became the Government Bonds which were used widely.

In this way we emphasize that the Central Bank has a limited impact on the inflation indicator, which can be seen even from the relation of inflation rate with the base interest rate.

**Table No.2: Base Interest Rate and the Inflation Rate**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nomination</th>
<th>2004</th>
<th>2005</th>
<th>2006</th>
<th>2007</th>
<th>2008</th>
<th>2009</th>
<th>2010</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Interest Rate</td>
<td>5.25</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>6.25</td>
<td>6.25</td>
<td>5.25</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inflation Rate</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>3.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Bank of Albania, Monthly Statistical Report 05/2011

**Table No.3: The relationship between interest rate and inflation rate**

![Graph showing the relationship between interest rate and inflation rate](image)

Source: Bank of Albania, Monthly Statistical Report 05/2011

The central bank should follow the example of the other central banks such as the European Central Banks and even the American FED. This is, because with the European countries we carry out the greatest volume of trade exchange and of circulation in general.11

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11 Naqellari A. Note that the lack of prompt reaction to the Central Bank to the interest rate has caused interest rate of the Albanian leke to be high at a time that the rate of loans in Euros and dollars to be much lower. So, the deposits have been high in domestic currency while the credit has been high in foreign currency. The remaining Leke as stock in bank, that stock that the private businesses did not withdraw for the account of high interest, it was the government who withdrew it by the government bonds. Thus, the Central Bank, with its restrictive policies, in place to withdraw the domestic currency toward the businesses, it stimulated the opposite effect of "reducing the investment spending"11 the crowding out.
Table No.4: Interest Rates for Loans from the Commercial Banks in%

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>ALL Lek 6m-1Year</th>
<th>ALL Lek 1-3Year</th>
<th>Euro 6m-1Year</th>
<th>Euro 1-3Year</th>
<th>Dollars 6m-1 Year</th>
<th>Dollars 1-3 Year</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2008</td>
<td>11.11</td>
<td>13.29</td>
<td>6.72</td>
<td>7.89</td>
<td>6.98</td>
<td>6.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>11.52</td>
<td>15.42</td>
<td>6.18</td>
<td>8.49</td>
<td>6.66</td>
<td>7.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011(10)</td>
<td>11.17</td>
<td>12.16</td>
<td>6.34</td>
<td>8.61</td>
<td>6.88</td>
<td>7.68</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Bank of Albania, Monthly Statistical Report 05/2011

The above data show that the interest rate of credits in domestic currency is much higher than that in Euros and other foreign currency. This has led the economic agents to address to the foreign currency bypassing Albanian Lek currency. Under these conditions for the investment, the foreign currency takes importance rather than domestic lek currency which should not have happened and should not happen even today.

Besides the above indicators we have even a number of other indicators that point to the opposite effect Central Bank policies to development and market promotion. These are seen to the indicators or monetary aggregates as cash outside the bank, the monetary base, the aggregate M1, M2 and M3. The dynamics of these aggregates shows that they in general either have been increasing just a little or have been decreasing.

Table No.5: Monetary Aggregates

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Average in billion/ALL lek</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Monetary Base</td>
<td>229,108</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Money outside mobilizing corporate</td>
<td>155,631</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aggregate M1</td>
<td>213,146</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aggregate M2</td>
<td>514,802</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aggregate M3</td>
<td>783,743</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Bank of Albania, Monthly Statistical Report 05/2011

Table No.6: Graphic of the monetary base indicator

Source: Bank of Albania, Monthly Statistical Report 05/2011

It is worth analyzing the first three aggregates because the latter aggregate requires a separate analysis because it deals not only with the loans in foreign currency granted within the country but has to do with the issuance of currency by commercial banks outside Albania as through earnings as well as through investments in financial products.

According to data, it is very clear that compared to 2009, we have stagnation of indicators, or we have to do with their decline. This situation is reflected to the indicator of economic growth. We cannot have economic growth without having an increased volume of the amount of money in circulation. It is suffice to recall the monetarist equation where \( V \times M = p \times GDP \), and conclude that the policies of Albania Central Bank had not the required influence on economic growth and providing of other macroeconomic indicators.
8. Results

In Albania, actually, exist an insignificant classification for the risk. However, we can say that according to the indicators of the Albanian banking system, it represents a low risk, for the very fact that:

• Capital adequacy ratio is high (that is to say banks are well-capitalized)
• The level of credit provision is satisfactory and in accordance with international standards
• A good part of banks’ assets are invested in government securities (that is to say with zero theoretical risk)
• In Albania is applied the deposit guarantied scheme

The financial system, actually represents at least three types of risks, which require a close monitoring:

First, it is perceived that a very large portion of credit finances more the consumption rather than the investment, which causes the risk of over-lending by individuals who have little experience in managing their debt.

Second, rapid credit growth makes it difficult to assess the quality of the loan. The large volume of new loans tends to reduce the proportion of bad loans in the short term, because the potential problems of portfolio quality usually are materialized with a significant delay. Rapid credit expansion may lead to lower standards for review, resulting in lending to those customers who are less reliable for credit. This can lead to a worsening, because the renewable ability of loan portfolios to economic downturns remains untested.

Third, the bulk of loans in foreign currency or indexed loans in banks' portfolios show for the risk of the increasing of major discrepancies to the values of currencies in non-financial private sector. While domestic borrowers do not earn their income in foreign currency, the unhedged foreign exchange risk becomes an important part of credit risk.

Financial intermediation is still low because the greater part of transactions in the economy continues to circulate outside the banking system.

Measurements undertaken by the responsible institutions for the reduction of currency in circulation are regarded as ineffective by business representatives.

In Albania, are not yet created the appropriate conditions for businesses to move towards the reduction of cash money.

Credit in Albania, expensive and with high risk. But the undertaken measurements in lending by commercial banks makes that at the statistics data to result that bad loans in the Albanian banking system are at lower levels than in European countries.

According to our judgment the Albanian banking system, and in this context, the Central Bank's policies were not responsive to the extent required by the economy. This is because the Albanian economy has different features in comparison with Western European countries that were affected by the economic problem.

There are many problems of ownership that impedes the development of businesses, most notably the entrance of foreign capital.

In Albania does not exist a real stock market and a real estate market.

Deposit growth has improved the liquidity in the banking sector by providing a better support for private investment. The Central Bank should accommodate the government expansionary fiscal policies because:

First, it would diversify the money in circulation,
Second, it would reduce the opportunities to the government to withdraw cash in domestic currency from the money market,
Third, it would spur the investment of the productive sectors,
Fourth, it would place the Albanian Currency in efficiency giving to it a wide breathing as the most portion of the credit is in foreign than in domestic currency

The lack of prompt reaction of the Central Bank to the reactions of the European Central Banks and American FED, made its policies to be apathetic and with not a positive impact on the growth of Albanian economy. Having these features, there is no way for the Albanian economy to have the same features of European economies and to be effected by the same economic phenomena that affected the Europeans economies too.

Central Bank of Albania, in the design and implementation of short and long term monetary policy must begin precisely even form these features of the Albanian economy, from its position in the economic fluctuation and from the major foreign effects in economy.

Bank of Albania has received the European Central Bank as an example for its organizational and functioning structure, and not only that but it has also got its short term and long term strategic objective as "achieving and maintaining the stability of prices". Thus Central Bank mostly in its policies is focused mainly on the inflation indicator as a
key indicator by passing the other indicators. It indirectly sees these indicators as fiscal policy objective, that is of the
government, and not as an unchain indicator with that of inflation. According to our judgment, this focus solely on this
indicator is not fair. It is not fair because it impedes the progress and economic development, the economic growth and
consequently causes the decrease of unemployment rate.

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Entrepreneurship, Knowledge, Innovation and Sustainable Development

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Abstract Entrepreneurship is closely affiliated to knowledge, innovation and flexibility, factors that are directly related to competitiveness in the globalized economy. Obtaining prosperity in the globalized and liberalized world economy is related to the competitiveness degree of the country. Being competitive in the international markets by fostering entrepreneurship has become a primary concern of policy makers in the developed and developing countries too, which are trying to attain their competitiveness. For an economy to develop sustainable and shared increases in per capita income are needed. The increases in per capita income should be accompanied by movements of the economy’s structural composition towards higher value added goods and more efficient production methods. Entrepreneurs can contribute to the economy through the allocation of resources in a more productive way, by giving support to changes in structures, by making discoveries in order to lower costs, increase efficiency, produce in a more effective way. The aim of this paper is to examine the recent advances in the understanding the relationship between knowledge, entrepreneurship and innovation in one hand, and how they relate to the sustainable development on the other. The methods of research are analysis and synthesis of the scientific literature discussing how entrepreneurship can contribute to the economy and society and how can it be fostered through knowledge and innovation.

Keywords: Entrepreneurship, knowledge, innovation, sustainable development, policy

1. Introduction

Joseph Schumpeter pointed out a century ago that entrepreneurs are often innovators, bringing new goods and technologies to markets, opening up new markets, processes, and ideas, and commercializing new knowledge (Szimai at al., 2011: 3). Entrepreneurship has come to be perceived as an engine of economic and social development throughout the world. … Today, entrepreneurship, and the impacts of entrepreneurship on society are the subject of a growing body of research primarily in the disciplines of economics, geography, management, finance, strategy, psychology and sociology (Acs at al., 2005: 3).

Entrepreneurship is closely affiliated to knowledge, innovation and flexibility, factors that are directly related to competitiveness in the globalized economy. Obtaining prosperity in the globalized and liberalized world economy is related to the competitiveness degree of the country. Being competitive in the international markets by fostering entrepreneurship has become a primary concern of policy makers in the developed and developing countries too, which are trying to attain their competitiveness. For an economy to develop sustainable and shared increases in per capita income are needed. The increases in per capita income should be accompanied by movements of the economy’s structural composition towards higher value added goods and more efficient production methods. Entrepreneurs can contribute to the economy through the allocation of resources in a more productive way, by giving support to changes in structures, by making discoveries in order to lower costs, increase efficiency, produce in a more effective way.

This paper aims to examine the recent advances in the understanding the relationship between knowledge, entrepreneurship and innovation in one hand, and how they relate to the sustainable development on the other. After the introduction part, concepts and definitions of the terms entrepreneurship, knowledge, innovation and sustainable development takes place. The third chapter of the study links the impact of innovation on sustainable development. And the conclusion part contains a summary of the impact of entrepreneurship, knowledge, innovation on sustainable development.

2. Concepts & Definitions

2.1 Entrepreneurship

Entrepreneurship is studied from different disciplinary perspectives and there is found many definitions of it. The discipline of entrepreneurship generally studies the why, when and how of opportunity creation, recognition and utilization
Entrepreneurial activity is the introduction of novel change into the economy, novel meaning not previously known in that context (Metcalfe, 2006: 77).

In the ancient and mediaeval worlds entrepreneurialism was hampered by the defense of vested interests by landed aristocrats, and by concepts such as just prices and usury (Casson at al., 2006:10). Since the beginning of the Industrial Revolution, economists have attempted to understand and incorporate the entrepreneur into economic literature (McDaniel, 2003:2). One of the earliest uses of the term “entrepreneur” (table 1), appears to have been introduced by Richard Cantillon, an Irish economist of French descent, in the 1700s. According to Cantillon, the entrepreneur is a specialist in taking risk (Casson at al., 2006:3). Cantillon correctly separated the activities of the capitalist from those of the entrepreneur (McDaniel, 2002:31). Adam Smith in his classic writing, The Wealth of Nations, discussed the entrepreneur, but associated activities with capitalist. Although Smith adequately described the activities of the entrepreneur, he missed a great opportunity to emphasize the separate nature and activities of the entrepreneur (McDaniel, 2003:3). The entrepreneur was seen as a capitalist who tried to gain profits by risk taking. By the end of the 1700s, the French economist Jean-Baptiste Say had developed the term “entrepreneur” to mean the changing of resources from a lower productive use to a higher productive use (McDaniel, 2002:31). John Stuard Mill by the mid1800s started to associate capitalist and entrepreneur together through risk. Risk was viewed as only one activity and the risk of each group was viewed as one collective risk assumed and directed by the capitalist (McDaniel, 2003:3).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Economist</th>
<th>Contribution</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1725</td>
<td>Richard Cantillon</td>
<td>Separated activities of capitalist from entrepreneur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1776</td>
<td>Adam Smith</td>
<td>Discussed entrepreneur but associated activities with capitalist</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1803</td>
<td>Jean-Baptiste Say</td>
<td>Defined entrepreneur as improving the state of resources used in production</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1871</td>
<td>John Stuart Mill</td>
<td>Associated capitalist and entrepreneur together through risk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1934</td>
<td>Joseph A. Schumpeter</td>
<td>Defined entrepreneur as sociologically distinct individuals; separated entrepreneurship from the role of the capitalist</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: McDaniel, Bruce A., 2002:32

Neoclassical economics developed an entire theoretical body based on the efforts of the capitalist with the complete absence of the entrepreneur (McDaniel, 2002:32). Joseph Schumpeter classified the entrepreneur as one who identifies and seizes an opportunity, offers a new product to the market, improves the production process, or offers a new contribution to the economy. This activity was called to be “innovation”, and it leads to a new production function, cause of which he listed five specific acts (table 2).

| 1. The introduction of a new good |
| 2. The introduction of new method of production |
| 3. The opening of a new market |
| 4. The conquest of a new source of supply of a raw material |
| 5. The carrying out of a new organization of an industry |

Source: McDaniel, Bruce A., 2002:58

Innovation is the production, diffusion and use of new and economically useful knowledge, a key factor for competitiveness and growth while entrepreneurship the process of business start-up, business creation and growth, the entrepreneurial dynamism is key to economic renewal and growth (Lewrick at al., 2010:1). Innovation is the specific tool of entrepreneurs, the means by which they exploit changes as an opportunity for a different business or service (Drucker, 1985:32). In order for companies to compete and to give dynamism to the national economy, innovation together with technical development have become of the main sources. To be a leader in the market, or simply to stay alive, companies should constantly perform innovation activity. The origin of the term innovation comes from the Latin term “innovane” that means to make something new. Most of definitions regarding innovation point to the exploration of new knowledge.

An important distinction in the innovation literature is between innovations that are new to the world, innovations that are new to the domestic market or innovations that are new to the firm (Fagerberg 2005). Advanced economies are the
Innovations new to the domestic market or new to the firm are generally found in developing countries, as a result of the international diffusion and absorption of the technology.

According to OECD-Eurostat 2005, the factors that influence the innovation activities of a company are as follows:

- the institutional and infrastructural environment
- innovation policy (different supports, incentives)
- the education system and the R&D activity of the government (e.g., the activities of the universities)
- the innovation activity of other companies
- the interaction of the above in relation to demand

2.3 Knowledge

The economic role of knowledge and the ability to adapt to the faced paced environment has increased dramatically over the last decades (Nagy, 2008:8). Knowledge is the key element of the innovation systems.

The academic knowledge-transfer mechanism can be classified into four larger groups (Varga 2000):

- Knowledge-transfer by published research results and patents
- Knowledge-transfer by the formal or informal contact network of the academic and business experts
- Knowledge-transfer by formal business contacts (spin-off companies, sale of technology)
- Knowledge-transfer by enterprises using the universities’ physical facilities (e.g., libraries, research laboratories)

2.4 Sustainable Development

Entrepreneurial activity is the introduction of novel change into the economy, novel meaning not previously known in that context (Metcalfe, J.S. 2006: 77). Anyway not all the opportunity findings and novel changes brought up will be in the society’s interest, sometimes their ‘talent can be allocated in ways that retard economic development’ (Ibid: 4), because their first objective will be to increase their own capital, esteem and reputation.

The concept of sustainable development has become a widely recognized goal for human society of the 21st century. One of the most commonly cited definitions stresses the economic aspects by defining sustainable development as ‘economic development that meets the needs of the present generation without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs’ (WCED, 1987). Another takes a broader view by defining sustainable development as ‘the kind of human activity that nourishes and perpetuates the historical fulfillment of the whole community of life on earth’ (Engel, 1990).

Sustainable development of human society has environmental, material, ecological, social, economic, legal, cultural, political and psychological dimensions that require attention: some forms of sustainable development can be expected to be much more acceptable to humans and, therefore, much further away from eventual collapse than others (Bossel, 1999:2).

Related to the concept of sustainable development arises also the concept of sustainable entrepreneurship which can be defined as innovative behavior of actors in the context of sustainability, who are seeing environmental or social issues as a core objective and competitive advantage. Sustainable entrepreneurs identify market opportunities for innovations concerning sustainability, successfully implement these innovations and create new products or services (Gerlach, 2003:3).

3. The Impact of Innovation on Sustainable Development

A successful sustainable innovation is accomplished when entrepreneurial actors achieve competitive advantages, i.e. economic success by applying innovative environmental and/or social practices (Gerlach, 2003:4).

Huber (1995) describes three main strategies to achieve sustainability through: sufficiency, efficiency and consistency (Gerlach, 2003:5).

The central idea of the sufficiency strategy is that natural resources are limited which implies a restriction of economic growth (Sachs, 1999:39). They call for changes of current life styles based on principles of precaution, modesty and frugality in which they see a key to well-being (Sachs, 1999:209, Huber, 1995:123).
The efficiency strategy is based on the concept of resource productivity (Sachs, 1999:175). Concerning innovation, these approaches focus on improving current products and processes rather than searching for substitutes (Gerlach, 2003:5).

The consistency strategy – in contrast to the two strategies – does not focus on measures of quantitative growth but concentrates on the quality of materials and consumption patterns (Gerlach, 2003:6). Applied to the context of sustainable development, consistency refers to material flows that are compatible with the cycles of natural resources (Huber, 1995:138).

Figure 1 below shows the relation between innovation and the implementation of the three strategies.

Figure 1: The Role of Innovation for Implementation Strategies of Sustainable Development

Source: Gerlach, J. 1995:6

4. Conclusions

Entrepreneurship is closely affiliated to knowledge, innovation and flexibility, factors that are directly related to competitiveness in the globalized economy. Obtaining prosperity in the globalized and liberalized world economy is related to the competitiveness degree of the country. Economic development requires sustainable and shared increases in per capita income accompanied by changes in the structural composition of an economy towards higher value added goods and more efficient production methods (Szimai al., 2011, p. 3). The contribution which entrepreneurs give to an economy can be through the allocation of resources in a more productive way, by giving support to changes in structures, by making discoveries in order to lower costs, increase efficiency and produce in a more effective way.

Sustainable entrepreneurship can be defined as innovative behavior of actors in the context of sustainability, who are seeing environmental or social issues as a core objective and competitive advantage.

The three main strategies described by Huber (1995), are a crucial point to achieve sustainable development and innovation.

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Transport, Telecommunications, Environment and Energy

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Abstract: The presented study takes in consideration the environmental impacts of transportation, transportation and energy, transportation and alternative fuels, including the impact of the transportation in the Albanian Economy. The transportation sector is linked to environmental problems, because the transport activities have resulted in growing levels of motorization and congestion. And also transportation activities support increasing mobility demands for passengers and freight. This is ranging from urban areas to international trade. Environmental impact of transportation can fall within three categories: direct impacts, indirect impacts, cumulative impacts. The environmental impacts of transportation is relate to air quality, water quality, climate change, noise, biodiversity. Energy and the activities of transport are closely related to each other. Energy consumption has strong modal variations: land transportation, maritime transportation, air transportation. Fossil energy reserves are exhaustible. In this study are set out possible solutions to eliminate the negative effects of transport on the environment in Albania.

Keywords: transportation impacts, energy efficiency, alternative fuels

1. Introduction

Both transport and environment constitute key issues closely linked to each other. Transport is an activity which is constantly growing. Such a phenomenon is noticed not only in developed countries, but also in developing countries, such as Albania. In the last twenty years there has been noticed growth, in both passengers and merchandise transport. As a result of this, transport is going to be more and more closely related to environmental issues, as it is considered one of the most important factors on environment pollution toward gas emission.

The global concern in environmental issues is focused on its impact in the human life. Environment should be protected from all factors, which might hurt the balance nature-environment-man. Transport impact is one of these factors. Transport in Albania is chaotically developed, because of demographic change and growth of private economic activity. Environmental impact of transport can be divided into three categories:

- Direct impact, transport activity has immediate impact on the environment. In this case, the relationship between cause and consequence is obvious and evident.
- Indirect impact, in this case, transport has an indirect impact on environmental system. The relationship between cause and consequence is not immediate, but the impact on environment is greater than in the first case.
- Additional impacts are unpredictable effects caused by direct and indirect impacts. Additional impacts cause pollution of the ecosystem.

The complexity of this problem has led many contradictions in drafting of environmental policies in Albania. This occurs because transportation is a sector that often subsidized by the state, especially for setting up and maintaining the infrastructure. The problem becomes more difficult in case when the investor is at the same time the entrepreneur (may be the state that invests in infrastructure and maintain it) because there is a risk of not fulfilling this commitment. This may also lead to another controversy: the reconciliation of inefficient transport systems, but costs would be subsidized. Total environmental damage caused by the activity of transport, in general are not taken into account by the transport user. From administrative point of view, the entire road infrastructure system is administered by two authorities: 18.4% of the entire terrestrial network depends from the Ministry of Public Labor and Transport and is managed by the General Roads
The relationship between transport and environment is multidimensional. Some factors are still unknown but new findings may lead to drastic changes on European environmental policies, which, surely will also be reflected on the way Albanian environmental policies could be carried out.

2. Transport Impact on Environment

Environmental impact of transport is related to climate change, air quality, water and land quality, noise, biodiversity and land use. Climate change; Transport industry releases in the atmosphere millions of gas tons every year. These include different kind of gases such as: monoxide carbon (CO), dioxide carbon (CO2), methane (CH4), azoth oxides (NOx), nitrogen oxide (N2O), chlorofluorocarbons (CFCs), per fluorocarbons (PFCs), tetra florid silicon (SF6), instalble components of benzene (BTX), heavy metals (zinc, chrome, cuprum and cadmium), granular material in suspension and smut. Even though a continual debate on how much such elements can play a role on climate change and as anthropogenific factor exists. Some of these gases, especially azotes oxide participates having a notable role in ozone layer weakness (O3), which protects earth surface from ultraviolet rays.

Air quality, Vehicles, motorboats, train locomotives, airplanes are sources of pollution in gas ad crumbs form in suspension, which affect the quality of air directly influencing to the human health. Air pollution is directly linked to human diseases such as: cancer, cardiovascular, respiratory and neurologic diseases. The presence of monoxide carbon (CO) in blood circulating reduces the oxygen quantity in blood causing serious disturbats at human health, Azotes dioxide (NO2) emissions from transport activity bring to lungs malfunctioning influencing respiratory and immunity systems. Sulfur and azotes dioxide (SO2) and (NOx) emission in cold atmospheric layers, mixing in different kinds chemical and acid components brings the so-called acid rain. Such an acid has nocent effects on the environment especially at agricultural cultures. Visibility reducing by smog directly influence on human life quality. Crumbs emitting in dusty form by vehicle fuel has a direct impact in human and social lives such as eyes inflammatory, skinny irritation, respiratory and other allergic prophylaxis.

Water quality, Transport and circulation activity have a direct impact on hydrologic conditions. Fuels, chemical materials, or other chemical subsidiaries coming of transport engines such as vehicles, trains, airplanes, harbor terminals, may seriously pollute river waters, lakes, lagoons and seas. As naval request and needs in Albania are always increasing, naval pollution, emission has a direct and important impact on water quality in such issue. The main impact of water pollution caused by naval transport mainly comes from cleaning, rubbishes; oil, fuel or other chemical contaminants pouring into water. Cleaning means the process of harbor canals deepening dragging out sediments leading to harbor deepening itself, especially the harbor of Durres that is rather shallow on Adriatic Sea to satisfy request always increasing. Such an activity has double negative impacts on naval environment. They modify hydrology carrying out disturbs which can later influence on naval diversity. These polluted sediments and created disturbs brought by the cleaning process can also ask appropriate suitable techniques against pollution. Generated residues from naval vessel operations may cause serious environmental disturbs as they may contain high level of contamination being dangerous for human public as well for the naval ecosystem. Such kind of residues, which contain metal, plastic composition, can’t be destroyed easily. They can’t stay for a long time on the surface of the water and sea becoming a serious difficulty and obstacle for naval transport, ships, vessels and other maritime activities. Some maritime species have undergone to deep and fundamental changes to the ecosystem where they live, especially in maritime lagoons, which are deeply damaged especially because of oil, fuel and other contaminins, pollution etc.

Noises, Noises represent general irregular, chaotic sounds effect. Noises bring traumas for both body and hearing having a direct impact on life quality, because of its disturbing nature sound has in noise form. Long-term exposure on noise level higher than 75 dB brings serious hearing system damages and influence on human physical and psychological welfare. Noises coming from transport, moves, vehicle circulation such as cars circulation, harbor and airport operations have a direct impact on human life quality leading to an increase of cardiovascular diseases.

Land quality, Transport impact on terrestrial environment consists on earth pollution and erosion. As result of earth erosion especially on riverbanks, this one for private activities and on seaside we realize that this constitute a very dangerous nocent phenomenon. A great surface of fertile land is being used for roads, airports and other industrial plants construction. Earth pollution may be also caused by toxic material use, this one as transport and industrial material residue, fuel, oil, and other nocent material pouring, which may reach the lowest earth layers seriously contaminating underneath water layers. Dangerous chemical materials transport by via railway constitutes another peril and risk for the population.
Biodiversity, Transport has also an impact on natural vegetation. The needs for new industrial plants building for industrial purpose have also increased the needs and requests for new virgin free land spaces to exploit. This has brought a massive deforestation phenomenon. Road infrastructure always asks for huge drained terrain to fulfill its needs, reducing fertile land surface. The needs to create new infrastructural spaces have led to massive fertile land surface disappearance. As result of such changes a great number of domestic and wild species are in peril and at the limit of their survival leading to huge biodiversity changes of their habitat. Land use, Transportation facilities have an impact on the urban landscape. The development of port and airport infrastructure is significant features of the urban and peri-urban built environment. Social and economic cohesion can be severed when new transport facilities such as elevated train and highway structures cut across an existing urban community. Arteries or transport terminals can define urban borders and produce segregation. Major transport facilities can affect the quality of urban life by creating physical barriers, increasing noise levels, generating odors, reducing urban aesthetic and affecting the built heritage.

2.1. Transport impact on air quality in Albania

Faster demographic growth has led to significant increase in the number of vehicles in circulation which, due to poor road infrastructure, may cause traffic overload. This affects the increase of environmental pollution.

Although Albania still has a number of vehicles in use 4-5 times lower than that of European countries, the traffic in Tirana is overloaded. The chart below shows the trend in growth of the number of vehicles in use in Albania.

**Figure 1. The trend of the vehicles in use in Albania**

![Graph showing the trend of vehicles in use in Albania](image)

Source: INSTAT, Albania

The monitoring of air quality aims to gather adequate data on air quality for some principal Albanian cities, which may help to ensure the necessary adequate scientific basis on developing policies and strategies on this field, objectives to be achieved, air quality evaluation comparing it to national and international data. In Tirana air samples were taken at 5 stations. The same was done in other main Albanian cities. All these samples have been regularly tested each month in Institute of Public Health laboratories. Monitored evidences have been based on European Environment Monitoring Agency and World Health Organization (OBSH).

**Table 1. Average results for 2010**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>µg/m³</th>
<th>LGS</th>
<th>PM10</th>
<th>SO₂</th>
<th>NO₂</th>
<th>O₃</th>
<th>Pb</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tirana 1</td>
<td>283</td>
<td>136</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>0.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tirana 2</td>
<td>206</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>0.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tirana 3</td>
<td>145</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>0.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tirana 4</td>
<td>960</td>
<td>451</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>0.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tirana 5</td>
<td>235</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>0.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shkodra</td>
<td>231</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>0.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elbasan 1</td>
<td>260</td>
<td>179</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>0.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elbasan 2</td>
<td>384</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>0.39</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
According to the air monitoring, results that in the atmosphere of urban spaces in Albanian cities, the pollution level is very high. The main contributors of such emission are vehicle discharges, the construction of road infrastructure and different industrial activities. The most exposed areas to contamination, according to the indicators are:

- Areas around crossroads on the main cities
- Areas along the main road axis
- Areas in construction

2.2. Impact of transport on noises in Albania

In Albania, has been carried out the urban noise monitoring in several main cities. The capital is on the top of the list for its acoustic noise. Specialists have realized that the level of noise pollution has reached to fearful limits, bringing out negative consequences for the citizens. The main factors that influence to the noise level growth in Tirana are: the circulation of trucks with capacity more than 10 tons, their presence in problematic nodes slows down driving speed and in the same time increases the noise level about 30 %. The lack of car parking and the lack of secondary road network, which could contribute to facilitate the traffic, cause an overloaded traffic. In addition, the technical conditions of engines do not satisfy the asked and needed standards, which influence directly on noise rate emission. Urban noise monitoring has been carried out in several stations, in 5 main cities, covering a total population about 1 093 829 of inhabitants, composing over than 30 % of the Albanian population. These cities have over 60% of the total number of vehicles in circulation (INSTAT, Albania). The monitoring purpose is recognition of the level of noise pollution to judge the extent of population exposure to noise, in areas with heavy traffic and industrial center. Monitoring was concentrated in problematic areas of these cities, where the traffic was most dense and especially in rush-hours where the density is high.

Table 2. Noise average results for 2010

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Monitored cities (areas with higher noise level)</th>
<th>Value during day (dB)</th>
<th>Values during night (dB)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tirana</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Durres</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fier</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shkodra</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vlora</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Annual Report Bulletin, Ministry of Environment in Tirana, Albania

It is necessary compiling a sustainable policy regarding impact of transport on noise emission, coming from traffic and especially from old vehicle circulation, concluding that use of public transport should be supported and encouraged to reduce such a high level of air and environmental pollution.

2.3. Albanian Transport and Economy

Transport is the main sector for the Albanian economy. Mobility is one of the most important elements in a modern society. Road transport has the main importance in Albanian economy, since railway transport system and network does not comply in time, because the technology is old, outdated, without the necessary infrastructure. The Maritime transport plays an important role in overall transport volume in Albania. This type of transportation faces the majority of exports and imports; while road transport plays an internal role. Recent years, the air transport service has found a wide use.
The Albanian economy is developing and increasing rapidly. As a result of this, transport activities (especially terrestrial and naval transport) are increasing with the same speed as Albanian economy. Growth of Vehicles number leads to inevitable pollution increase, which may seriously hurt human health. Pollution level emitted by vehicles, in Albania is beyond standards compared to European countries. The reasons for this high pollution level are:

1. Most of the vehicles in use are old and not maintained.
2. Over 80% of fuel in use is diesel.
3. Very poor oil quality in use.
4. The control of Gas emission is out of standards.
5. Streets are not well maintained.

Road network system in Albania consists of approximately 18,300 km, 3,636 km are national roads. 1,000 km are urban roads, 3,800 rural and 9,960 km are not inventoried, most of them in the villages. Density of Road network gives a satisfactory rate, comparing to other neighboring countries, approximately 0.62 km/km², but the amount of asphalted surfaces indicates lower parameters, because only 50% of national roads are asphalted comparing to 65% which are in neighboring countries (Ministry of Public Affair and Transport of Albania).

3. Research methodology

3.1. Participants

105 citizens, 72.8% educated, 11.8% Mechanical Engineering, 5.2% Environmental Engineering, from different Albanian cities, were invited to participate in the study. The average age was 25.6 years ranging from 19 to 50 years old.

3.2. Instrument

The instrument used in this study was the questionnaire. The Questionnaire commenced with a brief description of the purpose and objectives. Purpose of the questionnaire was perception of public sensitivity about the impact of transport on the environment. This issue is very important for Albanian citizens while they are aspiring EU integration. Objectives of the questionnaire were: assessing the impact of transport on the environment, finding the gaps that exist in this field and the possibility of choosing a strategy and an action plan on implementation of sustainable transport in Albania. Structure of the questionnaire was organized into three sections. In the first section was requested general information on participants. The second section consisted in determining the degree of use of public transport in Albania and the deficiencies that exist in this sector. The third section consisted in assessing public opinion on the impact of transport on the environment. Respondents are expected to indicate how much they agree with each item on a scale from one to five. Each number notes a certain measurement such as: (5) strongly agree, (4) agree, (3) undecided, (2) disagree, and (1) strongly disagree. A high score on the scale indicated a positive opinion and a low score on the scale indicated a negative opinion.

4. Findings and Discussion

4.1. Development of transport in Albania

Figure 2. Use of different types of transport
Most of the transportation in Albania is done with individual machines. This is due to several key factors as:

- Lack of investment in rail network
- Not applicable bus schedules
- Lack of some bus stations
- Lack of road safety for walking or cycling
- Lack of public awareness

4.2. Transport and Energy Consumption

Although, every transport activity has specific consumption, the interaction between transport and energy consumption are direct. The transport activity takes approximately 25% of the world energy requests and more than 62% of the entire oil quantity used every year. Energy consumption has strong modal variations. Terrestrial transport calculates the highest level of energy consumption. Terrestrial transport spends 85% of the total energy. Meanwhile, the Albanian railway transport system spends the smallest energy quantity consumption because this sector is not yet at desirable European level, and it consists in passenger transport rather than in merchandise transport. Maritime transport constitutes 7% of the total transport energy consumption. In Albania, this transport activity is used for passenger and merchandise circulation. Aerial transport, although it does not occupy a specific position in transport, it needs a high rate of energy consumption (Official Journal of Albanian Republic).
Given that the transport activity needs big energy consumption, which is closely linked not only to economic markets but also to environment pollution; it would be useful considering other alternative energy sources and production to reduce environmental effects. Renewable fuels are always effective because of oil reduce, price growth, increased needs for environmental protection and gas emission restriction.

Biogas, such as ethanol, methanol and biodiesel can be produced from food crops fermentation (sugar cane, corn, cereals, etc) or wood-waste. Their production however requires large harvesting areas that may compete with other types of land use. Besides, it is estimated that one hectare of wheat produces less than 1,000 liters of transportation fuel per year which represents the amount of fuel consumed by one passenger car travelling 10,000 kilometers per year. This limitation is related to the capacity of plants to absorb solar energy and transform it through photosynthesis. This low productivity of the biomass does not meet the energy needs of the transportation sector. In 2007, the US government proposed to reduce oil consumption by 20% by using ethanol. As the US is currently producing 26 billion liters of ethanol each year, this objective would require the production of nearly 115 billion liters of ethanol by 2017 which amounts to the total annual US maize production. Besides, the production of ethanol is an energy-intensive process. The production of 1 thermal unit of ethanol requires the combustion of 0.76 unit of coal, petroleum or natural gas. Biodiesel can also be obtained from a variety of crops. The choice of biomass fuel will largely depend on the sustainability and energy efficiency of the production process. Hydrogen is often mentioned as the energy source of the future. The steps in using hydrogen as a transportation fuel consist in: producing hydrogen by electrolysis of water or by extracting it from hydrocarbons; compressing or converting hydrogen into liquid form; storing it on-board a vehicle; and using fuel cell to generate electricity on demand from the hydrogen to propel a motor vehicle. Hydrogen fuel cells are two times more efficient than gasoline and generate near-zero pollutants. But hydrogen suffers from several problems. A lot of energy is wasted in the production, transfer and storage of hydrogen. Hydrogen manufacturing requires electricity production. Hydrogen-powered vehicles require 2-4 times more energy for operation than an electric car which does not make them cost-effective.
Besides, hydrogen has a very low energy density and requires very low temperature and very high pressure storage tank adding weight and volume to a vehicle. This suggests that liquid hydrogen fuel would be a better alternative for ship and aircraft propulsion.

Electricity is being considered as an alternative to petroleum fuels as an energy source. A pure battery electric vehicle is considered a more efficient alternative to hydrogen fuel propelled vehicle as there is no need to convert energy into electricity since the electricity stored in the battery can power the electric motor. An electric car is easier and cheaper to produce than a comparable fuel-cell vehicle. The main barriers to the development electric cars are the lack of storage systems capable of providing driving ranges and speed comparable to those of conventional vehicles. The low energy capacity of batteries makes the electric car less competitive than internal combustion engines using gasoline. An electric car has a maximum range of 100 kilometers and speed of less than 100 kph requiring 4-8 hours recharging. Yet, as technology improves, cost effective batteries will become available.

Hybrid vehicles consist on propulsion system using an internal combustion engine supplemented by an electric motor and batteries, which provides opportunities combining the efficiency of electricity with the long driving range of an internal combustion engine. A hybrid vehicle still uses liquid fuel as the main source of energy as the engine provides power to drive the vehicle or is used to charge the battery via a generator. Alternatively, the electricity generated by the battery can provide the propulsion. When the battery is discharged, the engine starts automatically without intervention from the driver. The generator can also be fed by using the braking energy to recharge the battery. Such a propulsion design greatly contributes to overall fuel efficiency. Given the inevitable oil depletion, the successful development and commercialization of hybrid vehicles appears on the medium term the most sustainable option to conventional gasoline engine powered vehicles.

Although these alternatives have zero effect on environment, they have not yet found adequate application. One of them has neither been yet applied in Albania, because our economy cannot face this challenge which needs high costs to produce.

5. Concluding remarks

Albania, being one of the countries aspiring to integrate into the European Union, has considerable potentials for developing a sustainable transport.

In the last ten years, the government has been invested mainly in road infrastructure. Increasing the contribution of public transport, development of logistics in transportation and public awareness has a significant impact on the environment protection. Albania’s geographical position and its resources are an attraction for foreign investors in the production of renewable energy (solar energy, wind energy, water energy). European network connection to the pipeline will bring not only economic development but also development in the transport sector.

Several laws have been recently adopted on environment and air protecting. The National Action Plan on environmental issues proposes the Strategy and Action Plan for a Stable Transport. The objective is to develop stable transport practices and systems, which would integrate protective measures of environment and human health.

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Application of Gamma Radiation in Food, Medical Products and Agriculture

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Abstract Sterilization of health care products, reduction of total microbial load in feed and food samples, extension of shelf-life of fresh vegetables and genetic improvement of some plants are some of applications in the GU-3 gamma irradiation facility. The dosimetric system used is treated in this paper because dose and its uniformity are very important parameters of the radiation processing. They are related with chemical, biological and other physical changes in the irradiated product. To provide good dose uniformity (determined as the ratio of maximal dose to minimal dose) it is applied the radiation technique based on the rotation of the vessel with the material inside it. The dose uniformity was about 105 %. With regard to reducing total microbial load in food and feed samples it was seen that this quantity was reduced from $10^5/g$ for control, up to $>10^6/g$ for the irradiated samples. Over analytical control of the irradiated health care products was confirmed their sterility. Irradiated fresh vegetables (tomato and strawberry) had a longer shelf-life than control. We used mutation breeding in pepper through radiation to improve crops quality and in M1 generation photosynthetic pigments were higher in mutant materials than control.

Keywords: sterility, microbial reduction, shelf-life, photosynthetic pigments, dose uniformity

1. Introduction

Radiation processing has become today an accepted technology. There are more than 200 high activity gamma irradiation facilities and 1200 electron accelerators with beam energies of 0.1-10 MeV in use. This technology offers various advantages in the field of food treatment, sterilization of medical and pharmaceutical products, treatment of chemical materials and a variety of other products. Today about 60% of disposable medical products are sterilized by irradiation (IAEA, 2005).

Food treatment by irradiation reduce or eliminate the total microbial load, food borne pathogens, making it safer to eat and have a longer shelf-life.

Irradiation of food has been approved in 57 countries for more than 40 products. The largest marketers of irradiated food are Belgium, France and Netherland (Hasa, 2008; IAEA, 2002).

Using radiation technology, many varieties of plants like wheat, barley, carnation etc were developed. Recently a lot of new mutants are generated in many countries (Kume, 2006).

Plant Mutation Breeding is used in Albania to obtain mutants resistant to diseases and environmental stress. Induced mutations in vegetables and especially in pepper consists in the experimental work intended to improve crops quality and resistance of the fruits for a long period (Maluszynski, 2000).

The absorbed dose is the most important parameter in all radiation processing mentioned above, because it is related directly to the desired effect in a specific material. For this reason, it is very significant the accurate measurement of dose and its distribution throughout the volume of the irradiated material.
2. Materials and methods

The ECB dosimeter system has gained a wide spread as a routine system for process control. It is chosen from IAEA such as one of two recommended systems for the dose measurement in the gamma radiation facility (Kovacs, et al, 1997).

In our GU-3 gamma irradiator calibrated ECB dosimeters are used. They are glass ampoules containing 2.5 ml of dosimetric solution with an outer diameter of 10.80 mm ± 0.01mm and wall thickness of 0.6 mm, enough to fulfill the condition of electron equilibrium.

The ionisation chamber type M 23331 connected with rate meter DI4/DL4 is used as a standard dosimeter. The response of ECB dosimeters was measured by oscillatitrator type OK-302/2.

To study the dose distribution is used a wire copper profile, with ECB dosimeters placed in different location of it (Klemo & Dodbiba, 2011).

Different type of food and feed samples, medical products and seed plants were irradiated to show radiation effect on them.

To measure the absorbed dose a calibrated dosimetric system is used. The calibration procedure of ECB dosimeters is given in (Klemo & Dodbiba, 2011). The plotted calibration curve is presented in fig 1.

![Calibration curve](image)

**Fig. 1:** Calibration curve 2011

The distribution of absorbed dose is characterized by the dose uniformity that is the ratio of maximal dose to minimal dose (Dmax/Dmin), otherwise is called “dose uniformity ratio” (DUR).

It is necessary to have desirable dose uniformity throughout the irradiated material (Mehta & Abdel-Fattah, 2008). For research application this ratio should be close to unity. It means that the dose should be very uniform in the irradiated material, in order to the experimental results can clearly demonstrate the dose-effect relationship (IAEA, 2002; Mehta, 2008).

In industrial applications wider dose variation is inevitable. The DUR may be more than 1, for example 1.5, 2 or even 3. To minimize the DUR are used various radiation techniques (for example multipass, multi-sided irradiation or rotation of the irradiated material (IAEA, 2002).

During irradiation of materials, it is important to choose radiation technique and irradiation geometry which could provide a good dose uniformity.

The radiation techniques used are based in the rotation of the vessel together with the materials inside it. Two of them are given in fig 2 and 3.
The procedure for dose measurement, was given in (Klemo & Dodibia, 2011). The result of dose measurement is only an estimation of the dose value and it is complete only when accompanied by a quantitative statement of its uncertainty. For the method used the uncertainty of dose measurement was $\leq \pm 6\%$ and the dose uniformity 105%.

3. Effects of radiation in food, medical products and agriculture

Using the above irradiation technique (fig.3), different health care products (catheters, vigons, surgical yarn, syringes, needles, Petri dishes, used band, endotracheal tube) were irradiated with doses 25 kGy, 27 kGy and 30 kGy. As a broth medium was used soybean casein digest broth and resazurin broth. After irradiation process all the medical samples resulted sterilized as seen in the photo 1.

Photo.1
Different food and feed samples (wheat, soya meal, animal feed, mixed cereal meal, grind meat, salami) were irradiated to decrease the total microbial load. The doses used were 3 kGy, 4 kGy and 5 kGy. From the measurements it was seen the reduction of total microbial load from $10^4$-$10^7$ cfu/g (for control) till to $3-10^2$ cfu/g (for irradiated samples).

All the materials before irradiation were packaged in stomacher bags like in the photo 2.

**Photo. 2**

We have done some experiments, to study the effect of gamma irradiation in the shelf-life of some foods and genetic improvement of pepper plants. For these purpose tomatoes, strawberries and pepper seeds were irradiated. The tomatoes were irradiated with the absorbed dose 1 kGy. After irradiation the control and the irradiated product were stored in room temperature ($\approx$ 30°C). Also the strawberries were irradiated with 0.5 kGy and stored at 3°C in refrigerator.

In the photos below are given the changes among irradiated samples and control. With number 1 and 2 are denoted respectively the control and the irradiated sample.

**Photo. 3:** 24 June 2011

**Photo. 4:** 19 July 2011

**Photo. 5:** 24 June 2011

**Photo. 6:** 12 July 2011
It was seen that the irradiated samples had a longer shelf-life than control because the spoilage microorganisms were reduced as a result of irradiated effect.

This experiment is the first one made in our laboratory. Taking into account the positive results achieved, in the future will be realized the experiments with other doses and fruits.

Except tomatoes and strawberries, were irradiated pepper seeds. One thousand pepper seeds were irradiated with three different doses, respectively 50 Gy, 100 Gy and 150 Gy. The experiment has been carry out during 2011 in the Green House of the Faculty of Natural Sciences in Tirana.

From all measurements during vegetative period, the germination of pepper seeds was decreased significantly with radiation doses, 100 Gy and 150 Gy. For these two doses the germinations were respectively 65 % and 33 %, compare to control material. These effects are shown in the photos 7, 8, 9.

Photosynthetic pigments content in different plants treated with 50 Gy was increased up to 50% and in particular plants pigments content was twice compare to the control plants. In leaf materials of pepper plants (M1 generation), treated with 100 Gy, was observed chlorophyll mutations as influence of induced mutation from gamma irradiation.

4. Conclusions

- The uncertainty of the method used for dose measurement was $\leq \pm 6\%$.
- The dose uniformity was 105%.
- The irradiated samples (tomatoes and strawberries) have a longer shelf-life than control.
- The germination of pepper seeds was decreased with doses 100 Gy and 150 Gy respectively 65% and 33% compared with control.
- Photosynthetic pigments content in different plants treated with 50 Gy was increased up to 50 % compared with control.
- For dose 100 Gy was observed chlorophyll mutation.
References


The Incidence of Tiphoidal Salmonellosis in Pediatric Department of Shkodra Regional Hospital During the Period January – December 2010

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Abstract: Typhoid fever is a systemic disease characterized by fever and abdominal pain caused by dissemination of S. typhi or S. paratyphi. In contrast to other Salmonella serotypes, the etiologic agents of enteric fever (S. typhi and S. paratyphi) have unknown hosts other than humans. Thus, enteric fever is transmitted only through close contact with acutely infected individuals or chronic carriers. Rather, most cases of disease result from ingestion of contaminated food or water. Over the past four decades, with the advent of improvements in food handling and water/sewage treatment, enteric fever has become a rare occurrence in developed nations. Children under 1 year of age appear to be most susceptible to initial infection and to the development of severe disease. Enteric fever is endemic in most developing regions and is related to rapid population growth, increased urbanization, inadequate human waste treatment, limited water supply, and overburdened health care systems. Morbidity and mortality are increased in outbreaks associated with antibiotic-resistant strains, presumably because of inadequate or delayed treatment. In this article we have considered all hospitalized cases in pediatric department of Regional Hospital of Shkodra, with acute diarrhea. All cases diagnosed as salmonelosis typhoid's and portables are diagnosed with culture proven because we don't effort the serology method cause of expensive kits and provisions) in our hospitals. It is impossible to have this information because the hospital has not the high technology laboratory. It has very old equipments in the current laboratories and we use only the culture proven instead. The elaboration of datas is made by a simple method, descriptive and cumulative. Some dates analyzed with Microsoft Office Excel method are presented through graphics.

Key words: diarrhea, infection, morbidity, mortality, salmonella, sewage, water.

Introduction

Infections of the gastrointestinal tract are caused by a wide variety of enteropathogens, including bacteria, viruses, and parasites. Clinical manifestations depend on the organism and host response to infection and include asymptomatic infection, watery diarrhea, bloody diarrhea, chronic diarrhea and extra intestinal manifestations of infection. (Pickering, L, et al. 2003, pg. 1273-1278). Typhoid fever is a systemic disease characterized by fever and abdominal pain caused by dissemination of S. typhi or S. paratyphi. In contrast to other Salmonella serotypes, the etiologic agents of enteric fever (S. typhi and S. paratyphoid) have unknown other hosts except human being. (Lesser, C. et al. 2005, pg. 897-899) Thus, enteric fever is transmitted only through close contact with acutely infected individuals or chronic carriers. About 2 to 5% of patient become chronic carriers, in women 3 times more frequent than men and especially patients with preexisting cholecistitis and choledictiasis in particular. (Merck. 1982, pg. 67-70) Rather, most cases of disease result from ingestion of contaminated food or water. Health care workers occasionally acquire enteric fever after exposure to infected patients, while laboratory workers can acquire the disease after laboratory accidents. The incubation period for S. typhi ranges from 3 to 21 days. This variability is most likely related to the size of the initial inoculum and the health and immune status of the host. Over the past four decades, with the progress of improvements in food handling and water/sewage treatment, enteric fever has become a rare occurrence in developed nations. Children under 1 year old appear to be most susceptible to initial infection and to the development of severe disease. Enteric fever is endemic in most developing regions and is related to rapid growth of population, increased urbanization, inadequate human waste treatment, limited water supply, and overburdened health care systems. Morbidity and mortality are increased in outbreaks associated with antibiotic-resistant strains, presumably because of inadequate or delayed treatment. The incidence has decreased markedly in developed countries. In the United States, about 400 cases of typhoid fever are reported each year, giving an annual incidence of less than 0.2 cases/100,000 habitants, which is similar to that in Western Europe and Japan.
Southern Europe, the annual incidence is 4.3–14.5 cases/100,000 habitants. (Cleary. Th. et. al. 2003, pg. 916-918). Enteric fever is a misnomer, in that the hallmark features of this disease fever and abdominal pain are variable. While fever is documented at presentation in more than 75% of cases, abdominal pain is reported in only 20 to 40%. Gastrointestinal symptoms are quite variable. Patients can present with either diarrhea or constipation. Diarrhea is more common among patients with AIDS and among children under 1 year old. (Cleary. Th. et. al. 2003, pg. 916-918). Thus, a high index of suspicion for this potentially lethal systemic illness is necessary when a person presents with fever and a history of recent travel to a developing country. The most prominent symptom of this systemic infection is prolonged fever. A prodrome of nonspecific symptoms often precedes fever and includes chills, headache, anorexia, cough, weakness, "Rose spots," the rash of enteric fever due to S. typhi or S. paratyphi, sore throat, dizziness, and muscle pains. Approximately 1 to 5% of patients with enteric fever become long-term, asymptomatic, chronic carriers who shed S. typhi in either urine or stool. Since the clinical presentation of typhoid fever is relatively nondescript, the diagnosis needs to be considered in any febrile traveler returning from a developing country. A diagnosis can also be based on positive cultures of stool, urine, rose spots, bone marrow, and gastric or intestinal secretions. Unlike blood cultures, bone marrow cultures remain highly (90%) sensitive despite ≤ 5 days of antibiotic therapy. (Lesser, C. et al. 2005, pg. 897-899). Culture of intestinal secretions (best obtained by a non invasive duodenal string test) can be positive despite a negative bone marrow culture. If blood, bone marrow, and intestinal secretions are all cultured, the yield of a positive culture is >90%. Stool cultures, while negative in 60 to 70% of cases during the first week, can become positive during the third week of infection in untreated patients. Although the majority of patients (90%) clear bacteria from the stool by the eighth week, a small percentage become chronic carriers and continue to have positive stool cultures for at least 1 year. Several serologic tests, including the classic Widal test for "febrile agglutinins," are available; however, given high rates of false-positivity and false-negativity, these tests are not clinically useful. Polymerase chain reaction and DNA probe assays are being developed. The first – line of antibiotic therapy options for Typhoid Fever are: Ciprofloxacin 500 mg PO bid for 10 days or Ceftriaxone 1–2 g IV or IM for 10–14 days. The 1 to 4% of patients who develop chronic carriage of Salmonella can be treated for 6 weeks with an appropriate antibiotic. (Lesser, C. et al. 2005, pg. 897-899).

Material and methods

In this article we have into consideration all the hospitalized cases in pediatric department of Regional Hospital of Shkodra with acute diarrhea, according to the selected group of pediatric ages, both genders, place of residence rural vs. urban areas. All the cases diagnosed as salmonellosis typhoid’s and portables are diagnosed with culture proven, because we don’t effort the serology method cause of expensive kits and provisions in our hospitals. It is impossible to have this information because the hospital has not the high technology in the laboratories. It has very old equipments in the current laboratories and we use only the culture proven instead. The elaboration of the dates is done by a simple method, descriptive and cumulative. Some dates analyzed with Microsoft Office Excel method are presented through graphics. The data are taken from the Statistic Office of Shkodra Regional Hospital.

Results and discussion

From all the data collected we can see that the largest number of acute diarrhea appears in the warmer months, from June to October with a peak in July and August (with 19% of all hospitalized cases, figure 1). The majority of hospitalized cases belong to males in 63% of all cases (figure 2).

![Figure 1. The incidence rate cases monthly hospitalized with acute diarrhea](image-url)
As we can see from the figure 3, the residence areas of the majority of hospitalized cases with acute diarrhea are from rural areas. Respectively, 68% are from rural areas and 32% are from urban areas. This fact is justified with the low level of health education of parents of these children and also because of bad hygienic condition in their houses.

In figure 4 we have presented the spread of hospitalized cases with acute diarrhea according to the age groups. We can see that the 62% of cases belong to age groups of 1-4 years old. Generally in infants and young children under 5 year enteric fever is relatively rare in this age group in endemic areas. Although clinical sepsis can occur, the disease is surprisingly mild at presentation, making the diagnosis difficult. Mild fever and malaise misinterpreted as a viral syndrome occur in infants with culture-proven typhoid fever. Diarrhea is more common in young children with typhoid fever than in adults, leading to a diagnosis of acute gastroenteritis. (Cleary. Th. et. al. 2003, pg. 916-91). This fact is represented in the figure 5 where we can see that only 29% of all the cases are diagnosed with salmonellosis.
In table 1, we have presented the total hospitalized cases in the Shkodra’s hospital and the total case of salmonellosis, according to the gender and age groups. Also in figure 6 we can see that most hospitalized cases with salmonellosis are male of 1-4 years old are most affected by salmonellosis. They presented the 69% of total cases (figure 7).

Table 1. The hospitalized cases according the gender and age groups in the Regional Hospital of Shkodra during January - December 2010 (Data SOSHRH, 2010)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age group</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>0-1 year</th>
<th>1-4 year</th>
<th>5-14 year</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total cases hospitalized</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>258</td>
<td>1473</td>
<td>1268</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>147</td>
<td>930</td>
<td>943</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total cases with salmonellosis</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 6. Cases of salmonellosis according to the gender and age groups

Figure 7. The distribution of cases with salmonellosis according to the age groups

Figure 8. The incidence rate of salmonellosis per 1000 children hospitalized in Shkodra Regional Hospital during January - December 2010

On the graphics above we can evident that the highest number of cases of salmonelosis are present in children younger than 5 years old. We can see the higher incidence rate of salmonellosis according to the age group. On the other hand the incidence rate of acute salmonelosis and chronic carriers per 100000 habitants is very high compared with the other European countries. All these are presented in figure 8, 9, 10. The annual incidence rate of salmonellosis is 68/100000
habitants, for acute cases is 30/100000 habitants and chronic carriers is 39/100000 habitants. The rate is suspected to be higher because in this article we have represented only the pediatric cases and this is only a part of all the population.

Figure 9. The incidence rate of salmonellosis per 100000 habitants

Figure 10. The annual incidence rate of salmonellosis per 100000 habitants

In figure 11, we have presented typhoid salmonellosis cases through months. We can see that the highest number of chronic carriers of cases are hospitalized in January and the acute case are hospitalized during the period August – October, period related to high atmospheric temperature.

Figure 11. The cases of typhoid salmonellosis hospitalized during January - December 2010
Conclusions and Recommendations

From this study we can conclude that the largest number of acute diarrhea and the acute cases of salmonellosis appears in the warmer months but, the highest numbers of chronic carriers of cases are hospitalized in January. The majority of hospitalized cases belong to males and the residence areas of majority of hospitalized cases are from rural areas. The most hospitalized cases affected by salmonellosis are children male of 1-4 years old. These data represent higher level of salmonellosis in children younger than 5 years old. On the other hand the incidence rate of acute salmonellosis and chronic carriers per 100000 habitants is very high, compared this with the other European countries. The annual incidence rate of salmonellosis is 68/100000 habitants, for acute cases is 30/100000 habitants and for chronic carriers is 39/100000 habitants.

In endemic areas, essential to control enteric fever is to improve sanitation and clean running water. To minimize person-to-person transmission and food contamination is necessary: personal hygiene measures, hand washing, and attention to food preparation practice. In addition, since 1 to 5% of patients with S. typhi infection become chronic carriers, it is important to monitor patients (especially those employed in child care or food handling) for chronic carriage and to treat this condition if indicated. Efforts to eradicate S. ser. Typhi from carriers are recommended, because human beings are the only reservoir of S. ser. Typhi. When such efforts are unsuccessful, carriers should be prevented from working in food- or water-processing activities, in kitchens and in occupations related to patient care. These individuals should be made aware of the potential contagiousness of their condition and of the importance of hand washing and attentive personal hygiene. (Cleary. Th et. al. 2003, pg 916-918).

Theoretically, it is possible to eliminate salmonellae that causes enteric fever since the bacteria survives only in human hosts and it is spread by contaminated food and water. However, given the high prevalence of the disease in developing countries that lack good facilities for sewage disposal and water treatment, this goal is currently unrealistic. Thus, travelers to developing countries should be advised to monitor their food and water intake carefully and to consider vaccination. The minimal ages for vaccination with the Ty21a, ViCPS, and Vi-rEPA vaccines are 6 years, 2 years, and 6 months, respectively. (Cammie F. et al. 2005, pg.897-899 ). In a trial in 2 to 5 year old children, the vaccine provided 90% efficacy and was very well tolerated, with no serious adverse reactions. The Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) currently recommends vaccination for persons traveling to developing countries who will have prolonged exposure to contaminated food and water or close contact with indigenous populations in rural areas. The only recommendations for domestic vaccination include people who have intimate or household contact with a chronic carrier or laboratory workers who frequently work with S. typhi. (Lesser, C. et al. 2005, pg.897-899)

Purification of drinking water, pasteurization of milk, prevention of chronic carriers from handing food, and complete patient isolation techniques are the most successful prophylactic measures. (Merck. 1982, pg. 67-70)

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Parents and their Needs for Information and Communication with School

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Abstract The communication teachers –parents is going to be even more essential for the progress of the child. So it tends to be direct and all inclusive with the aim of evidencing the progress of the success of the child. The information, is very important in transmitting the changes and the new ideas in the educational process, as a primary form of communication. This study tends to analyze some problems faced in information and as a result in communication parents - teachers. To highlight these problems we have done a questionnaire with approximately 100 parents of primary and secondary school children, from which we tend to present that the information in our schools is not in the required expectations, especially in public schools. In non-public schools, in which the information is more formal and institutional toward every parent are also evaluated some details and elements as: parents meeting, school activities, tests etc., consequently the communication is more different in the simplicity, objectivity in evaluation and judgment. On the other hand this study tends to bring different forms of communication, which are applicable nowadays in Shkodra city schools. Also what they suggest to do in their point of view, what they want from the school, how they want to collaborate with teachers and other staff to be more fruitful and successful for their children.

Key words: children, communication, information, parents, school.

1. Introduction

The communication teachers – parents is going to be even more essential for the progress of the child. It tends to be direct and inclusive to the aim of evidencing the progress of the child’s success. “Learning should not only take us somewhere; it should allow us later to go further more easily…The more fundamental or basic is the idea, the greater will be its breath of applicability to new problems.” (Howard, J., 2007). The parents following step by step the children's progress, make them feel more estimated and sometimes more motivated and aware to what they really want to achieve through the education system. The school information, being very important in transmitting the changes and the new developments of the educational process, is the primary form of communication. In Shkodra city the children attend private and public schools. There are children, who have attended both of them. For this reason our study is focused on the way the parents communicate with the school and their needs for information and communication with school. School communication must be transparent, and needs to be permanent. But what happens in our schools? Are our schools prepared to face the challenges of the time? Do our schools try to make the impossible for children, parents to improve their work for all the partners included at school?

2. Methodology

For this study we have prepared a questionnaire with 137 parents of children who follow the public and non-public schools in the city of Shkodra. These parents have given their opinions about communication and information from school and they have also expressed their suggestions to improve these conditions. The aim of this questionnaire is to present the needs and the requests of the parents for the public and non-public schools and to the Albanian system of education. The research undertaken in eight public and non-public schools in Shkodra city demonstrates that such procedures are prone to improve communication with parents. The parents are selected occasionally. They have different ages, level of education and also their children follow different systems of education. All the data are analyzed by Microsoft Office Excel method.

3. Results and discussion of the study

The results of this study are presented graphically. The graphics show how the parents answered and gave their opinions about the school information and the different models of communication with teachers and staff in Shkodra city.
The parents in this study were selected casually, but at a right proportion between public and non-public. For that reason we have chosen 4 public schools and 4 non-public schools in Shkodra city, from whom 2 are colleges (from 1 to 9-th grade) and 2 high schools for each system of education. The parents who fulfilled the questionnaire were in the highest number from 30-40 years old, followed by 40-50 and the lowest number was 20-30 and over 50 years old. The parents are from both the city and country (42% of the public schools and 19% from the non-public schools). That shows the interest of the parents to choose the best possibility they can effort for their children. Females are in a higher number to be part of this study (82% of publics and 78% of the non-publics), which shows us that mothers are more involved in school education.

The parents questioned have different levels of education from college to Master degree, but as we can see from the graphics, the highest number of them has university degree. According to the level of education the children follow, they come from the elementary school to high school. The reason of this division was to compare all the levels, the presence of differences between levels and systems. As we can see through the graphics, the highest number of the children is from the college, followed by the elementary and the high school students. (Fig.4.)

About the visits at school, parents express different ideas. In general they go to school any time need or when they are invited for monthly meetings (this is approximately equal for both systems). But we can see that 33% of parents (non – public) go when they face problems and almost 18% in private schools. They can also go when they need any help for their child. Sometimes the parents see school as a place where their children are safe and secure and they go only when they face problems. Mostly these parents are with low level of education. They think that school proceed without their help and participation. On the other hand, the most interested parents are they who go at meetings, contact teachers, are part of all the activities and try to give opinions as long as they are heard or as long as they influence, depending the school rules, school system, teachers and supervisors. Also we can see that 20% of parents did not give an answer, because don’t go to know child’s progress.
As we can understand from the graphs and also by the information given by the parents, the highest number of cases is informal (44% in publics and 60% in non-publics) that means that the parents have a kind of friendship meeting with the teachers which is more frequent in non-public schools. The parents feel comfortable to discuss and to share ideas with the teachers. On the other hand we have 36% of public school parents and 40% of non-public schools parents which admit that their meeting is formal between them and the teachers. Sometimes they say that they don’t feel comfortable and are not able to express their opinions that’s because of the teachers rude communication or impolite. That maybe can happen because of the large number of parents which frustrate the communication and the privacy between them and the teachers. But we can see also that 20% of parents in public schools which don’t choose the 2 forms, they don’t give an answer because they don’t go to school to meet teachers so they can’t give an opinion about these forms. It’s evident that 20% of parents in public schools, neither two forms of communications nor give an answer because they never to teacher’s meetings.

First of all, it is very important for the parents to be part of board’s school, and to evaluate the developments of the school. As it is shown in graphics the board school participation at public schools and nonpublic schools is the same in 28% of parents who were part of the class or school board, but the evaluation is a bit different. For the board of the public schools 23% of the parents valuate it very good, 30% good and 35% enough good, for the nonpublic schools 26% parents valuate it very good, 26% good, 18% enough good. This evaluation vary in these two school systems, it is evaluated very good only from the parents who are part of the board or are more active than other parents and know the development of school life, but in general the parents don’t have enough information or they really don’t know about the existence of the board. The participation is about 30% of the parents for both systems, but most of the time they aren’t active and can’t take decisions. From the questionnaire it is evident that many parents about 20% don’t know the real function of the school board and that is more apparent at nonpublic schools, because the decisions are made by the owner of the school.
Being part of school for the parents is sometimes formal and the active participation isn’t as valued as they want it to be. If we see the graphics in non-public schools the 54% of parents think that the participation is very good, 30% good and 16% don’t participate at all. In public schools this active participation is different: 31% think it is very good, 38% good and 31% no participation. We can say that the parents go to school depending on the school or sometimes of the needs, their free time or problems they face. That is the reason they have this evaluation. In some cases they complain about the time of visits or their possibility to visit school and teachers or the time the school organise the activities, the meetings etc. So they say that they don’t have the possibility to be very active to participate, discuss and evaluate the situation, problems or to suggest ideas about the future. They accept that the schools have their activities during the week, when they work or they can not be part of the school. Most of the time parents are interested to be invited at school (fig. 12) for parent’s meeting and any celebrations. The parents accept the importance of invitations and as we can see from the graphs in more than in 80% of cases in both systems are interested in schools to discuss about the problems they face with their children the parents. Only in 19% in public school express indifference about it and in 12% in non-publics said that they don’t need the importance to give ideas or suggestions about the school because for them the school does its work in a very good way. As we can see in the highest number the parents are interested and want to be part of school, to collaborate, to support and to help school and only a small percentage are 100% satisfied or indifferent about school work.

As we can see in the graphic 13 is shown that parents are very interested to collaborate and to contribute on changing the conditions and the quality of school. In 84% of them in public schools and 91% in non-public school they want to be part of sharing and giving opinions to school members, staff and all the actors interested about the improvement of school aspects. About their involvement, in nonpublic schools, 50% of parents tend to influence any school decision, either individually or in group with other parents. On the other hand, in public schools only 30% socially excluded parents do not even try to influence school decisions. In terms of their attitudes, most of the parents consider the school needs to ask them help their children with homework, even there is somebody in the family who can do that. Mothers are more involved in helping their children then fathers, and this proportion increases among socially excluded families.

These two graphics sustain the forms of communication used in public and nonpublic schools and the preferred forms of communication. The common forms of communication as shown in the graphic are: visits at home, individual meetings, individual notes, newspaper or magazine, school fests etc. Types of school information vary from school to school, because of the information system chosen by the school and its interests toward the parents. As we see in the graphs the
school in general tend to use the common meetings in school, followed by phone calls and the individual meetings (especially in non-public schools) in and out of school. In non-public schools there are ranges of more preferable ways of communication than at public schools. A lot of parents, whose children attend public schools, prefer individual meetings, based on privacy, e-mail or individual notes, in which the parents are really informed for the progress of the child. But we can see that the parents themselves are sticky to the old forms and maybe for them are difficult to change the traditional forms of communication. The visits at home or the trips parents-teachers and pupil used by non-public schools make the relation parent-teacher–pupil more reliable, this leads to child’s progress and the motivation to achieve teachers and parents aims.

There are known two different forms of communication and information between school and family direct and indirect. Direct communication includes: parents meetings, meetings between groups of interest, meetings pairs of interest individual, meetings visits in school and home conferences meetings between parents or students, etc. Indirect communication includes: phone calls, e-communication, communication through letters, weekly messages, magazines informal messages, individual notes, notebook of communication, (parents-teachers) notice–board, etc. (Deva. A- Zuna & bashkëautorë, 2009)

In public schools the information isn’t mostly given in a formal way, but orally, for activities, parents’ meeting, several payments (as the guard of the school, the photocopies of the tests etc.). In non-public schools, in which the information is more formal and institutional toward every parent are also evaluated some details and elements as: parents meeting, school activities, tests etc., consequently the communication is more different in the simplicity, objectivity in evaluation and judgment. Every parent has to sign the school information as for example: Information for the payment of school and books; information for parent’s meeting, information about different rips or activities of school etc. The non-public schools communicate with parents through formularies as Information for parents, by which is informed for different reasons as: 

*Information about the school (address, phone number, the timetable of school and the fee for the school and for the textbooks and the parent’s permission for child’s pictures in activities at school to be advertised in internet.). See Model 1.

**Model 1.**

*For activities (Kind of activity, date and time). See Model 2.

**Model 2.**
*Results of the child for each subject or as an average mark. See Model 3.

**Model 3. (Peter Mehringer, college “Hasan Riza Pasha” and college “Haxhi Sheh Shamia”)**

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There are several public and private schools that don’t give such a template with the marks of the pupils, the results of the child are given verbally.
The parent’s meeting is the main contact to receive the child’s evaluation. Parents tend to be more open in expressing their opinion in one-to-one meetings. At public schools the parent’s meeting is once a month, but they would like to have it more often, 30% of the parents think to be twice a month. Especially parents of public schools prefer it to be even once a week. That may be because of not receiving a marks’ list of the child’s results as at non-public schools. These forms of taking results are presented through Model 3 in some non-public schools.

Being trained by school on helping the children in home works, time management at home for their children, it is shown that in 81% of public schools and 95% of non-public schools is preferred to be part of these kind of trainings. They need to be trained about these aspects to nearer their children, to help, support and to conduct their children in the right forms of learning for long life. Only 19% of public schools and 5% of non-public schools do not need these kinds of training, because they accept their own ability to do it without school help. The parent’s involvement at school is as important as child’s success itself, because there are a number of parents, who can contribute in the school success.

Information at school, as the step from parent to child differs from public to non-public schools. On 78% of public school and 98% of non-public school the parents have information about children test’s results. That means that the parents get the information through their children or through teacher’s meetings. In only 23% of public schools and 2% of non-public schools isn’t done or the parents are so disinterested that they admit that they don’t want to have this kind of information. According to changes the parents would like to have in communication, it seems to be most in public than in non-public. These changes are preferred especially on their privacy 58% in public schools and 40% in non-public schools. The forms of meetings aren’t so important or if they are traditional, as the way they are performed. The parents want trust from school and teachers and to have privacy of information exchange. It is evident that in 26%, the parents of the non-public schools, are comfortable with the forms of communication and don’t want to change anything of them. So we can say that
we have problems in forms and privacy of communication and the ethic of parents-teacher communication are not well known by both parts.

4. Conclusions

According to the answers given by the parents we can highlight that:

Parent’s needs toward children’ development have to improve:

- **In collaboration with teachers.** The teachers should be effective communicators, because they understand that the communication and learning are interdependent and the knowledge and attitudes students receive from the classroom are selectively drawn from a complex assortment of verbal and nonverbal messages about the subject, the teacher, and themselves.

- **Parents must be involved in school activities.** The success of the child is related to the parent’s involvement at school as a part of school, giving ideas and making decisions.

- **The information of the parent time by time leads the child in achieving good results.** Parents need a greater support from the school in order to help the pupils to improve learning outcomes, because, even if they are willing to do that, they lack necessary knowledge and skills. By advancing communication with parents, schools should think of modalities for offering assistance to parents what can be achieved through information sessions.

- A good communication school- parent/ parent – child/ child – school make the children more motivated and more willing of progressing.

5. Recommendations

From the above conclusions recommendations are divided into two categories.

**For schools:**

- Schools should develop procedures for meetings with parents, specifying the dynamics, preparation and content of such meetings. Group/thematic meetings should become a practice as well as individual meetings with parents.

- It is necessary to train teachers manage different types of meetings with parents and their use for advancing teaching and learning in school.

- In addition to parents’ meetings, schools should organize regular information using media, messages transmitted through students, e-mail, etc., particularly for cases requiring immediate parental attention.

- Schools should engage in raising awareness of parents on their role in the school and should train them to exercise such a role. Also, parents should be aware that their role in relation to children is not exercised only by request from the school, but should be regularly exercised in the benefit of the children. A progress may be achieved if parental meetings are structured to convey mobilizing messages to parents.

**For parents**

- To work on raising awareness of parents on their role in the school and other levels. As a consequence, awareness raising activities should be organized in the school level as well as other levels such as: municipality, region and country.

- To work on raising the capacities of the parents’ associations in all levels in order to help increase the influence of parents in school life. These associations should be trained to work with parents and their representatives in schools for a better involvement.

- To promote good practices of parental involvement in the school life by creating opportunities to benefit from them.

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http://www.parentquestionnair.com
Adaptive Capacity of Local Governmental Agencies on Water Shortages Affecting the Local Tourism Industry: A Case Study of Koh Chang Island, Thailand

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Abstract: This research aims to study the capacity of Thai local governmental agencies in addressing water shortage causing vulnerabilities to the local tourism industry on Koh Chang Island. The objectives of the study includes assessing the economic and social vulnerability of local tourism industries having been affected by water shortage caused by climate change and to study the capacity of the local governmental agencies in dealing with the problems. The research design and data collection techniques employed in this research included documentary research, interview, and field surveys. A series of studies were conducted to disclose certain critical issues of vulnerability caused by water shortage in the study area and to study the current ways that the local governmental agencies deal with the problems. The study of Yohe and Tol (2002) regarding determinants of adaptive capacity was applied as data collection framework to create the interview guides and other tools used in this study. Twenty-four respondents in this study comprising local governmental agencies, local community leaders, and local tourism operators. The finding could be concluded that water shortage in Koh Chang Island would come from climate change, but the most important thing is the lack of knowledge on water management under the climate change of the local governmental agencies. Therefore, capacity building of local governmental agencies on climate change and properly water management should be performed in order to reduce water shortage affecting on tourism industries.

Keywords: adaptive capacity; local governmental agencies; water shortage; local tourism industry;

1. Introduction

Water is one of natural resources needed by human life for their well being and related goods and services. Therefore changing in climate which is likely affecting water resources would be a critical issue for many countries, especially in developing countries that rely on agricultural and industrial based economy. Apparently years, climate change has affected a wide range of countries appearing in various forms such as changing in rainfall patterns, increasing of temperature and including extreme climatic events. The impacts of these occurrences are likely to both directly and indirectly affect on water resources. Hence, the challenges of reducing vulnerability on water resources caused by climate change are issues that have been very attentive.

Developing countries, located in areas at risk of being influenced by climate change, such as small island states, are among the most vulnerable to climate change impacts. According to United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change, these countries will become critical if no appropriate action is taken. Whilst many islands are threatened by rising sea levels, which increases severe and extreme weather events, they suffer in terms of loss of life and damage to property and infrastructure that can subsequently hinder their economies (UNFCCC, 2005).

The challenge for not only small island states but also other developing countries is to build up and enhance their capacity to adapt to climate change. Consequently, building adaptive capacity to respond and reduce the impact of climate change is taken into account as a necessary strategy for ensuring economies and quality of life of their people.

In Thailand, it has been well accepted that the tourism industry has become an important service sector generating significant income to the country. Thai’s government has promoted various tourist destinations attracting tourists from all over the world. However, the country’s tourism industry would negatively impact by climate change, especially on the islands which are particularly vulnerable to climate change.
Koh Chang Island is one of the most beautiful natural tourism destinations in the Gulf of Thailand. It is located in the Eastern region of Thailand and has a total land area of 650 square kilometers. In 2002, a number of related policies have been set in place to promote Koh Chang Island to become one of the attractive tourist places in Eastern Thailand (NESDB, 2003). While the island’s tourism-economic growth is increasing rapidly, it has been found that the island has a number of limitations in developing a large water supply adequate to the needs of tourists whose numbers are continuously increasing. Moreover, the island has also been vulnerable to the effects of climate change regarding water shortages. To secure economic and social well being, the capacity building for adapting to and combating climate change is urgently necessary for local governmental agencies to take consideration. This study thus is aimed to assess the capacity of the local governmental agencies in dealing with climate change affecting tourism industry in Koh Chang Island.

2. Related issue to the research work

2.1 Impact of Climate Change and the vulnerability of tourism sectors

Vulnerability to climate change is closely related to poverty, as the poor are least able to respond to impacts of the changes. Certainly, developing countries, which are relatively low financial capability and rely heavily on technology from developed countries, they are likely to be threatened hardest by climate change, and their capacity to respond to such change is lowest (Santiago Olmos, 2001). Whilst economic development of the countries rely on income generated from various sectors, in particular the tourism industry. Therefore, the impact of climate change would affect the economic development of the country. The 4th Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) in 2007 made clear that climate change is now a serious risk which could lead to an obstacle to the accomplishment of the Millennium Development Goals, particular poverty eradication. As tourism is a major income of many countries and depends on the environment and natural resources therefore changing in climate could have directly effect by decreasing a number of tourists. United Nations Conference on Environment and Development (UNCED) (1992) recorded that tourism in many countries are seen as the important sector that is vulnerable to climate change. The impacts of climate change on tourism and reinforce national capacities to deal with this consequent impact are needed (UNDP, 2001). In addition, IPCC also indicated that there is a need for societies and economic sectors such as tourism industry to adapt to climate change in order to reduce associated risks and take advantage of new opportunities in an economically, socially and environmentally sustainable manner (UN-WTO, 2008).

2.2 Capacity building, a central concept enhancing implementation of national plans

In 1991, the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) and the International Institute for Hydraulic and Environmental Engineering defined capacity building as the creation of an enabling environment with appropriate policy and legal framework, institutional development, community participation, human resource development, and straining of managerial systems. Capacity building is a long-term and continuing process which all stakeholders such as local authorities must participate in. In 1992, capacity building has become a central concept as adopted at the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development which held in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil. It is necessary for countries to develop their capacity to enhance their abilities to implement the national policy. A primary goal of capacity building is to increase the ability of people to assess and address the critical questions related to policy choices and processes of implementation among development alternatives, based on an understanding of environment potentials and limits and the consideration of needs perceived by the people of the country concerned (UNCED, 1992). Additionally, Agenda 21 engages countries to identify priorities and determine the meaning of capacity building for national plans or national policy implementation. Based on the need of sustainable development in Agenda 21, skills, knowledge, and technical knowhow at the individual and institutional levels are required to establish strategic planning and priorities on the environment and development of countries (UN, 1997).

James (1998) stated that capacity building means maintain the integrity of the environmental circumstances and ability of the community and institutions. While Reis, et. al (1998) viewed that it is associated with the skills, knowledge and attitudes of personnel necessary to perform their tasks. Furthermore, Sobeck and Agius (2007) elaborated this point stating that capacity building is a process or activity to raise the ability of individuals and strengthen performance, within an environment, in order to achieve the intended objective and policy implementation. However, all of foregoing definitions have been extensively summarized by Stephen and Triraganon (2009) in the International Union for Conservation of Nature’s capacity strengthening program. They noted that capacity is the overall ability of the individual or
group to achieve their responsibilities. They also viewed that capacity depends not only on the capabilities of the people, but also on the overall size of the task, the resources and the framework.

2.3 Climate Change Adaptation, a strategy reducing vulnerability in developing countries

As the IPCC’s Report Summary for Policymakers (2007) concluded that developing countries are much more vulnerable to climate change as they generally possess less wealth, access to technology, equitable distribution of power, and well-functioning social systems. Accordingly, adaptation is considered as a necessary strategy for these countries because it has the potential to considerably reduce adverse impacts of climate change and enhance beneficial effects (IPCC, 2007). The meaning of adaptation defined by the UNFCCC in 2001, it is a process through which societies make themselves enhanced capable to cope with an uncertain future. Adapting to climate change involves taking the right measures to reduce the negative effects of climate change by making the appropriate adjustments and changes. Adaptation is needed in developing countries because global warming and intensity of extreme events, such as tropical cyclones, floods, droughts and heavy rainfall pattern changes are expected to rise rapidly. Therefore it is urgent for developing countries to reduce their vulnerability to the destructive impacts and increase their capacity to adapt together with implement national adaptation plans. Vulnerability of developing countries in the future depends not only on climate change but also on the type of development. Thus adaptation should be carried out in the framework of national and global sustainable development efforts. Moreover, many developing countries’ governments have given adaptation action a high, even urgent, priority. (UNFCCC, 2007)

2.4 Local government engagement in climate change adaptation

There have been some links between climate change and the ability of local governments needing to achieve adaptation. Honadle and Howitt (1986) proposed a specific framework and structures of local organizations addressing problems occurring and stating certain accountabilities to conduct capacity building at the local level. Generally, local governments are frequently managing capacity building according to their size. Size is rarely defined rigorously, though those with smaller population are more suitable to develop. In addition, an advantage of smaller size makes for more accurate and efficient study and development. A small size of local government constitutes a threshold of capacity. It can be concluded that a framework of the capacity of local government consists of, the ability to predict change, build informal policies, develop programs, manage resources, evaluate current activities to guide future actions, mitigate the risks, and provide incentives for all stakeholders. In Thailand, the rural local self-governing body known as the Tambon Administrative Organization (TAO) made clear that the local government and their ability to manage resources are closely related to strengthening sustainable natural resource management and tourism development in their communities, consequently their priority for adaptation is to enhance understanding of them, as well as developing the capacity to adapt to climate change influencing the development of sustainable tourism. Therefore, building the capacity of local governments to adapt to climate change is essential to be implemented in tourism areas.

2.5 Koh Chang Local Governmental Agencies' organizational structure and their responsibilities

“Koh Chang” is a district of Trat province, Thailand (Royal Gazette 124, 2007). There consists of two sub-districts namely Koh Chang and Koh Chang Tai. The district is managed by two local governmental organizations that are the Municipality of Koh Chang and the Sub-district Administrative Organization of Koh Chang Tai. The Municipality of Koh Chang and the Sub-district Administrative Organization of Koh Chang Tai are a form of Thailand’s local administration. They have responsibilities and authorities under the Municipality Act, and Tambol Council-Tambol Administrative Act. Although the municipality and the Sub-district are under a different Act, however, responsibilities among them can be summarized as follows (Municipality Act., 2003 and Tambol Council and Tambol Administration Organization Act., 1999)

1. to maintain the public order;
2. to provide and maintain land and water;
3. to provide and clean waterway, public streets or sidewalks and other public areas including removal of solid waste and garbage;
4. to preserve and maintain natural resources and environment;
5. to prevent and suppress disease;
6. to provide extinguisher;
to provide education and training for people;
(8) to encourage industrial family; to make available infrastructure;
(9) to promote development of women, children, youth, elderly, and disabled;
(10) to administer local arts, local tradition, local knowledge, and local culture;
(11) to perform other duties as provided by law shall be the duty of the municipality or the Sub-district Administrative Organization

3. Research methodology

3.1 The study areas and respondents

The study areas were 4 villages within 2 Sub-districts of Koh Chang namely Klong Nonsri, Klong Praw, Bang Bao, and Salak Petch. Respondents of this study were selected by the specific sampling method. They were persons having responsibilities or playing roles dealing with tourism development and working at the Municipality of Koh Chang and the Sub-district Administrative Organization of Koh Chang Tai (SAO Koh Chang Tai), including 4 village-heads. The study selected 24 respondents to represent local governmental agencies’ capacities to adapt to climate change that caused a shortage of water in the island. This involved Chief Executives and members of these two local organizations, village leaders from four selected villages (Ban Klong Nonsri, Ban Klong Praw, Ban Bang Bao, and Ban Salakpetch), Koh Chang District Chief Officer and Assistant District Chief Officer, including representatives of tourism operators. These respondents were chosen by specific sampling method and were people who had experience and were involved with water management and its problems.

3.2 Tools

The tools used in this research were the interview guide. A series of dialogues were held with the respondents in two subdistricts (Koh Chang Subdistrict, and Koh Chang Tai Subdistrict). They were conducted to discuss about their capacity to alleviate the problems caused by climate change, and possible future action to be taken regarding five main categories adopted from Yohe and Tol (2002) comprising the range of available technological options for adaptation; the available resources and distribution; the structure of critical institutions and the criteria for decision making; the stock of human capital and the system access to risk-spreading processes.

3.3 Data collection and Analysis

The data collection techniques included documentary research, interview, and field surveys. A series of studies were conducted to disclose certain critical issues of vulnerability caused by water shortages in the study area, to investigate the current ways the Local Governmental agencies deal with the problems, and to enhance the capacity of them by suggesting policies and strategies to alleviate the problems. Yohe and Tol (2002) collected data on determinants adaptive capacity as adaptation framework to create the interview guides and other instruments used in this study.

The process of data analysis was designed and based on the concept of Creswell (1998) proposal. It is the processes of using analysis, synthesis and indirect interpretation of all data collected. In the process, the data that was rich in content and involved multiple sources of information including field survey, respondents’ interviews, documentary analysis, was translated into a textual database. The particular situation of the impact of climate change on water and its shortage together with the capacity of the local governmental agencies in responding to those impacts were identified, categorized, described, and considered in-depth. Meanwhile, it would be logical to analyze, synthesize, and criticize based on present capacity of local governmental agencies.

4. Findings and discussion

4.1 Economic and social vulnerability of local tourism industries affected by water shortage

From the interviewing in the field, it can be stated that tourism industries in Koh Chang have been vulnerable to the effects of climate change especially regarding water shortages. The findings found that climate change could impact on the tourism sectors through economic and social aspects. The issue of water resources drying up has caused vulnerability to tourism industry, especially during the high-season. Rising costs of operation due to purchasing water
during dry seasons also cause impact on the growth of the tourism industry. Under the continued growth of tourism demand, water and its scarcity as well as unsustainable supply, could made water-related vulnerability for the tourism industry. Moreover, this also seriously affects the home-stay business of local communities by increasing operational cost. The negative impact was not only the economy but also the well-being of people in the community. The indirect effect of climate change also decreases water quality that is being used by the community and tourism industry. The study found that ground water resource has been facing with saltwater intrusion due to the sea level rising. Additionally, whenever water from waterfalls and canals was not available throughout the year, the conflict between tourism operators and villagers could occurred. This makes difficulty among local communities, tourism operators, and other stakeholders. Ultimately, the challenge of climate change will hinder the development of sustainable tourism on this island.

4.2 Capacity of local governmental agencies in adapting to water shortage

Capacity of local governmental agencies is discussed regarding factors affecting their local adaptive capacity mentioned in Section 3.2. Without taking into account the budgetary and financial capabilities, local governmental agencies have accessed to general technological options for climate change adaptation. However, they may not recognize which technology is the most appropriate for relevant climate infrastructure impacts that they have little available expertise on the issue. Local governmental agencies focused mostly on short-term adaptation plans. These can be seen from their strategic implementations that intended to increase their ability to supply water, normally extracting from natural ground water resources, to meet the needs of higher water demand. Currently, LGAs have no conservational technology for proper water management in the island.

Considering the ability of water distribution to the communities, local governmental agencies have the potential to alleviate water shortage for local people, but not for the tourism industry. Such action has been done under three criteria which are (1) types of water users, (2) the purpose of water use, and (3) the availability of water resources. The types of water users and the purpose of water are based on such criterias. The LGAs have different decision to help villagers and tourism operators. For example, the villagers have been prioritized to provide water while tourism operators have considered to use water for their businesses and they should be able to solve such problems by themselves. This decision making of local governmental agencies has unavoided affected tourism operators in the island, especially small size businesses such as home-stays and small resorts. As a result, the problem of increasing operational costs would be increased due to cost of water demand. This seems to be treated on sustainble growth of tourism industry in this island.

Regarding the investment on human capital of the organizations, the study found that the LGAs have small number of human resource development. Most of the budget was not used to enhance their human resources competencies. While the vast majority was spent on infrastructure. It was only about 5-6% of the total annual budget in 2011 has been spent in human resource development. The capacity of local governmental agencies on human resource management was inefficient due to high turnover and conflicts within the organization. As a result of high turnover rate, the problem took place in these organizations were discontinuity of work because of no job description provided. Tasks that require expertise and experience directly related to the area of work cannot be done professionally in a time period. These lead to water shortage that quite related to the issue of climate change.

5. Conclusion

It could be concluded that water shortage in Koh Chang Island would come from climate change, but the most important thing is the lack of knowledge on water management under the climate change of the local governmental agencies. Therefore, capacity building of local governmental agencies on climate change and proper water management are needed in order to reduce water shortage affecting not only on tourism industries, but also the villagers. It could be recommended to further in depth study on this issue and others related.

6. Acknowledgement

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Shaping Traditional and Modern Approaches to Mitigate Impacts of Mining Industry: A Case Study of Karen Village, Lower Klity Creek, Thailand

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Abstract: Shaping Traditional and Modern Approaches to Mitigate Impacts of Mining Industry: A case study of Karen Village, Lower Klity Creek, Thailand aims to analyze the effectiveness of mitigation measures, in the past and at present, for solving the problems of contamination of lead in waste water releasing from mines into the creek. Secondly, this project also aims to present mitigate measure that is the hybrid of traditional folk wisdom and modern technology in solving the problem. The study is carried out under documentary research, interview approach and participant observation. The descriptive analysis is designed to analyze the data. As the villagers have to rely on the creek not only as their main food source but also in other consumer activities, they are poisoned by lead contamination in the creek. This resulted in both physical and mental illness, especially in children; some children died from such contamination, while some became disabled. As for the environmental aspect, the ecosystem is severely damaged. This impact resulted in mitigation measures from various sectors to tackle the issue. However, these mitigation measures were not successful due to lack of consistency in operations and follow-up, lack of long-term relief budget plan, failure to understand the villagers’ ways of life, and lack of integration and extension of further knowledge and practice. Thus, the measure presented in this research is that of a hybrid between the folkways and modern technology in order that the villagers and responsible organizations will be able to adapt it to achieve the effective solution of the problem in the future.

Keywords: adaptive capacity; local governmental agencies; water shortage; local tourism industry;

Introduction

Rapid industrialization, including the development of mining industry, has started since the 1st National Economic (and Social) Development Plan (NESDP). The early 5 Plans witness a prosperous era of tin mining due to the fact that it brought about a number of income and investment, high gross domestic product (GDP) as well as gross national product (GNP). However, far too little attention has been paid to environment and society. As the 6th-7th Plans, mine became more important for domestic industry. Laws and regulations were revised to take charge with community conflict. The plan took more interest in the environment, still, the social and health aspects had no quite large considered. The 8th NESDP until present, sustainable development and sufficiency economic play a central role of development. The balancing among economic, environment along with society are taken into account in order to develop the country. Above mentioned, from 8th NESDP(1992) to 11th NESDP (present) the aims of plan are shifting from economic growth to human-centered development and sufficiency economic. Simultaneously, Millennium Development Goals also ensure environmental sustainability by 2015. As a result, constructing of large projects such as mine began questioning worldwide and it is not easily accepted as the previous decade. One of the most important environmental cases is Klity; the major population of Klity village, the Karen ethnic people, who could be regarded as marginal people because they are powerless in terms of political power, social power and power of knowledge to make a demand for justice and compensation from mine company and governmental organizations. The Klity case reflects not only the development discourse but also the justice system.
Lead Concentrate Thailand, the lead mine, had closed in 1998, on the orders of Thailand’s Department of Mineral Resources, however more than 165,720-552,380 milligrams per kilogram of lead resiment still remains in the creek (Kaeometha Luakpompipat, 2007). The lead pollution leaked out from the mine from the early 1980s until the late 1990s. Several Karen ethnic villagers, particularly at Lower Klity village, have died from lead contamination while a great number of people, particularly women and children, are suffering from acute lead poisoning because of their daily activities such as drinking, fishing and washing in Klity creek. Nearly 100 cattle have died. In 1991, Provincial Electricity Authority gave 50 ducks to villagers, within a week, all of them were died. Many villagers, mostly women and children, became physical and mental disabled. There is an increasing significance concerning toxicity as related to sickness. Stories of people suffering from mining began to get published by media in 1998 and have brought about the government’s orders to close the mine.

This study is highlight on develop the measures to mitigate impacts of mining industry for Klity area. It is carried out under documentary research, interview approach involved villagers, environmentalists, local government officials and academician during the October 2010 to February 2012 and the study areas for participant observation were Klity community, Tong Pha Phoom district, Kanchanaburi during November 2010 to January 2012. The descriptive analysis designed to analyze the data.

Community setting

Klity community located in Tong Pha Phoom district, Kanchanaburi province, Eastern, Thailand. At present, Klity village is home to the total of 82 houses, 327 people; most of them are Pow Karen. The main occupation is farming corn and rice. The main source of their food are animals in the creek. Although they are aware of lead contamination in water they have no other choice but to still use the water. In addition to food, the villagers also use the creek in daily activities such as washing clothes and bathing. This causes them to be prone to high risk of lead exposure. Their quality of life is getting worse.

From 1998 to present, studies found that the level of lead in the water decreased; however, the amount of river sediment did not decrease at all. Severe contamination of lead in the creek causes direct impact to the environment, ecosystem and food cycle. Fresh water animals and plants absorb contaminated water in their bodies and when the villagers consume these animals and plants they also accumulate lead in their bodies as an indirect impact. In addition, activities of the villagers such as bathing, washing or the children swimming in the water are also activities that could result in lead exposure. Lead poisoning causes the villagers to suffer from physical illness, for example, acute headache, sore joints, disability and even death. In some new-bom children, disability in brain and body already developed.

Figure 1. From polluted source to other negative impacts

Main research finding

Mitigation measures

Measures to help reduce the impact from the government and the mine itself have many aspects: health, environment, ways of community and food stability. Each measure has different levels, from the measures in terms of education and monitoring to practical measures as can be seen from the following table:
Table 1 shows the mitigation measures from various sectors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ministry</th>
<th>Department/Office</th>
<th>Measures</th>
<th>Duration</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ministry of Public Health</td>
<td>Public Health Office of Kanchanaburi</td>
<td>Put the sign about stop using the water from the creek</td>
<td>1999</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Public Health Office of Kanchanaburi</td>
<td>Examine blood to identify the level of lead (monitoring)</td>
<td>From 1999 but 3-4 years recently</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Paholpolpayuhasaena Hospital</td>
<td></td>
<td>none comes for a check-up</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Thung Sue Ton Health Station</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ministry of Agriculture and Cooperatives</td>
<td>Department of Fisheries</td>
<td>Build the fish pond</td>
<td>2000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ministry of Natural Resource and Environment</td>
<td>Pollution Control Department</td>
<td>Implement water filter</td>
<td>2009</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private Sectors</td>
<td>Mine acting on its own</td>
<td>Compensation</td>
<td>2000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mine</td>
<td>Mine (order from Pollution Control Department)</td>
<td>Buried contaminated soil</td>
<td>2001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mine</td>
<td>Mine (order from Pollution Control Department)</td>
<td>Building damn to filter sediment</td>
<td>2001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educational Sectors</td>
<td>National Center of Excellence for Environmental and Hazardous Waste Management, Chulalongkorn University Science and Technology Postgraduate Education and Research Development Office, Office of the Higher Education Commission</td>
<td>Educate through posters</td>
<td>2002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public Sectors</td>
<td>General Public</td>
<td>Educate on how to make soy protein</td>
<td>1999</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Mitigation measures in the aspect of health

Practical measures from the government

Public Health Office of Kanchanaburi by the order of the Ministry of Public Health has conducted blood tests and health check-up for the people of Klity since 1999. Sometimes, the test results were not disclosed to the villagers and the office did not have concrete treatment plan, hence, recently, the villagers have not been very cooperative.

Mitigation measures in the aspect of environment

Practical measures from the mine company

Pollution Control Department has ordered the mine to build a small dam to filter the sediment in the area of the creek above Klity village; however, with strong current and lack of consistent maintenance, the dam collapsed, and at present, no governmental sectors or mine resume the responsibility to fix the dam. According to the plan drafted by Pollution Control Department, building damn will be carried out at the same time as burying lead contaminated soil (sediment soil which got stuck in the dam) by burying them soil 100 meters far from the creek, but what really happened was that the mine company placed the soil only about 1 meter from the creek.

Educational measures from educational institutions

Using posters for education
Educational organizations have examined the lead level in the water, soil, sediment, animals and plants in the creek area to promote public awareness through education by using posters. In the posters, the level of lead in the creek, plants and animals are identified. This is the foundation to assist the villagers in deciding to use the creek; however, a number of the villagers cannot read Thai and even some of them could read and learn of the lead level, they do not know whether with such indication it is safe or not to use the creek. They do not know which level is safe for consuming and which is not, as well as what would danger they are prone to once they consume the products from the creek. The poster also did not inform them of how to notice if the body has received lead in the quantity that is dangerous to health. Such important information does not show up in the posters and no the organizations so far have tried to educate the villagers. In addition, there is the lack of public announcement and informer, thus the villagers do not pay enough attention to the posters.

Mitigation measures by avoiding the usage of the creek

“Stop using the water and catching fish” sign erected part of the campaign run by Public Health Office of Kanchanaburi to communicate with the villagers in the community and to create awareness in avoiding the usage of water and stop consuming the fish from the creek which will lead the villagers to be prone to poison exposure. Then again, there is not plan for using alternative water sources and alternative food instead of fish from the creek.

Mitigation measures in the aspect of the ways of the community

Practical measures from the government

Building water reservoir

The project in building water reservoir and connecting water pipes to deliver water to houses (mountain water) initiated by the district council’s support in 1996. This project connected the water pipes from the upstream on the mountain above the village to houses. In that time, every house (about 40 roofs in total) got the pipelines in order to avoid using water in the creek; the number of the houses at that time is still low so the water management could cover every house. At present, however, new houses were built (after 1997, about 40 houses were built) and these new houses do not have those water pipes, this drives them to rely on the creek. Also, the old houses with water pipes are facing problems as the amount of water is insufficient (except in rainy season) and the pipes started to clog due to limestone and some parts of the pipes are also damaged. Houses which are located on higher mound often get no water as the water pressure is not enough. For houses situation lower, they sometimes get the water and sometimes do not. Now, there are about 82 houses and almost all of them need to rely on the creek, especially in summer. Currently, the pipelines are not repaired as the villagers do not have sufficient fund and they cannot agree upon who would be the one responsible for paying the cost of repairment.

Using water filter

The villagers have requested to have a big water filter connected to the water pipelines on the mountain to filter out lead but Pollution Control Department only granted them with small water filter with the objective to see the villagers consume clean water. They implemented the water filter in front of the community temple which is about 1-2 kilometers far from their houses. The village's geographical landscape is slopes and hills, so it is inconvenient for the villagers to get the water there. Now, no one use the water filter.

Mitigation measures in the aspect of food stability

Practical measures from the government

The Department of Fisheries built the fish pond with plastic covered the bottom of pond to prevent contamination of lead. This project aims to build food stability so the villagers would not have to risk their health by catching and consuming the fish in the creek. However, the problem persists as the fish died within the first 2 weeks due to lack of water circulation in the pond because of insufficient water source. Also, the department granted catfish, which eat meat, for the villagers to raise and, the villagers do not have enough money to buy food for those fish.
Practical measures from private sectors

The promotion of eating food that is free from lead started with public sectors educating the village in making soy protein. Nonetheless, as the supporters of project are general individual, they had limited fund, so when the fund is depleted they did not continue their project.

Lessons learned from present measures

1 Inconsistency in operation and follow-up

Inconsistency in hospitalization, hospitalization without treatment plan from beginning to the end, lack of follow-up and plan for prevention and alleviate illness caused the villagers to still suffer from lead poisoning. Additionally, building dam to filter sediment and reservoir with water pipelines to houses lack maintenance and follow-up from the government. This causes the measures to fail to achieve the planned goal and the budget is unfortunately lost in futility.

2 Lack of planning for long-term relief budget

By not planning for the mid and long-term budget, only the short-time measure is used and when the short-time measure failed it is impossible to be changed and improved as the budget is already depleted. This resulted in inconsistency in operations and no further project in the aspect of knowledge and operational practice.

3 Lack of understanding the villagers’ traditional ways of life

It is important to take the villagers’ ways of life in consideration when using any measures. To prohibit them from catching fish but do not provide any alternative ways to food stability, or to let them raise the fish without taking the fact that water is deficient, or to use posters with formal language which the villagers cannot understand or read to raise awareness, these measures ignore the ways of life and the limitations of these villagers, so they cannot achieve their purposes.

4 Lack of knowledge integration with practice

Operations of each organization is rather specialized and does not cover the over-all picture of the problem or cooperate with other organizations, all the measures thus became clusters of jigsaws unfit in the bigger picture and unable to solve the holistic problem. Moreover, lack of cooperation and integration causes repetition in procedures. This resulted in no further knowledge integration and practice, blocking the progress of mitigation measures.

Mitigation Measures: Lessons to be learn

The previous mitigation measures lack efficiency due to inconsistency in operations and result follow-up, no long-term relief budget plan for villagers, lack of understanding of the villagers’ ways of life and lack of integration and extension of further knowledge and practice. Hence, the suggestions for mitigation measures for the Kilty creek case must consider possibility in practice, ways of life and the objective of the measures. Suggestions for further mitigation measures are divided into 2 stages: firstly, short-term measures which will consider urgency consume short time and use limited budget, and secondly, mid-term measures which will consider necessity and budget.

Short-term measures

Measures for food stability

Raising tilapias in aquaculture (floating basket) in Kilty Creek

Raising tilapia in floating basket in Kilty creek aims to help solve food instability problem. Tilapias eat vegetable and fruits, the villagers do not have to spend money for food when raising them. Also, the suggestion to raise tilapias in Kilty creek is due to the fact that the villagers do not have sufficient water if they would like to raise the fish in the pond. The pH level in the creek is about 7, quite alkaline, because there is carbonate in the creek sediment will form. Lead sediment will not
disperse and dissolved into water. When the fish are raised in the floating basket, they will be safe to eat due to the fact that lead will not be dispersed. Raising tilapias in floating basket could only be done during summer (March to June) and winter (November-February) because during rainy seasons (July-October) the strong current will disseminate lead sediment, the water will be turbid with high lead level. This suggestion of raising tilapias in the floating basket in the creek will not change the ways of life of the Klity villagers as this could only be done for self-sufficient or family consumption and cannot become commercial as the creek is too small. This suggestion will help solve the problem of hardship in catching fish in the creek as now the number of fish decreases and their sizes also become smaller.

Measures to create the Klity network and develop the knowledge

This can be done by creating a network for people who work on and are interested in the Klity issue. This project has the objective to promote information exchange and the development of knowledge base by using social network as a fuel in communication, brainstorming and further the knowledge database. At present, quite a number of people are interested in Klity case but they do not have sufficient contacts, working is, thus, done individually and this causes repetitions in the procedures resulting in a loss of time and money. In addition, there is no integration in terms of different fields making it impossible to gather and further the knowledge. Because of this, creating the network through social network is a good opportunity to bring those who are working to solve the Klity problems to exchange data, exchange knowledge through different fields and exchange experience, as well as becomes a fast and easy channel for communication; creating the network will then increase efficiency in solving the Klity issue.

Mid-term measures

Measures to decrease exposure to lead

Building water pipelines and water storage are aims to make the villagers less dependent on the creek. At present, Klity village has the water pipelines connected to the upstream in the mountain which was built in 1996 but some parts of the pipelines are already broken and clogged. Also, the number of the pipes is not keeping up with the number of houses in the village, this causes water scarcity and the villagers have to use the water from the creek. When the villagers use the water from the creek, they risk to be exposed to lead; so building pipelines will help lessen this risk exposure. This can be done by building the pipelines from the mountain to the village, connect the big water filter to filter out lead and limestone, then build water storage and connect the pipelines from the storage to houses. Houses which will use the water from the storage have to withhold the condition to frequently maintain and repair the pipes by themselves, even the damage is from breakage or clog due to limestone. The villagers have to take care and maintain the pipes by themselves and appoint people to take turns to examine the strength of the pipe system which is their capacity building.

Measures in hospitalization

Building health station in the village with an objective to holistic hospitalization is suggested. As of the present, the villagers have to travel to Thung Suae Tone health station which is 12 kilometers away and the entire route to the health station is made of gravels. Sometimes, when they arrive at the station there is no doctor on duty there and it is not possible to call for detail or make an appointment as the village does not have home telephone and there is no network coverage of mobile phone either. When the villagers become ill, it is then impossible to get to the doctor's hand immediately. The villagers concern that when the children become severely ill and require immediate and accurate treatment, they cannot correctly conduct first-aid practice before sending the children to the hospital. According to the statistics, during 1995 to 2001 is the time when the water in the creek was very turbid because the mine released great amount of lead contaminated waste water into the creek and during that period 29 children have died. In 2000, the maximum number of children died in the village is 6. (Jirawan Banthaothuk, 2007) If the village has its own health station, the treatment could be carried out in time and accurately; the villagers will have better life quality. These measures will help mitigate the problems from the mine and build better life for villagers. It is important that these mitigation measures should open for the villagers to be a part of the project from planning, monitoring and follow-up.

Challenge in the plan to restore the creek

The plan to restore the creek must be beyond the mainstream economical value which only considers monetary worth. It
must recognize ethics and human rights. The mine must be responsible for restoring the creek as they released contaminated waste water. Governmental organizations should be responsible for granting a permission for the mine but do not have measures in assessment and follow-up and not solving the problem in time. Restoring the creek is not only a matter of money or environment but also to restore the ways of life, quality of life and community relation in the village, as well as the souls of the villagers. Moreover, it is also a matter of development of responsibility for both society and ethics.

Recommendation

There are various affected communities such as gold mine in Pijit which suffers from dust and contaminated ground water, Potash mining in Udonthani which has been threatening the villager's health both socially and economically since 1993, Mae Moh mining in Lampang, where heavy metals are found accumulated in sediment and Lower Klity in Kanchaburi, where the community are blighted by lead contamination. Over the past decade, there has been a dramatic increase in the negative effects of mining.

The step beyond the blockage in Klity problem, we must consider the origin of the problem which are irresponsibility and lack of shame. Even these might be rather abstract, they caused the release of poison into the creek, destroyed environment and ecosystem, destroyed the small village and its villagers, killed the children and ruined the soul of the people of Klity that it is hard to heal. Despite an attempt to study the plan to restore the creek, it takes a long time as possibility of project and fund need to be taken in consideration. Moreover, economical thought that tends to ignore the dimension of social justice is also one of the obstacles of the consideration of the creek restoration project. Mitigation measures are thus required immediately in relieving the problems that the villagers are suffering from before the creek could be restored to better quality and be safe for the villagers to consume in their daily lives. The challenge from the lessons from Klity is that if we cannot avoid mining in the freedom of capital era or global economy, we can create initiate economic plan that accounts for sustainable mining with waste management and bypassing system that is friendly to the environment. The villagers can inspect and follow the operations of the mine. Moreover, the mine should not destroy the ways of life, social system and community culture. There should also be activities or plan that will offer benefit for the community as well. As for the governmental organizations, they need to investigate the ethics of the company that the concession is granted. They might consider reviewing the background and scrutinize whether the mine has caused problems for other villages or not and how is the acceptance from the previous community as one of the standards for consideration of granting concession. Moreover, they need to inspect and follow up the operations of the mine from the beginning to the restoration of the environment around the mine after the mine is closed. Mass media could be a great drive in examining the transparency of the mine and publishing information to the public whereas the strength of civil society will help balancing between the powers of the mine and the government in order to create, motivate and interrogate as to bring out social justice and social responsibility.

Conclusion

According to the well-known sociologists, Ulrich Beck and Anthony Giddens, risk is a major part of transition to modernity and there are two different kinds of risk; first, an external risks which are beyond human control such as natural disaster, and second, manufactured risks produced by modernization; for instance, genetically modified organism and toxic waste. “The environmental vulnerability is concerned with the risk of damage to the natural environment of a country. For the natural environment, the entities at risk, termed responders, include ecosystems, habitats, populations and communities of organisms, physical and biological processes, energy flows, diversity, genes, ecological resilience and ecological redundancy.” (Ursula Kaly, 2002) Klity case is categorized as manufactured risk due to the fact that poisoning substance was released from the mine. The waste water containing lead causes risks for the villagers in Klity in the aspects of health, lifestyle, food and culture. The high-risk prone group consists of 3 big groups namely children, pregnant women, and mothers who are still in the stage of breastfeeding to their child. Each individual's way to cope with the risk depends on many factors such as lifestyle and the level of dependence to the creek. One of the most significant current discussions in legal and moral philosophy is who gets the benefit from mining industry, who should be responsible for cleaning up toxic waste, and who should provide compensation and rehabilitation care for the villagers. The measures to mitigate impacts of mining industry has existed for over a decade, yet, social and health problems still do not decrease. The issue has grown to importance in the recent years due to an increasing public awareness on industrial development and its impact on local environment and communities. Debates continue about the best strategies for the measures to mitigate the impacts of mining in Klity area. The villagers in this environmental are prone to risk in their
everyday life, thus measures to mitigate impacts of mining industry is considerably a big challenge for Klity villagers in order to survive with a satisfying quality of life.

Acknowledgement

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Microbiological Water Safety of Community-Managed Drinking-Water Systems in Tirana

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Abstract  Diseases related to contaminated drinking water have a greater impact on human health. The purpose of this study is monitoring the microbiological characteristics of water dissolved in the water distribution system in Tirana. The method used for microbiological analysis is: membrane filter. This method is based on filtering the water with a vacuum filter equipment using membrane filters with a diameter of 47 – 50 mm, and 0.45 μm pore size. As object of this study have been some areas of Tirana: Kinostudio, Porcelan, Don Bosko, Kombinat, Laprakë, 21 Dhjetori, Komuna e Parisit, Treni, Ali Demi, Yzberishti, Sharra, etc. The areas are codify as: (A1, A2, A3, A4, A5, A6, A7, A8, A9, A10, A11, A12, A13, A14, A15, A16, A17, A18, A19, A20). Samples for analysis were taken from these areas in two stages with difference time a month of each other just to see the difference in microbial load depending on temperature rise. Monitoring was conducted for indicator organisms (E. Coli, T. Count, Pseudomonas aeruginosa, Enterococcus fecalis). Mainly areas which result in a high contamination are codified as (A3, A4, A14, A17, A20). The reasons for these results are: amortization of distribution system, the lack of restoration of damaged items to the distribution system, illegal interference in the distribution system, construction of wells in private homes, the use of storage systems and pumping systems for individual supply in any residential apartment.

Keywords: indicator organisms, contamination, distribution system, samples.

Preface

Surveillance of drinking-water quality can be defined as “the continuous and vigilant public health assessment and review of the safety and acceptability of drinking-water supplies” (WHO, 1976). The right of consumers to information on the safety of the water supplied to them for domestic purposes is fundamental. Diarrhoea occurs world-wide and causes 4% of all deaths and 5% of health loss to disability. The use of water in hygiene is an important preventive measure but contaminated water is also an important cause of diarrhoea. Cholera and dysentery cause severe, sometimes life threatening forms of diarrhoea. Amongst the poor and especially in developing countries, diarrhoea is a major killer. In 1998, diarrhoea was estimated to have killed 2.2 million people, most of whom were under 5 years of age (WHO, 2000). Each year there are approximately 4 billion cases of diarrhoea worldwide.

Material and method

The method used for microbiological analysis is: membrane filter. This method is based on filtering the water with a vacuum filter equipment using membrane filters with a diameter of 47 – 50 mm, and 0.45 μm pore size. Filters with water content filter placed in Petri dishes with readily dehydrated terrain that is hydrate first with sterilized water. Then the plates are placed in the thermostat (24 – 48 hours depending on the organism) and then are count the bacterial colonies formed. As object of this study have been some areas of Tirana: (Pazari i Ri, Kinostudio, Porcelan, Oshaku, Don Bosko, Babru, Kombinat, Park, Laprake, Zogu i Zhi, 21 Dhjetori, Fusha e Aviacionit, Komuna e Parisit, Misti Mame, Stacioni i Trenit, Uzina e Autotraktorve, Ali Demi, Yzberisht, Sharra, Koder Kamza). Zonat jane kodifikuar si me poshte: (A1, A2, A3, A4, A5, A6, A7, A8, A9, A10, A11, A12, A13, A14, A15, A16, A17, A18, A19, A20). Samples for analysis were taken from these areas in two stages with difference time a month of each other just to see the difference in microbial load depending on temperature rise. Monitoring was conducted for indicator organisms (E. Coli, T. Count, Pseudomonas aeruginosa, Enterococcus fecalis).

Resultant and discussion

1. Microbiological aspects of drinking water

Given the fact that the population of Tirana is thought to have reached around 850'000 inhabitants, that is how a quarter of the country's population, ensuring the microbiological safety of drinking water is very necessary. Diseases related to contamination of drinking-water constitute a major burden on human health. Interventions to improve the quality of
drinking-water provide significant benefits to health. The most common and widespread health risk associated with drinking water is microbial contamination, the consequences of which mean that its control must always be of paramount importance. In general terms, the greatest microbial risks are associated with the consumption of water that is contaminated with humans or animals faecal. Infectious diseases caused by pathogenic bacteria, viruses, protozoa and helminthes are the most common and widespread health risk associated with drinking-water. Contaminated water can be the source of large outbreaks of disease, including cholera, dysentery and cryptosporidiosis etc. Such epidemics stemming from drinking water should be avoided especially because they have higher capacity to infect both a larger number of people and potentially a higher percentage of the community. Approaches to verification include testing of source water, water immediately after treatment, water in distribution systems or stored household water.

Table 1.1 Some of the microorganism value of European Standard 80/778 (Appendix I) and Albanian Standard (VKM 145, 1998) for drinking water.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parameters</th>
<th>EC DESIG: 80/778</th>
<th>STASH 3904:1997</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Norma</td>
<td>Maximum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Coliform, colonies/100 ml</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Streptococcus faecalis, colonies/100 ml</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>coliforms faecalis, colonies/100 ml</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1.2: Average monthly record of some microbiological parameters measured regularly by Bovilla plant before and after water treatment, during the last three years (2006-2009).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parameters</th>
<th>Before Treatment</th>
<th>After Treatment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>minimum</td>
<td>average</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total coliform koloni / 100ml</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>17.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Streptococcus faecalis koloni/100ml</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>30.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coliforms faecalis colonies / 100ml</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>15.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General Micro (36C) colonies / ml</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>14.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General Micro (22C) colonies / ml</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>18.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clostridium Colonies/20ml</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. Experimental part

2.1 The results of problematic areas

1. (Uzina e Autotaktorve) A14

SAMPLE 1: Dt: 08/06/11, Time: 9:30’

SAMPLE 2: Dt: 21/06/11, Time: 13:30
-E. Coli after 24 hours – not counting, tan color.
-Total count after 48 hours – 25 colonies, yellow color.
-Pseudomonas after 48 hours – not counting, yellow color.
-Enterococcus faecalis after 48 hours – 2 colonies, tan color.

Graphic

![Bar chart showing number of colonies for different microorganisms.](image)

Figure 2.1 Number of colonies of E. coli, Total Count, Pseudomonas, Enterococcus fecali, formed from water samples taken in the area of Uzina e Autotraktorve.

**Interpretation:** The results of tests: in sample 1: the presence of E.coli is not counting, T. count is 25 colonies/1ml water sample taken for analysis, Pseudomonas is innumerable and E.fecali is 2 colonies/100ml. While in sample 2 results in the presence of E. coli is not counting, T. count is 7 colonies/1ml water sample taken for analysis, Pseudomonas is innumerable and E. fecali is 15 colonies/100ml water sample taken for analysis.

2. (Misto Mame) A17

**SAMPLE 1:** Dt: 08/06/11, Time: 13:30'  
**SAMPLE 2:** Dt: 23/06/11, Time: 10:00

E. Coli after 24 hours – 62 colonies, tan color.  
Total count after 48 hours – 10 colonies, white color.  
Pseudomonas after 48 hours – 2 colonies, yellow color.  
Enterococcus faecalis after 48 hours – 0 colony.

E. Coli after 24 hours – 43 colonies, tan color.  
Total count after 48 hours – 4 colonies, white color.  
Pseudomonas after 48 hours – 21 colonies, yellow color.  
Enterococci faecalis pas 48 orësh – not counting, red color.
Figure 2.2 Values of E. coli, Total Count, Pseudomonas, Enterococcus fecali for 2 water samples taken in the area of Misto Mames.

**Interpretation:** The results of tests in sample 1: the presence of *E. coli* is 62 colonies/100ml, *T. count* is 10 colonies/1ml water sample taken for analysis, *Pseudomonas* is 1 colony/100ml of water sample taken for analysis, *E. faecalis* is 0 colony/100ml water sample taken for analysis. While sample 2 results in the presence of *E. coli* at 43 colonies/100ml, *T. count* to 4 colonies/1ml water sample taken for analysis, *Pseudomonas* is 21 colonies/100ml and *E. faecalis* is not counting.

3. Graphic design of all samples for each organism, in particular

Figure 2.5 Overview 40 samples

Graphic Fig 2.3 output of all samples for Total Count
**Interpretation:** The results of analysis performed for *Total count* is seen that in both Uzina e Autotraktorve samples and two samples results in Misto Mame pollution level is to higher compared with the other areas.

**Graphic Fig 2.4 output of all samples for E. Coli**

**Interpretation:** From the results of tests performed on *E. coli* can be seen that in both areas Uzina e Autotraktorve and Misto Mame two samples resulting in a higher pollution level compared with other areas where, according to EU standard, and according to Albanian Standard of drinking water, the amount of these organisms should result 0 colony/100ml water sample taken for analysis.

**Figure 2.5 Graphical presentation of results of all samples for Pseudomonas aeruginosa**

**Interpretation:** From the results of analysis performed for *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* can be seen that in both samples Uzina e Autotraktorve and the second sample results Misto Mame a higher pollution level compared with other areas where, according to EU Standards and according to Standard Albanian on drinking water, the quantity of these microorganisms should result 0 colonies/100ml water sample taken for analysis.

**Figure 2.6 Graphical presentation of results of all samples for Enterococcus fecalis**
Interpretation: From the results of analysis performed for *Enterococcus fecalis* seen that in both samples Uzina e Autotratorve and the second sample results Misto Mame a higher pollution level compared with other areas where, according to EU standard and by Albanian standards on drinking water, the quantity of these microorganisms should result 0 colonies / 100ml water sample taken for analysis.

Table 2.1 Areas and the number of colonies of microorganisms identified in each of the samples taken (in red appear problemetike areas).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Zone</th>
<th>Mostra E. Coli</th>
<th>T. Count</th>
<th>Pseudomona aeruginosa</th>
<th>E. fecali</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Samples 1</td>
<td>Samples 2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pazari i Ri</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kinostudjo</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Porcelani</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oxbaku</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Don Bosko</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Babrru</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kombinat</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parku</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Laprak</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zogu i Zi</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21 Dhjetori</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fusha e Avjacionit</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Komuna e Parisit</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uzina e Autotratorve</td>
<td>Not counting</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>Not counting</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Misto Mame</td>
<td>Not counting</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>Not counting</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Treni</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ali Demi</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yzberisht</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sharrë</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kodër Kamëz</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Conclusions

The study took into consideration 20 areas of the Tirana city to monitor the microbiological characteristics of drinking water in these areas. Samples were taken mainly to the right in the taps of 20 dwellings in the relevant areas, from which two samples were taken in parallel. Taking two parallel samples served to confirm the results.
From the results of analysis have proved 5 problematic areas, namely areas A3, A4, A14, A17, A20. As mentioned above, obtaining two parallel samples helps to confirm the results but it is clear that this study can be taken as a good basis for further studies.

In area A3 results in sample 1 are: the presence of *E. coli* to 4 colonies/100ml, *T. count* at 5 colonies/1ml water sample taken for analysis, the extent of *Pseudomonas* 2 colonies/100ml water sample taken for analysis and *E. fecali* 2 colonies/100ml. While the sample 2 results in the presence of *E. coli* at 5 colonies/100ml, *T. count* in the mass 3 colonies/1ml water sample taken for analysis, the extent of *Pseudomonas* 7 colonies/100ml water sample taken for analysis and *E. faecalis* 0 colonies/100ml.

In area A4 results in sample 1 are: the presence of *E. coli* in 7 colonies/100ml, *T. count* in 2 colonies/1ml water sample taken for analysis, the extent of *Pseudomonas* 8 colonies/100ml water sample taken for analysis and *E. faecali* 0 colonies/100ml. While the sample 2 results in the presence of *E. coli* 5 colonies/100ml, *T. count* 3 colonies/1ml water sample taken for analysis, *Pseudomonas* 8 colonies/100ml water sample taken for analysis and *E. faecalis* 0 colonies/100ml.

In area A14 results in sample 1 are: the presence of *E. coli* is not counting, *T. count* 25 colonies/1ml water sample taken for analysis, *Pseudomonas* are not counting and *E. faecali* 2 colonies/100ml. While in sample 2 results in the presence of *E. coli* is not counting, *T. count* 7 colonies/1ml, water sample taken for analysis, *Pseudomonas* are not counting and *E. fecali* 15 colonies/100ml.

In area A17 results in sample 1 are: the presence of *E. coli* is 62 colonies/100ml, *T. count* 10 colonies/1ml water sample taken for analysis, *Pseudomonas* 1 colonies/100ml of water sample taken for analysis, *E. faecali* 0 colonies/100ml water sample taken for analysis. While in sample 2 results are the presence of *E. coli* is 43 colonies/100ml, *T. count* 4 colonies/1ml water sample taken for analysis, the presence of *Pseudomonas* are 21 colonies/100ml and *E. faecali* is not counting.

In area A20 results in sample 1 are: the presence of *E. coli* is 10 colonies/100ml, *T. count* 0 colonies/1ml, water sample taken for analysis, *Pseudomonas* are 0 colonies/100ml water sample taken for analysis and *E. faecali* 3 colonies/100ml. While in sample 2 results in the presence of *E. coli* is 23 colonies/100ml, *T. count* 0 colonies/1ml water sample taken for analysis, *Pseudomonas* 0 colonies/100ml water sample taken for analysis and *E. faecalis* 0 colonies/100ml. While in areas A2, A5, A9, A13, A15, A18 in the second samples of each case, the results for microorganisms *E. coli*, *Pseudomonas*, *E. fecali*, Total count are 0 colonies/100ml water sample, and in isolated cases specifically in the areas: A1, the presence of *E. coli* has resulted in 1 colony/100 ml in first sample and 0 colonies/100 ml in the second sample. Area A16 has the presence of *E. coli* in 0 colonies/100 ml in the first sample and 1 colonies/100 ml in second sample while the presence of Total count has resulted 1 colonies/100 ml in the first sample and 0 colonies/100 ml in the second sample. In areas A18 *E. coli* has resulted in 2 colonies/100 ml in first sample and 0 colonies/100 ml in the second sample, while the presence of Total count 1 colonies/100 ml resulted in the first sample and 0 colonies/100 ml in the second sample. These results are not considered as an indicator.

1 - Depreciation of the distribution system and the lack of restoration of damaged items to the distribution system.
2 - Illegal interventions on the distribution system which not only reduce the flow of water in the system but also cause water pollution from the surrounding environment of the ordinary case of contamination by sewage.
3 - Opening of wells in private homes. For these wells from which water is used for a direct consumption, has not monitored nor consistently microbiological safety of water used.
4 - Use of water tanks and pumping systems to supply individual in any residential apartment buildings. Lack of isolation of these deposits and the lack of application of these procedures sanifikimit for storage and equipment.

**Recommendations**

Based on the results obtained during this study, recommend:

1 - To deepen the study of the problematic areas to understand the reasons of these results in a high level of contamination of drinking water
2 - Focusing the study on a single problem to identifying more points in indicators microorganism in this area.
3 - Continuation of the study to categorize the problems associated with interference in the distribution system.
4 - Further research in all areas related to the presence of *E. coli* in water, given the fact that it is predominant microorganism in the analyzed samples.
5 - Focus on the monitoring depending on the distribution depots and pumping systems appropriate for each area that ujsjellsit system.
6 - Monitoring of indicators microorganisms depending on the source that supplies the distribution system, namely, Selita, Shënmëria, old Bovilla and Bovilla reservoir.

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Lumturie Ruçi, MSC Lurjana Lila (2010) Diplomë,: Aspekete të sigurise dhe cilësisë së ujit të pijshm që shperndahet nga Bovilla nëpërmet rrjetit në qytetin e Tiranës


STASH 3904 (1997): Standardi I Ujit të pijshëm; ICS 13.060

Do Urban Community Gardens Matter?  
The Case of Bulawayo Metropolitan Province in Zimbabwe

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Abstract: This paper discusses the role of urban agriculture with a special focus on community gardens in urban food security and poverty alleviation in the three high density suburbs of Magwegwe North, Nketa and Nkulumane in Bulawayo metropolitan province of Zimbabwe. Urban agriculture in Zimbabwe is in two forms; one that violates local authority by-laws whereby open pieces of land are haphazardly cultivated and the form comprising authorised cultivation of urban gardens close to residential areas or on allocated land though, with limited renewable user rights, by the local authority to farmers. The study focuses on the different beneficiaries, crops grown, output and their contributions to the household diet and income. The research is largely qualitative and uses primary data collected from 15 interviews, 5 focus group discussions and observations on beneficiaries of community gardens in Magwegwe North, Nketa and Nkulumane high density suburbs. The results indicate that community gardens have become a significant source of fresh produce but the shortage of resources inputs, and environmental health risks remain paramount obstacles to realising the full potential of these gardens. We conclude that community gardens do increase access and household food security, diversity of diet and contribute immensely to poverty alleviation among urban households.

Keywords: Urban agriculture, Community gardens, Food security, Poverty alleviation

1. Background

Urban agriculture unlike community gardens is not a new phenomenon in all major cities in Zimbabwe including Harare and Bulawayo. Urban agriculture is defined as cultivating food crops within city boundaries by residents primarily for individual household consumption although the surplus may be sold. Community gardens are a form of urban agriculture whereby residents of a particular community participate jointly in growing different types of crops on a given piece of land. The land is demarcated and each farmer is allocated a small plot on which to grow crops, mainly vegetables for individual household consumption. Communal resources shared in community gardens include water, fences and possibly security services, assistance from non-governmental organizations and benefits from the local authority linked to community gardens. Many community gardens in Bulawayo started around the year 2000 with most facing viability challenges between 2007 and 2009 because of the country’s economic challenges.

There is no legislation or by-laws targeting urban agriculture in Zimbabwe; let alone that are pro-urban agriculture. Several instruments including the Regional Town and Country Planning Act: (Chapter 29:12; the Environmental Management Act (Chapter 20:27), the Bulawayo Protection of Lands and Natural Resources By Laws, 1975 and the Bulawayo (Public Health) by-laws, 1966 view urban agriculture as responsible for environmental degradation and other negative biodiversity challenges. Almost all farmers involved in urban agriculture in high density areas have no title to the land hence they have no recourse through the courts when “their” agricultural land is acquired and put into other competing uses.

Most of the publicly and privately owned vacant land designated for residential, commercial and industrial urban expansion in real estate is temporarily converted into individual family plots either legally or illegally by farmers. According to the 2000-2015 City of Bulawayo Master Plan, the city owns 11 000 hectares of such vacant land (Bulawayo City Council (BCC), 2007). However, the municipal planning processes in Zimbabwe consider urban agriculture as incompatible with urban development hence as an impediment to urban growth (Chaipa, 2001). Construction of residential areas is the main threat to urban agriculture largely viewed as a secondary land use option compared to other urban land use activities.

This study sought to highlight the role of urban agriculture’s contribution to livelihood by focusing on community gardens in 3 (Magwegwe north, Nketa, Nkulumane) out of 21 high density suburbs in Bulawayo metropolitan province.
The total population of Magwegwe North, Nketa, Nkulumane were 15 778, 21 227 and 10 471, respectively in 2007 (BCC, 2007).

This paper analyses the role of community gardens in contributing to livelihoods of households in above mentioned high density suburbs. We hypothesize that community gardens play a significant role in household food security among farmers participating in community household gardens. The study attempts to highlight socio-economic characteristics of farmers involved in community gardens, types of crops grown, role of community gardens and highlight different roles played by stakeholders including the Bulawayo City Council (BCC), Resource Centres on Urban Agriculture and Food Security (RUAF) and the Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs). Variables of interest include types of farmers, crop varieties, output and income from agriculture, market challenges and limitations of urban community gardens.

2. Review of literature

Cities in Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) are growing at an exceptional rate of about 5% annually (Crush et al., 2006). The UN-HABITAT (2006) further reports that the percentage of urban residents in SSA is expected to rise from 30 to 47 percent of the total population during the period lasting from 2005 to 2030. This will bring about new and critical challenges for urban development policy, especially in ensuring household food security. It is acknowledged that as the world's urban population grows, so does the numbers of the urban poor (Beall and Fox, 2007). Most of the urban poor receive incomes too low to adequately cover their basic needs. Mitlin (2005) argues that they spend most of their household budgets on food.

Food insecurity and unemployment are thus major problems in most urban areas in Sub-Saharan Africa (Mougeot, 2004; UN Habitat, 2007) where the Food and Agriculture Organisation of the United Nations (FAO) estimates that 33 % of the people are malnourished. Ensuring food security and appropriate nutrition of the urban population in the tropics where rural food production is limited by marginal soil fertility, low incomes and lack of access to necessary inputs is a big challenge (Cofie, 2003). Food production in urban backyards throughout the world is thus a response by the urban poor to inadequate and costly food supply. The related increase in urban food demand precipitated a litany of farming systems in the cities, growing mainly vegetables.

The concept of food security emphasises access and health rather than the mere availability of food although both are important to urban households. According to Maxwell (1995) as urban food insecurity changes its focus from “feeding the cities” to food access at household and individual level, urban agriculture becomes the only viable option towards food security (Cofie, 2003). Household food insecurity is proportionally related to the percentage contribution of food to the total household budget. That is the fewer the household’s alternatives in buying food, the more serious the insecurity (Meugeot, 1994) and this is directly related to household’s effective demand (Garrett, 2000). The primary motivation for involvement in urban agriculture is the failure of household per capita incomes in keeping pace with rising food prices (Flynn 2001). Producing own food implies less expenditure and greater opportunities of household realising income from agriculture (Mougeot, 2005).

Urban agriculture in Zimbabwe is driven by a combination of factors linked to severe food crisis including the failure of the structural adjustment (SAPs) and land reform programmes, worsening poverty, market failures and the political and economic decline since year 2000 (Kutiwa et al., 2010). The 2000 government Fast Track Land Reform Program (FTLRP) coupled with misaligned economic and food security policies caused near demise of the commercial agricultural sector, as the country plunged to being a net food importer. Subsequent ad-hoc food policy strategies failed to address the country’s food security challenges leading to dietary and economic deficiencies especially among low-income urban minorities. On the other hand ensuing food shortages led to exorbitant food prices and the intensification of urban agriculture as strategy towards self-sufficiency and self-reliance (FEWS NET, 2009).

supported by the local authorities, international and local non-governmental organisations interested in the welfare of the poor.

3. Materials and Methods

The community gardens visited were Khulumsenza in Nkulumane, Farming God’s Way in Nketa and Magwegwe North garden in Magwegwe North. Each household in high density areas comprises 6 people who survive on about US$200 per month and the country’s poverty line is US$400 (Mpofu, 2011). Estimates show that 80% of households in high density areas are food insecure. The map in Figure 1 shows the location of Bulawayo in Zimbabwe as well as the study areas relative to other areas within the city. The map shows low density areas, high density areas and the central business district as illustrated in the key. The Magwegwe North, Nketa and Nkulumane community gardens are indicated by green arrows and labeled 1, 2 and 3 on the map.

![Figure 1: Map showing community gardens in different suburbs of Bulawayo](image)

**Primary data sources**

Primary data were collected through 15 interviews (5 from each garden) using a structured questionnaire, 6 focus group discussions, 2 in each suburb, and 4 key informant interviews. The key informants were the former local councilor for ward 23, 3 chairpersons of community gardens and an official from the BCC in charge of community gardens. Respondents were purposively sampled by chairpersons of committees from members who had been involved in community gardens for 2 years or more. Ten out of 15 respondents were women as men are generally fewer in these gardens. The group discussion in Nkulumane included 7 women and 5 men. In order to avoid male dominance thereby negatively affecting the flow of information, (Dwyer, 2001) men and women were separated. Women in most communities in sub-Saharan Africa for cultural and social reasons have difficulties expressing themselves in the presence of men; quite often going along with views of men in fear of being labelled social misfits if they challenge men. However it is known that men and women have different life experiences due to their different roles often imbued differently across different societies (Helmore and Singh, 2002). Mikkelsen (1995) argues that 1 or 2 members in any group discussion will develop into informal leaders and dominate the discussion. In order to overcome this problem each group member was asked to give individual contribution. Data collected included socio-economic characteristics, agricultural output, quantity sold, and access to credit, extension services, distance to markets, food sufficiency and crop consumption patterns.

4. Results and Discussion

This section presents the results of the study starting with the background information on the development of community gardens and characteristics of beneficiaries, followed by the role of Bulawayo City Council and other stakeholders. Food security, economic benefits and challenges faced in community gardens are discussed just before the conclusion. The results are presented in the form of narrations, tables and figures. Investigations revealed that there are 12 community gardens throughout Bulawayo’s high density areas whose primary objective is improving the livelihoods of the elderly, destitute, and widowed and other poorest members of society. There are over 1 000 members working on average plot
sizes of 130 m². Each garden is about 0.42 to 2 hectares and there are about 15 beneficiaries per garden. Beneficiaries are selected by social workers in the Department of Housing and Community Services (DHCS) however, where the DHCS does not have resources, local councillors are responsible for the selection of beneficiaries. Table 1 summarises activities of key stakeholders in community gardens.

Table 1: Different stakeholders and their roles

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of Stakeholder</th>
<th>Role played in community gardens</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Municipality of Bulawayo                 | 1. Provision of land and water in designated areas where community gardens are located  
2. Promoting and supporting the establishment of a multi-stakeholder consultative forum for urban agriculture.  
3. Formulating appropriate legislation, regulations, policies and strategies to ensure an enabling environment for urban agriculture. |
| World Vision (An international non-      | 1. Provision of seed money to purchase inputs  
2. Technical assistance including training on farming, provision of skills and knowledge, organization and other requirements |
| governmental organisation)              |                                                                                                                                                                                                                                     |
| RCUAF                                    | 1. Seed money for start-up inputs and research on low input techniques for urban gardens  
2. Training of farmers                                                                                                                                                                                                               |
| Beneficiaries                            | 1. Provision of labour for land preparation, weeding, harvesting and selling of crops.  
2. Attending training sessions, meetings and other groupings organised by the BCC, RCUAF and World Vision  
3. Attending brainstorming meetings and contributing to the general objectives through active participation and sharing of ideas  
4. Decide on what crops to grow in line with individual household needs for diet and food security |

4.1 Beneficiaries of community gardens

Results summarised in Table 2 show that most of the participants of urban gardens are vulnerable groups which include widows, orphans, People Living with HIV/AIDS (PLWHA) and the elderly (65 years and above). Widows constitute a significant percentage (40% and 67%) in Magwegwe North and Khulumsenza gardens respectively. The information obtained from the BCC indicates that these 2 gardens are an initiative of Women Support groups in these suburbs. Another notable distinction is the high percentage of orphans in Farming God’s Way community garden. This garden is an initiative of Nketa residents, BCC and a Non-Governmental Organisation known as Loving Hand Orphanage. It was meant to cater for orphans around high density suburbs of Bulawayo. However the reality on the ground is that orphans would rather find other means of livelihood such as begging than farming (sentiments of Farming God’s Way beneficiaries).

Table 2 Categories of beneficiaries in percentage of the total number per community garden.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories of beneficiaries</th>
<th>Magwegwe North Garden</th>
<th>Khulumsenza garden</th>
<th>Farming God’s Way Garden</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total No.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Total No.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Widows</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Orphans</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PLWHA</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elderly(65 years and above)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
According to the key informants, the selection of beneficiaries is done by the community at ward level. Meetings to select beneficiaries are held where people considered as vulnerable within the community, mostly women and orphans are given the first priority to become members. Once selected, the obligation to participate in the project rests entirely with the individual. Sometimes for chauvinistic reasons some men who are selected usually decline the offer and refuse to be beneficiaries leading to a skewed gender distribution of beneficiaries. However, this skewness can also be attributed to the fact that most men are employed hence male-headed households do not meet the vulnerability criteria.

Not everyone who is eligible gets a chance because of the limited number of plots available in comparison with applicants. The number of vulnerable people has increased due to the economic meltdown in Zimbabwe since the late 1990s and the HIV & AIDS pandemic that has increased the number of widows, widowers, and orphans. Failure to be accommodated has created animosity between the beneficiaries and non-beneficiaries. The former councillor of ward 23 said that the selection of beneficiaries for new gardens had become a political issue. Group discussions revealed that non-beneficiaries of community gardens posed allegations of favouritism and corruption in the allocation mechanism.

Although food security entails adequate supply and access to staple foods like maize in Southern Africa; most farmers in these gardens grow vegetables including rape, cabbage, spinach, tomatoes, onions, butternuts, peas, and beans for both subsistence and sale. Vegetables were preferred to cereals because they grow fast and there is a ready market for them locally or in the city. Since most of farmers do not grow these on a large scale there are no challenges of storage because everything is sold mainly to vegetable vendors who sell vegetables in the city. On average beneficiaries produce 10-15 kg bags of green vegetables and about 100 kg of tomatoes, onions, butternuts and other fruit vegetables per year in a country where the recommended cereal consumption is 153 kg per year (Kutiwa et al., 2010). While these gardens play an important role in supplementing household food requirement most households still face challenges in the supply of cereals mainly maize which is grown at a very small scale. As most of the respondents said, in most cases the income realised was not enough to purchase the non-vegetable basic food requirements given other competing household requirements.

4.2 Household Food Sufficiency from Own Production

The period of time during which the produce of garden farming is sufficient for beneficiaries is an indication of its food or consumption gap. Observations show more than 80% of the respondents depended on harvested vegetables from their gardens throughout the year implying high levels of self-sufficiency in vitamins notwithstanding poor rainy seasons resulting in water shortage, lack of inputs, skills and knowledge among the beneficiaries. Despite having adequate vegetables, households still need cereals that are not commonly produced in these community gardens. This shows the cultural importance of the contribution of staple crops in improving food security in Zimbabwe.

4.3 Role of community gardens in HIV & AIDS mitigation

The respondents in the PLWHA category expressed that green produce from the community gardens are not only important to their own households but to support group members as well. The total number of PLWHAs interviewed was 7 and 60% of these pointed out that their diets are now diversified and healthy as recommended by health institutions they have visited. They now eat different fresh foods such as green vegetables, cabbage, beans, tomatoes, carrots, peas in addition to maize they purchase upon selling some of the vegetables produced from the gardens. The gardens are also now a very important part of their livelihoods as mentioned by one respondent in the quotation below “I really do not know where I would be without this garden. I am a 60 year old man and have 6 children. My wife passed away soon after I was retrenched from my job. Thereafter I got sick and had no money to start anything so this garden was a blessing to me because I was really desperate, with no food, money and yet had children that needed to go to school” (interview with one respondent in Farming God’s Way Garden on 16/02/12).

4.4 Income Generated from Community Gardens

Table 3 Estimated periodic income from community gardens (US$)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Crops grown</th>
<th>Estimated periodic income from the sale of vegetables in US$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Daily</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

81
One of the most important objectives behind community garden projects was quick income generating facility for the vulnerable groups of people in society through generation of household income for the beneficiaries. This objective has been realised given the high demand for green vegetables in Bulawayo where protein from meat sold at US$4 per kg is expensive and unaffordable for most households. On the other hand green vegetables cost about US$ 1 per bundle, tomatoes US$ 5 per 5 kg bucket, butternuts and onions US$ 10 per. These farmers give priority to vegetable vendors who buy in bulk for resale in markets in the city centre. Table 3 summarises the estimated income earned on a regular basis from the gardens using prices and estimates of quantities sold by different respondents from the three community gardens.

The income estimates shown are relatively higher than earnings of civil servants in the same period. The lowest paid civil servants on average earn US$300 a month or US$3600 per year whereas the country's poverty datum line is just above US$400. Comparatively small community gardens are even better off because their income is tax free with very little overheads.

4.5 The Market

The primary market for various products from community gardens is the surrounding households who buy for consumption and vendors who buy in bulk for resale outside nearby shops. The secondary market mainly constitutes buyers from outside these communities, mainly vendors selling in the city centre who come and buy at lower prices for resale in the city centre. Before the establishment of community gardens these vendors used to order their merchandise from peri-urban farmer residing about 20 – 50 kms outside the city thereby facing challenges of distance considering the perishable nature of the products. Garden farming thus improves access to fresh and nutritious close city markets thereby reducing various costs related to the product, transport, storage, processing and packaging. This re-affirms Moustier and Danso’s (2006) argument that marketing chains in urban agriculture are much shorter and more varied than in rural agriculture, reducing the costs of wholesalers and retailers in the total chain; characterised by lower transport costs, more fresh products, reduced storage related costs as well as costs for packaging and cooling. Consequently, this substantial reduction in costs in these gardens lowers the price differential between producer and final consumer thereby generating more consumer surplus.

4.6 Risks and Challenges

One of the major challenges is associated with inadequate supplies of both surface and underground water as Bulawayo, being close to the Kalahari Desert, is vulnerable to droughts and receives low annual and erratic rainfall averaging 450mm – 600mm. Its water supply is mainly based on surface water accumulated in five reservoirs located in Upper Mzingwane catchment. There is therefore a chronic water shortage for domestic and industrial use resulting in frequent rationing of water. Use of hosepipes and any other form of watering/irrigation of gardens using municipal water is prohibited during critical water shortage periods. In order to overcome the water challenges the local authority drilled 220 boreholes throughout the city, mainly in high density areas. These boreholes are used for community gardens when water shortages are not serious although they frequently revert to supplying domestic water during critical times.

Since some cash crops require correspondingly high water inputs most community gardens resort to the use of waste water during critical periods mainly from open wells and ponds. Unfortunately untreated sewage water is associated with health risks although farmers have no alternative but to use polluted water as the local authority has on numerous occasions lamented about lack of money to purchase water and sewer treatment chemicals. In this regard, most vegetables produced from community gardens are likely to be contaminated with pathogens from the use of polluted stream/drain water for irrigation, and also with pesticides. Disused water ponds close to community gardens also provide breeding sites for the malaria vectors thereby compromisting the health of urban farmers and their households (Afrane et al., 2003). Besides water related problems, some of the challenges that came out of the study include:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Product</th>
<th>Green vegetables</th>
<th>Tomatoes</th>
<th>Onions</th>
<th>Other (maize, potatoes etc)</th>
<th>Totals</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Quantity</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>No data</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unit Price</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>No data</td>
<td>178</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Price</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>No data</td>
<td>425</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Income</td>
<td>1850</td>
<td>2350</td>
<td>900</td>
<td>350</td>
<td>5450</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.6.1 Vandalism and crime

Most farmers were concerned about vandalism and crime in urban gardens. Thieves invade gardens at night and steal green vegetables. Vandalism has also been reported in some gardens as fences and steel gates have either been vandalised or stolen. The unemployed youths are in most cases accused of being perpetrators of these crimes. In Magwegwe north and Nkulumane some community gardens beneficiaries argued that they have cultivated good relationships with neighbours and law enforcement agents for the protection for their crops since the “human face” offers the best protection. However the “Farming in God’s way” group in Nketa suburb has hired a night security guard at the cost of US$200 per month to guard the vegetable garden.

The respondents also lamented incapacitation of the Bulawayo municipality with resources and manpower for pegging land identified for urban community gardening; as in recent years the local authority has been affected by high labour turnover in the engineering and planning departments. Like other local authorities in the country the Bulawayo City Council has been financially crippled by the economic meltdown since the mid-1990s. Consequently this problem is blamed for the shortage of community gardens discussed in the introductory section leading to various allegations by those denied the opportunity to participate in these gardening activities.

5. Conclusion

From the above discussion of results this study concludes that community gardens in Bulawayo metropolitan area provided food security and livelihoods safety nets for beneficiaries who have been affected by the negative impacts on the unstable socio-economic environment in Zimbabwe. Urban agriculture has the capacity to contribute to household dietary requirements, food security, income generation and general wellbeing despite associated environmental and human health challenges associated with use of pesticides and untreated sewage water. This paper concludes that giving urban agriculture more attention in urban development policies and planning process through relevant by-laws and ordinances will play a key role in reducing household food poverty.

Given the positive livelihood outcomes of urban agriculture the study recommends that the local authority should scale-up these benefits through the provision of more land to other urban households currently not benefiting from urban agriculture. Identification and provision of more land to farmers could increase social harmony by reducing complaints of favouritism and corruption in the selection of beneficiaries. Finally, we note that although urban agriculture plays a major role in improving livelihood diet and food security it should not be seen as a panacea to economic and poverty alleviation challenges related to unemployment and de-industrialisation affecting the city of Bulawayo. Urban agriculture stands to thrive even better if policy makers could integrate this concept in their search for solutions to macro-economic challenges linked to unemployment and industrial decline.

Acknowledgements

The authors would like to acknowledge contributions from various reviewers of various drafts of this paper particularly colleagues at the Institute of Development Studies of the National University of Science and Technology (NUST) in Bulawayo and at the Centre for Development Research at the University of Natural Resources and Life Sciences (BOKU) in Vienna. We are grateful to the support received from the various institutions and individuals during the conducting of this research particularly the councillors, council staff and the farmers. However the views expressed in this document are those of the authors and not of the various institutions mentioned in this document.

References


Teen Pregnancy in Roman and Egyptian Communities

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Abstract. The aim of this study is the identification of people in need, to pay more attention to them and to inform for preventing health complications. Material and methods: The study was conducted through the examinations of patients in the maternity of Korca and the questionnaires were designed to detect the level of knowledge, which had the population under study, with regard to family planning, care and examinations that should be performed during pregnancy, for the pregnancy pathologies and pregnancies at risk. Results are expressed in % (in relation to age, skin color, level of knowledge about the problems above. Were questioned 200 women of whom 100 were girls and women of Roman and Egyptian communities and belonged to age 13-18. It was compared their culture on health (among white adolescents and Roman and Egyptian). The information about the study was collected during a period of years (2008-2011). Conclusions: Girls whose age belonged to adolescence had incomplete information with regard to the reproduction health, among them Romans and Egyptian had little or no information to. Despite Proficiency Testing found in textbooks or in the information provided in the press and other media means, it's emphasized the absence of knowledge. Complications not related only to abortion but also present during pregnancy and during birth. Babies born hypotrophe is another complication.

Keywords: Roman and Egyptian girls, teens, pregnancy, complications.

The study of teen pregnancy cases in Roman and Egyptian communities. Focused In Albania, Korca.

Introduction

Background Information Romans: It is thought to be around 50,000-70,000 Romans in Albania (around 700 families in Korca). Albania currently has about 5000 Roman children between 13-16 years old while 3-5 years age group account for 23.6% of Roman children aged between 3-16 years, (1970). The arrival of Romans in Albania is thought to date back to the XV century with the Ottoman conquest. They consist of four main tribes: 1. Kallubxhinj (Tirana, Elbasan, Pogradec, Korce, Bilisht, Gjirokaster and Sarande) 2. Meckare (Lushnje, Fier and Vlore) 3.Kurtofet . Among them is spoken their traditional language, which is used use only in their environment. Their language is written in very rare cases, because Albania doesn't have Roman schools. Mainly deal with crafts such as basket makers, horse breeders, blacksmiths, cart, peddlers, animal, mitigation, musicians, dancers. It is a community with a very low standard of living. The average of born children is 5-6, but there are also families that have from 12 up to 17. A very large part of the Romans have started a normal life. Education, employment and housing are considered as major problems running in this community. 3-5 Albania currently has about 5000 Roman children aged between 3-16,(1934) in Korca years age group account for 23.6% of Roman children aged 6-16 years, 450 children Egyptian minority.

Albania numbered about 300,000 to 350,000 (8-9% of population), the greatest minority In Korca 6700-7000 deployed in 2-3 neighborhoods of the city. Origin: Egypt, northwestern India. Their language is Albanian. Their typical professions in centuries are the iron work and musician Egyptian community in Albania is facing extreme economic slavery, trafficking of children, highlighting illiteracy, great unemployment. Social problems, health and education are the same in the Roman and Egyptian communities. And it is this culture, this way of living, their economic status, extreme poverty, those circumstances that make the teens of these minorities to look for another support out of the family, for a marriage in young age (12-14 years) that then brings widely teen pregnancy. This causes great problems with school attendance, they leave school (up to 15 teens per year ).

General knowledge

Adolescence is period of life that lies between childhood and adult life. The word “teenager” is used to identify individuals with age from 12-19 years old. This period extends between physical maturity (the ability to reproduce) and social maturity (economic independence and autonomy). In this period important changes occur such as psychological, social, and economic ones. And in this age they need education and support information especially about methods of contraception. Especially Roman and Egyptian teenagers in Albanian and Korca too, need to be supported in social,
Economic, emotional and psychological aspect. Pathologies and complications during teen pregnancy are those below.

**Etiology:** age (<18 years; >35 years), malnutrition, lack of knowledge about care and examinations, family violence.

**Pathologies:** Anemia; Preeclampsia; Eclampsia; Hypotroph babies; Abortion-risk; Abortion; or fetal death. Preeclampsia is disease associated with hypertension, edema proteinuria, the suffering of the baby until the fetal death. One of the complications of Preeclampsia is Eclampsia. Eclampsia is a serious disease during pregnancy and child birth which include symptoms of severe preeclampsia and one or more of the following signs:- The presence of one or more convulsion spasms to women with Preeclampsia; coagulopathia; risk to disconnect the placenta prematurely. The renal dysfunction; damage heavy hepatica; growth of enzyme; the fatality percentage is 1.8%-3.5% of women suffer a serious complication such as cerebral bleeding complication of hypertension that remains an obvious lethal cause for baby and mother. Complications of abortion 2-3% of abortion patient, do suffer from damage of the uterus and cervical. These impairments make the cervix unable to carry a pregnancy up to the normal end, so these women risk premature birth with all it is implications. Injuries of the cervix can become a source of chronic infection of the cervix. While repeated abortions, increase the potential for (placenta previa). The disease of pregnancy associated with bleeding during pregnancy runs the risk of premature birth. Endometritis and other infections.-These complications can happen to all women, but is most common in adolescents who commit an abortion. Those injuries can be accompanied by a decrease in reproductive ability or else risking sterility. There is even one more risk favored by the age of teenage, cervical cancer.

**Goal:** Identification of the circumstances that bring teen pregnancy, problems during it. Health education programs for these communities through the collaboration with relevant institutions. Identification of pregnancies at risk. Giving information to these teens about pregnancy and abortion risks.

**Material and methods**

The kind of study; Descriptive. The study direction; Prospective. Type of study: Studying the cases. Analysis of problems appeared. Results and Conclusions follow. Instruments used: The study and supervision of pregnant young women’s health problems and abortion at the home of birth in Korca (during the period 2008-2011). History and questionnaires directed to white, Egyptian and Roman women and girls. Surveillance of the clinic cases. Questionnaires to 9-years schools teachers with regard to Roman and Egyptian teen problems.

**Analysis and results**

School attendance problems: * 29% never been to school * 43% of Roman children aged 15-16 years are illiterate. Only 8% of 11 year old girls are in school while of boys of the same age 23%. 12 years old 6.5% attend school. 89% of Egyptian children go to 9-year school for primary education 63% have grades between 5-9. High school is attended by 17.8% and 4.5% continue higher education, of Romans and Egyptians. But this also favors trafficking (actually 20 cases risked in Korca). Statistics about their knowledge on health: * 70% of respondents knew very little about protection measures and infections. * 35% had little knowledge of reproductive health * 83% of respondents had no book at home (medical) * 99% did not know any kind for children care.


In this study for pathologies of pregnant women were figured out the following conclusions. With pre-eclampsia resulted 80 cases and 6 cases with Ecampsia. 72 of the cases with pre-eclampsia were pregnancies for the first time. Among these cases 7 cases were of Roman Egyptian communities. 2 cases of them were with Eclampsia were Egyptian. One of these pregnancies was with twins, had lived a very serious condition with repeated convulsive crisis. Unfortunately she was very close to dead. Favorable condition for disease: pregnant teen under the age 18 years, being pregnant for the first time, the number of fetuses. Lack of information for self–assessing blood pressure, edema and other signs became another risk taken to aggravate the situation. Therefore should be paid attention and care during pregnancy, during born and after birth because can be displayed Preeclampsia or Eclampsia. Abortion level: Over 40 million
Abortions for year or world wide, while Albania has 207 abortions for 100 births. European countries have the average number 226. According to statistics from the Institute of Public Health, Albania level of abortion has fallen significantly from 419.2 for 1000 births in 2000 (year), to 270.2 for 1000 birth in 2009 (year). In the maternity of Korca are performed: Abortions by married women (about 93%), among the Roman and Egyptian 25.4%. By single women are done 6.5% of the total abortions. Cases of provoked abortions accompanied with hemorrhaging infection up to critical condition. From the interview with a 60-year-old woman learned that she herself had performed 30 abortions in her life. Including here also the provoked abortions, before year 1990 abortion was not allowed. In other interviews and the card-index the maternity is showed that the number of abortions performed by a Roman or Egyptian women was 5-25.

Results showed that 21% of the total number of abortions performed in the maternity ward of Korca performed by the women of Roman and Egyptian communities. Although this population constitutes only about 11% of the community wards of Korca, from the studies and polls resulted that the greatest part of abortions are done from uneducated people with low education, on the better chance they have a high school. And also what is important to be mentioned is that most of them are Roman and Egyptian teens are spontaneous. The number of children that they decide to have is on average 4-5 for Egyptians and 6-7 for Romans. And the abortions they do come after they have 6 children. Immediate complications of abortion are: Approximately 10% of women who make abortion suffer from immediate complications of abortion. The most common complications are infection, bleeding during and after major abortions may be embolism (lung trumpet setting or in the brain) cleavage of the uterus and the cervix, complications of anesthesia, convulsion, shock the future of this baby depends directly on the level parents. It may occur that baby is abandoned in maternities or in the level of is left to be grown by his grandfather and grandmother. In Korca city maternity hospital in the last 5 years abandoned 9 children, 3 of them were children and Egyptian. In Korca orphanage are currently 15 children abandoned, 4 were Egyptian and 1 is Roman. In all the three cases the child may be part of trafficking, prostitution and may cause problems to the whole society. His education can not be part of his life and perhaps he will be married at age of adolescence as his parent. Thus problems again recycle.
Abortions in years (age groups: 13-16 year, 17-19 year, 20-35 year, 36-47 year)

Really need more support
Recommendations

The choice of strategies aiming reducing problems.

*Development of programs with Roman parents, making conscious about their children education importance (development of a particular platform to work with Roman parents)

*Education is the key to success. * Emotional and psychological support is needed. * To avoid the abortion especially in young age, a good solution is contraception. * It is part of democracy, to give to all races and ethnic groups, the sense of being part of society with equal right and protections. * Only through a comprehensive inter-institutional approach can be achieved a sustainable improvement of the current situation of these communities.

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Association of Romans in Korca.

Egyptian Association in Korca. 6-The School District of Korce

Department of Public Health in Korca. 8-Maternity in Korce
Multidimensional Approach of Job Performance: Toward a Prediction Model

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Abstract This paper investigated the interacting effect of the employee’s job competency, extra-role performance and three persistence factors (current purposes pursuing - CPP), recurrence of unattained purposes - RUP, and long term purposes pursuing - LTPP) on the job performance of a sample of 200 Romanian employees (participation rate: 86.2%). We used correlation analysis, prediction models, and, as tools, competency assessment checklists developed by means of the Competency Elicitation Interview (Faix et al., 1991), Robertson’s performance scales for job performance (1996, 1997), Smith’s scale for extra-role performance (1983) and a persistence scale (Constantin, 2010). Results support the idea that job performance can be approached from a multidimensional point of view. The significance of extra-role performance and two persistence factors (current purposes pursuing - CPP, and long term purposes pursuing - LTPP) was successfully established, highlighting the important role they have in relationship with job performance, as valid predictors of supervisory ratings of employees’ performance. Furthermore, job competencies alone seem to be necessary but not sufficient to predict high levels of job performance. Main limitations (such as those who refused to participate they didn’t had comparable demographics with those who agreed to participate) along with main findings are being discussed.

Key Words: job performance, job competency, extra-role performance, persistence

1. Introduction

Literature abounds in definitions, models and methods for the assessment and understanding of the job performance. Theories and practices were developed to enable HR professionals to directly enhance job performance (Holton & Yamkovenko, 2008). Unfortunately, each author defines job performance in a significantly different manner. The debate regarding the nature of performance reveals two approaches. Some authors see the performance as being results and outcomes, and define it as the history of produced results of a certain determined professional activity or in a certain position (Ainsworth & Smith, 1993; Bernardin et al., 1995b, apud Robertson, Callinan & Bartram, 2002, p. 140). From this perspective, global job performance should be the sum (or average) of job outcomes. On the other hand, the most of the authors consider the job performance as the sum of behaviours that employee controls in a certain professional context (Bartram, 2000; Campbell et al., 1993; Robertson, Callinan & Bartram, 2002), which are crucial for reaching the planned individual outcomes and objectives (Bartram, 2000; 2002; Campbell et al., 1993), and which are relevant for the organizational objectives (Schmitt & Chan, 1998). If behaviours can be evaluated separately, performance is understood as an interconnected series of behaviours (Robertson, Callinan & Bartram, 2002). Others (Wu & Hou, 2010, p. 568) argue that there can be created a performance pyramid model and performance assessment should be performed based on organizational levels, job characteristics and workplace conditions. Viswesvaran & Ones (1996) argue that the influence of performance determinants is difficult to be estimated and, for most of them, the literature does not provide the percentages of job performance variance explained.

If we agree, as most of the authors, that performance can be understood as an interconnected series of behaviours and actions, then we should take into account the workplace elements which can influence these actions. At conceptual level, there are two contrasting theories useful for understanding the actions of employees (Platts & Sobótka, 2010, p. 350), namely control theory (based on formal monitoring and incentive mechanisms - people monitor and report on their performance against agreed-upon standards) and motivation theory (which implies inspiring leadership, delegated responsibility, positive working environment). Garavan (2007, p. 11) supports the idea that the most valuable employees to the firm have unique and valuable capabilities and skills, which allow the organization to differentiate from competitors and thus, there is a stringent need of a new, sophisticated definition of performance, seen as a multidimensional and pluralistic concept; he is advising authors to take into account multiple theoretical perspectives when delivering a new model for understanding performance.

The current paper aims at understanding the job performance, defined here as sum of behaviours, by exploring its relationships with job competency, extra-role performance and persistence. Job competencies represent abilities to use knowledges, skills, behaviours and personal characteristics in order to successfully perform professional tasks, specific
functions or to successfully fill in a specific role (Ennis, 2008) and “are causal-related to the efficacy and/or superior performance” (Boyatzis, 1982, p. 23). Other authors extended the competencies definition by adding the motivation to work as an important element which impact the success on a professional activity (Boyatzis, 1982; Falmer & Conger, 2004; Sandberg, 2000, apud Ennis, 2008). Nevertheless, job competencies are, for some authors, important prerequisites of job performance (Lucia & Lepsinger, 1999; McClelland, 1973), observable dimensions of performance (Athey & Orth, 1999) or dispositions toward performance (such as motives, abilities, traits and attitudes) (Brandstatter, 1998) that can partially predict it (Van den Berg, 1998). Understood as capacities, skills, knowledge and abilities, competencies are stable in time and can be used in a large range of situations. In this paper we acknowledge the fact that competencies are necessary in order to be able to perform in a professional task. However, due to its general definition that can cause sometime confusion (Woodruffe, 1992), we question and we investigate to see if competencies are sufficient in order to predict a high job performance level. In this context, we aim to investigate the influence of job competencies together with extra-role performance and persistence on job performance.

Due to the distinction between formal and informal aspects required by a position, role or job, the literature promotes the distinction between in-role performance, understood as work performance driven from the formal needs, objectives and aspects of the job, and extra-role performance. Extra-role performance refers to the informal expectations regarding the employee’s behaviors in a professional context. Extra-role performance is defined as sum of extra-role behaviors which contribute to the organizational performance, but which are not formally requested by a certain job description, nor controlled or imposed (e.g.: helping the colleagues, being on time, promoting the organization in a personal or informal context, developing self), and which are complementary to the job formal requirements. Some authors refer to it as contextual performance (Van Dyne et al., 1995), organizational citizenship behaviors (Baterman & Organ, 1983; Smith et al., 1983), prosocial organizational behaviors (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986), or organizational spontaneity (George & Brief, 1992). Studies have showed that extra-role performance influence the job performance (MacKinzie et al., 1991; Nikolaou & Robertson, 2001; Tutu, 2011), and the management scoring behaviour for global performance. Moreover, some of these studies identified a relationship between extra-role performance of employees and the organizational efficacy indices. We refer to persistence as the quality of the goal-related pursuits, manifested as the tendency to remain engaged in specific goal-related activities, despite difficulties, obstacles, fatigue, prolonged frustration or low perceived feasibility (Constantin, 2010). We analyze the influence of three persistence factors: current purposes pursuing (CPP), recurrence of unattained purposes (RUP), and long term purposes pursuing (LTPPP).

2. The Present Study

The referral literature offers many models of job performance factors. While the traditional approach relates performance and the IQ and personality traits, the current approaches promote the idea that performance is function of individual capacities and motivation. This idea was extended and theorised by Campbell (1993) who proposed a multidimensional model of performance. The declarative knowledge, procedural knowledge and motivation, as choosing behaviours, are the main performance determinants promoted by this model. Taking into account the Campbell's theoretical ideas, our research aims at investigating the influence of job competencies (as concept which also individual’s knowledge) and persistence factors on the job performance.

Moreover, in accordance with the latest studies regarding the valid predictors of job performance, we intend to see if the results suggesting that extra-role performance can predict job performance (MacKinzie et al., 1991; Nikolaou & Robertson, 1999; Tutu, 2011; Waldman, 1994) would replicate. Our main objective is to test a prediction model of job performance based on job competency, extra-role performance and motivational persistence.

Thus, we have formulated the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1: Job competency matching index (calculated as difference between current job competency level and standard required job competency) and persistence factors are good predictors for job performance. Operationally, we intend to test if persistence factors will also correlate with job competency matching indices.

Hypothesis 2: Extra-role performance will positively predict job performance. Operationally, we intend to test if gender impacts extra-role performance levels, as other studies reported (Nikolaou & Robertson, 1999).

Hypothesis 3: The type of environment (controlled vs. inspiring) will have a strong influence over job performance and extra-role performance. Operationally, we expect positive correlations between the inspiring type of working environment and extra-role performance levels.

Overall, we aimed to investigate if the profile of a good performer implies a high competency matching index, high levels of extra-role performance and high scores for persistence. The effect of type of environment on these variables was analyzed.
3. Method

3.1. Sample

The subjects were employees of seven medium size Romanian based companies. A number of 200 of the total number of the employees were involved in the study (participation rate was 86.2%; 23 employees refused to participate, and other 9 completed the questionnaires in an invalid manner). The mean age is 42.2 years. From the final sample, 110 persons were employed in the IT&C industry and other 90 in the production sector.

3.2. Procedure

Letters of invitations were sent to all participants by e-mail. The invitation included a brief study explanation and a description of the associated benefits for participants. There were collected ratings for competencies levels, job performance and extra-role performance (from the management), as well as for persistence (from employees). The research was endorsed by management and the participation was voluntarily. Data were collected personally by the author.

3.3. Measures

For competency assessment were have developed ad-hoc checklists, based on the data collected by the Competency Elicitation Interviews (Faix et al., 1991). During special management meetings in each company, the management team collectively defined a checklist with competencies for each position/level in the company. We called it the standard required competency; it contains 12 competencies clustered in three categories (technical, methodological and social competencies), scored on four points bars. Then the management was invited to assess the employees’ current competencies. A total score was calculated, resulting an overall job competency level, which was compared with a previous calculated standard required competency level for each position. Based on the differences resulted from these comparisons the job competency matching indices were calculated.

Job performance was assessed using Robertson’s Performance Scale. This measure was successfully used in other studies (Robertson et al., 1998, 1999, 2000) as an overall job performance score, eliciting a high internal consistency reliability ($\alpha=.86$). The scale has 6 items (e.g.: “Achieves the objectives of the job”; “Demonstrates expertise in all aspects of the job”) and the supervisor indicates whether he/she agrees or not with the behavior described in a five-point scale. Its application is easy, with an average completion time of 10 minutes.

For extra-role performance measurement a scale developed by Smith et al. (1983) was used. It consists of 16 items (e.g.: “Helps other employees with their work when they are absent” or “Does not take unnecessary time off work”) where supervisors rate their subordinates on a five-point scale. Using factor analysis with varimax and oblimin rotation, the authors identified two dimensions: altruism and generalized compliance or conscientiousness, which had adequate internal consistency. These results were also tested with similar findings in other studies (Organ & Konovsky, 1989; Becker & Randall, 1994). For the present study an overall score for extra-role performance was used.

Finally, a Persistence Scale (Constantin, 2010) measured three persistence factors: current purposes pursuing (CPP), recurrence of unattained purposes (RUP), and long term purposes pursuing (LTPP). It contains 62 items (e.g.: “I easily give up solving a problem that preoccupied me a longer period of time”, “I remain motivated in activities that last for months”). The collected data were statistically analyzed with SPPS 17.0 for Windows.

4. Results

Table 1 shows the correlation analysis for testing the relationship between job competency and job performance. There are significant correlations between current job competency level, standard required job competency level and job performance level.

Table 1. Correlation analysis between current job competency, standard job competency and job performance

<table>
<thead>
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<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
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<td>.570**</td>
<td>528**</td>
<td>.464**</td>
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<tr>
<td>2. Standard Job Competency Level</td>
<td>.570**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-.396**</td>
<td>.252**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Competency Matching Index</td>
<td>528**</td>
<td>-.396**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.258**</td>
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<tr>
<td>4. Job Performance</td>
<td>.464**</td>
<td>.252**</td>
<td>.258**</td>
<td>1</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Thus, current job competency levels positively correlate with standard required competency levels ($r = .570, p< .001$) and with matching competency index ($r = .528, p<.001$). An expected result was the negative correlation between standard required competency levels and matching competency index ($r = -.396, p<.001$). Moreover, job performance correlates positively with current competency levels ($r = .464, p<.001$), standard required competency levels ($r = .252, p<.001$), and with competency matching index ($r = .258, p<.001$).

To test if competency matching indices (between current job competency and standard required competency) will positively predict job performance we tested four prediction models. The collected data provided us with no evidence that competency matching indices (e.g.: competency matching index, technical competency matching index, methodological competency matching index, social competency matching index) would predict job performance.

Further, we applied a series of statistical formulae to investigate the relationship between three persistence factors (long term purposes pursuing - LTPP, current purposes pursuing - CPP, and recurrence of unattained purposes - RUP) and job performance. Results showed positive correlations between job performance and both long term purposes pursuing ($r = .384, p<.001$), and current purposes pursuing ($r = .468, p<.001$). Additionally, a strong positive correlation between LTPP and CPP ($r = .491, p<.001$) was found.

To evaluate the prediction power of these persistence factors we tested some linear regression models (see Table 2). Thus, from three models tested, results indicate that job performance can be predicted by LTPP ($b = .38, t = 3.30, p=.002$), and CPP ($b = .37, t = 2.93, p =.005$). The RUP is the persistence factor which seems to have no prediction power. Therefore, the first hypothesis is partially confirmed, with LTPP explaining 14% of variance of job performance scores (R square = .14, $F = 10.92, p =.002$), and LTPP together with CPP explaining a percentage of 25% (R square = .25, $F = 6.89, p<001$).

Table 2. Predictors and percentage of job performance variance explained

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Predictor</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Competency matching index</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Long term purposes pursuing - LTPP</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. LTPP + current purposes pursuing - CPP</td>
<td>25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. LTPP + CPP + Current job competency</td>
<td>35%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Surprisingly, when we tested the prediction power of LTPP and CPP joined with competency matching index we found no prediction power of this model, but when testing LTPP, CPP and current job competency level, we obtained a significant prediction model ($b = .38, t = 3.32, p =.001$) with a percentage of job performance variance explained of 35% (R square = .35, $F = 11.18, p< .001$).

Operationally, results showed no correlation between competency matching indices and persistence factors. Moreover, there is no significant correlation between current job competency and long term purposes pursuing (LTPP), current purposes pursuing (CPP), or recurrence of unattained purposes (RUP).

When testing the second hypothesis of our study we found a significant positive correlation between extra-role performance and job performance, $r = .74**$, $p<0.01$. This fact translates that the employees who display extra-role performance behaviors (e.g.: helping their colleagues, being punctual, taking initiative) are likely to obtain higher job performance scores when being evaluated by their supervisors. For testing extra-role performance prediction power regression analysis was used. Data showed that extra-role performance significantly predicts job performance scores ($b = .74, t = 7.05, p<0.01$), by explaining a 55% percentage of variance of job performance scores (R square = .55, $F = 129.33, p<0.01$). Operationally, we found no evidence to support the results from other studies (Nikolaou & Robertson, 1999) that gender will determine significant differences in extra-role performance levels displayed (Mm = 3.86; Mf = 3.82).

Exploring the descriptive statistics for the third hypothesis, we found no effect of type of environment on job performance. However, for extra-role performance we found a significant influence, with employees from a controlled working context receiving lower scores for extra-role performance than subjects from an inspiring working environment. Results suggest (see Table 3) that the employees who are working in the IT&C field, defined as an inspiring working environment, tend to display significantly more helping, volunteering and proactive behaviors. In opposition, the employees form the production field are likely to limit their extra-role behaviors due to the controlled environment settings.
Table 3. Employees’ extra-role performance means differences based on type of working environment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Environment</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>controlled</td>
<td>3.66</td>
<td>-3.37**</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>inspiring</td>
<td>4.01</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Furthermore, correlation analysis showed (see Table 4) no relationship between working environment type and job performance, r = .18, p>0.05, and a strong positive relationship with extra-role performance, r = .71*, p<0.01.

Table 4. Correlations between job performance, extra-role performance and type of working environment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Job performance</th>
<th>Extra-role performance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Type working environment</td>
<td>.15</td>
<td>.71**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt;0.05</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When testing if extra-role performance together with type of working environment will predict the performance scores, we found no prediction power of type of working environment, with b = -.02, t = -.40, p = .68. Thus, we conclude that the third hypothesis is partially confirmed.

Finally, taking into account the prediction power of extra-role performance and persistence factors, we analyzed an overall hierarchical regression model for job performance (see Table 5). Thus, we aimed to see if the profile of a good performer implies a good competency matching index, high levels of extra-role performance and high scores for persistence. Results showed that extra-role performance, together with LTPP, CPP and competency matching index explain a percentage of 38% (R square = .38, F = 11.24, p < .005), despite of the fact that, previously, extra-role performance alone was explaining a higher percentage (55%) and LTPP with CPP a 25%.

As previously showed, competency matching index alone had no prediction power. This result replicated in this model as well. The current competency level alone was able to predict a percentage of 10% from the variance of job performance scores (b = .38, t = 3.32, p = .001, R square = .10, F = 16.34, p < .005).

Table 5. Hierarchical regression models

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Predictor(s) of the regression model</th>
<th>Percentage of job performance variance explained</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Competency matching index</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Current job competency</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Long term purposes pursuing - LTPP</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. LTPP + current purposes pursuing - CPP</td>
<td>25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. LTPP + CPP + Current job competency</td>
<td>35%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Extra-role performance</td>
<td>55%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Extra-role performance + LTPP + CPP + competency matching index</td>
<td>38%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5. Discussion

The present study investigated the prediction power of job competency, extra-role performance (also known as organizational citizenship behavior) and three persistence factors (current purposes pursuing (CPP), recurrence of unattained purposes (RUP), and long term purposes pursuing (LTPP)) in relationship with employees’ job performance. This paper examined research findings from Romania, an Eastern European country and a member of the European Union, where none of these research questions have been explored before.

The results of the current study highlight the importance of extra-role performance, understood as contextual behavior, of motivation for persistence, as choosing behaviours (Campbell, 1993) to pursue current, long term and unattained purposes, and of current job competency in work settings and more specifically in performance assessment and performance management, confirming that they are valid predictors of supervisory ratings of employees’ performance. The hypothesis that job performance would be affected by job competency matching index and the three
persistence factors was partially supported. The results suggest that competency matching index alone is not a valid predictor. Only recurrence of unattained purposes (RUP), and long term purposes pursuing (LTPP) were positive predictors of ratings of job performance and also that they explain variance in job performance above and beyond the effect of competencies (job competency matching index has no prediction power, while current job competency seems to explain a percentage of 10% of job performance variance).

Prior research (Mackenzie et al., 1991; Lowery & Krilowicz, 1996; Nikolaou & Robertson, 1999; Tutu, 2011) has provided evidence that extra-role performance influence the supervisor’s ratings when evaluating employees’ job performance. The results of the present study replicated the previous findings, contextual behaviors proving to be a valid and powerful predictor of job performance. Some authors (Organ, 1988; Lowery & Krilowicz, 1996) suggested that one reason that extra-role behaviors influence the job performance evaluations could be that these behaviors actually contribute to organizational performance. Another valid reason could be that managers may have preconceived concept of what a good performer do, and extra-role performance may be part of this concept. In the present study it seems that engaging in extra-role behaviours is seen as an important aspect of job performance for managers, sometimes more important than job competencies in the overall assessment.

As far as gender difference is concerned, the present study found no evidence that gender would influence extra-role behaviors, as previous studies suggested (Nikolaou & Robertson, 1999). Moreover, current results support recent suggestions that no gender difference exists in management ratings of job performance (Arvey & Murphy, 1998).

Even if extra-role performance seems to be influenced by an inspiring working environment, results of the present study do not support the idea presented in other studies (Tutu & Ciulu, 2011) that the type of working environment (inspiring vs. controlled) would also affect job performance level.

A limitation of this study is that a large part of the measures have originated from the same source (management ratings), a contamination from common method variance being possible to appear. Furthermore, those who refused to participate they didn’t had comparable demographics with those who agreed to participate (90% from the subjects who refused participation were from the production environment), which might indicate a biased sample problem.

The primary attempt of the present study was to examine the combined effect of three important aspects of extra-role performance, persistence and job competency (both competency matching index with a standard required job competency level and current job competency), in the prediction of job performance.

The significance of extra-role performance and two persistence factors (LTPP and CPP) was successfully established, highlighting the important role they have in relationship with job performance. Surprisingly, the matching level between current and required job competencies seems to have no power in predicting job performance. Future research should attempt to explain why this competency matching index seem to have no influence over job performance, while current job competency level alone seems to predict almost 10% of its variance (even if there is a negative correlation between standard required competency levels and matching competency index, which translates in the fact that employees current competencies ratings are sometimes lower than the standard required levels).

As far as the practical implications of this research are concerned, the relationship between job performance, extra-role performance, job competency and persistence is very important both for professionals and for employees. The current recruitment and assessment practices from the Romanian organizational context rely almost exclusively on matching one individual’s competencies with some professional competency requirements, ignoring the effect of individual difference. Even if the prediction power of these predictors vary, these findings highlight the importance of extra-role behaviors and choosing behaviours (in terms of motivation to manifest and to maintain effort) in predicting job performance, supporting the idea that job competencies alone are necessary but not sufficient in order to become a good performer. From the employees point of view, these findings could be challenging especially in the Romanian context, in relationship with the new promulgated Romanian Labor Law (2011), which stipulates that the dismissal of an employee should be based on a specific performance assessment.

Acknowledgement

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Herzberg’s Theory In Libyan Environment

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Abstract: Herzberg’s motivation-hygiene theory is a popular but controversial theory of employee satisfaction. This theory has classified factors that influence employees’ satisfaction into two categories “Motivators and Hygiene factors”. The theory was at the centre of a long debate that focused on conceptual and methodological problems. The objective of this comparative study is to understand both the hygiene factors and the motivators in the Libyan environment. The study aims to give a clear picture about the impact of implementing American theories of motivation in different environments. A ratio analysis method has been used in this study; where ratio > 50 percent illustrates positive relation with a theory’s factor, ration < 50 percent indicates inverse relation. The findings support Herzberg Two-Factor theory of work motivation, where all motivators defined by Herzberg were found to be significant satisfiers (motivators) in the Libyan workplace environments. On the other hand, some differences were found in the hygiene factors; thus these factors have been changed into motivators due to the differences between the two environments. Furthermore, the study recommends that, to avoid the dominance of the American theories it is important to develop culturally appropriate theories.

Keywords: Hygiene factors; motivators; environment; job satisfaction; Libya;

Introduction

There is a large body of literature, including research literature, on motivation at work. Much research focuses on what motivates and satisfies employees in the workplace. This is a difficult issue because it is not easy to understand what motivates employees, and this has become a monumental challenge for the managers and theorists. For instance, the bonus was found to be great motivator in some cultures such as Libya and Malaysia. However, it was found to be a factor that prevents dissatisfaction in United States. Most behavioural theories and studies were conducted in the United States to find out key factors that influence worker’s performance through motivation. The other challenge is that the differences of culture, environment and attitude toward the job have a remarkable impact on employees’ motivation. These studies assumed that organisations around the world exist within a similar environment to the United States. However, due to these substantial differences in environments and culture throughout the world more research is needed to determine the real motivators and satisfiers for each environment.

The two-factor of job-satisfaction theory is both a controversial and influential theory in the field of human behavior at work. It is not new, as a matter of fact; it dates back to 1959 and was an outgrowth of a research study project on job attitudes. The initial source of the theory was a comprehensive review of the literature on job attitudes and satisfaction. This review revealed often conflicting results, although with some slight overall tendency for job satisfaction to be positively correlated with job performance levels. To this finding Herzberg added an insight, derived from his background in the field of mental health, the idea that mental health is not just the obverse of mental illness, but rather a totally separate process. He developed the hypothesis that a similar discontinuity exists in the field of job satisfaction (Herzberg and Zautra, 1976). Later, the study revealed a set of factors that contribute to satisfaction at work (Motivators), and another separate list of factors that prevent job dissatisfaction (Hygiene Factors). Recently, some theorists believe that, it is difficult to measure employees’ job satisfaction; because the answer to such a question depends upon the individual himself. They claim that, research has uncovered two important facts about job satisfaction. Firstly, under certain conditions some people will be satisfied while others are not. Secondly, job satisfaction often varies, depending on age, sex and/or hierarchical level (Hodgetts, 1991). Thus, the process is very complicated and more research is needed.

This is also problematic since individual’s needs, behavior and attitude differ from cultures and environments. Theorists believe that culture has a substantial effect on person’s behaviour. Therefore, the difference between two environments and cultures (Libya and the United States) might yield different results in terms of motivators and hygiene factors. This study has proved this fact where some hygiene factors have been changed into motivators. In addition, workers expect more from firms to satisfy their strong needs. For example, in the Libyan environment, employees expect the organisations to provide fair pay, safe working conditions, and a clear motivation program; where, the mentioned factors were relatively absent.
So, this study was an investigation into the real motivators and hygiene factors in the Libyan environment. The study was based on two hypotheses: (I) due to the differences in work environment between Libya and United States some hygiene factors have been changed into motivators; and (II) some motivators have been changed to maintenance factors. Accordingly, the study explores what motivates and what prevents dissatisfaction in the Libyan environment. The study supports Herzberg's theory in terms of satisfiers (motivators) where all motivators defined by Herzberg were found to be remarkably motivators in Libyan environment.

**Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene Theory**

The original study was conducted by Herzberg and his associates (Mausner and Snyderman) in United States on 203 Pittsburgh engineers and accountants. This sample was given an instruction which is: “Recall of a time when you felt exceptionally good or exceptionally bad about your present job or any other job you may have had ... Tell us what happened” (House and Wigdor, 1967).

Herzberg's study concluded that people have two different categories of need that are essentially independent of each other and affect peoples' behaviour differently. They found that when workers felt dissatisfied with their job, it was due to some factors associated initially with an individual's relationship to the context of environment in which he or she does his job. These factors titled Hygiene (Maintenance) factors are associated with job dissatisfaction; they are extrinsic to the job itself. When these have been adequately dealt with, people will not be dissatisfied nor will they be satisfied. On the other hand, factors which bring about job satisfaction are commonly called Motivators (Satisfiers) and were found from the study to be associated with the work itself and the rewards that result from the performance of that work. Figure (1) shows the relationship between these factors.

![Figure 1](Herzberg's Theory, 1976)

Therefore, these factors are linked to job content; which they intrinsic to the job. Table 1 illustrates both the hygiene factors and motivators as defined by Herzberg's team.

**Table 1. The hygiene factors and motivators. (Herzberg's theory)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors for Satisfaction</th>
<th>Factors for Dissatisfaction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Achievement</td>
<td>Company Policies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recognition</td>
<td>Supervision</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The work itself</td>
<td>Work conditions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Responsibility</td>
<td>Salary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advancement</td>
<td>Status</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Growth</td>
<td>Security</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to Herzberg, the factors leading to job satisfaction are separate and distinct from those that prevent job dissatisfaction. Accordingly, if you set about eliminating job dissatisfaction you may create peace, but not necessarily
improve workers’ performance. This appeases your workforce rather than motivating them to improve the productivity. A controversial result of the theory is that the opposite of satisfaction is not dissatisfaction but no satisfaction, and the opposite of dissatisfaction is no dissatisfaction is found to be true in the Libyan environment.

The Significance of the Two-factor Theory

Many theorists believe that a person’s occupation rules many aspects of his/her life: it determines standard of living and social status. In fact, most men and women are members of the labor force at some time in their lives. Yet, until relatively recently human’s relation to work had not been extensively studied (Toby and Stephenson, 2007). This theory is an empirical study of this relation despite the criticism that came up against it. Herzberg’s conclusion about the causes of satisfaction and dissatisfaction may be used to increase job satisfaction for humanistic reasons, and claims are made that satisfaction so increased, leads to improved performance at work.

The impact of the theory on job attitude research is unrivalled by any other approach. Prior to Herzberg's theory, many other behavioural scientists were concerned with worker motivation. For several years there was an emphasis on what was termed “job enlargement” or “job rotation”. This was purported to be an answer to the overspecialisation that had characterised many industrial organisations (Hersey and Blanchard, 1993). So, this theory has given an explanation of the idea of job enrichment. The pressure has been increased on organisations and managers to accomplish their objective within existing or even shrinking resources. This pressure has become a monumental challenge for these organisations. So, organisations try to address this challenge by enhancing worker productivity. It is concluded from the literature that this can and has been accomplished through job enrichment programs which increase worker motivation.

One widely publicised and accepted approach to job enrichment is Herzberg's orthodox Job Enrichment based upon his two-factor theory of job satisfaction. The literature clearly indicates that Herzberg's two-factor theory of job satisfaction has been used as the basis of successful job enrichment programs which defined as "improving work processes and environments so they are more satisfying for employees". The theory has received fairly wide publicity and as a result is the most widely accepted job enrichment approach today (Noell, 1976). He also claims that the Herzberg approach is attractive in many ways and has been implemented in a number of different organizations with success. Due to the overall popularity of the Herzberg job enrichment approach; there exists more data and information on it than any of the other approaches. It is finally concluded that with the amount of information available on the two-factor theory a workable job enrichment program could be implemented by appropriately tailoring Herzberg's approach. According to (Furnham et al., 1999), the theory and its applications remain influential within the domain of organizational theory.

Criticism of Herzberg’s Theory

Of all the available content theories, we believe the most criticised is Herzberg’s (Gibson et al., 1994). The Two-Factor Theory has come up against a lot of criticism mainly regarding the distinction between motivators and hygiene factors. For instance, the Two-Factor Theory claims that job content or job enrichment by, for example, achievement, recognition and responsibility is the only way to increase work motivation (House and Wigdor, 1967) and (Parsons and Broadbridge, 2006). On the other hand, (Ali and Ahmed, 2009), (Teck-Hong and Waheed, 2011) and (Rynes et al., 2004) claim that a hygiene factor such as rewards has a positive relationship with employee satisfaction so it can be a strong motivator rather than a dissatisfier.

Furthermore, (King, 1970) asserts that Herzberg’s two-factor theory lacks an explicit statement of the basic theory by Herzberg. The subject of possible biases in the investigator and/or the respondent has also been raised as a potential weakness in the study method used to derive the Herzberg theory. When respondents answer critical incident questions, they may selectively recall situational factors and project failures to external factors. Evidence also questions how well the theory applies to individual variations like gender, culture and age categories not to mention organizational differences.

Do American theories of motivation have the same effect outside USA?

There are three reasons why organisational behavior theories developed in the United States are different from international organisational behavior theories (Hofstede, 1980); (Francesco and Gold, 1998). Firstly, the study of organisational behaviour in the United States is not sensitive to variations in national cultures; because the American researchers assumed that organisations existed within the culture of the United States or in a similar one such as Western Europe. Nevertheless, not all societies are based upon capitalist economic principles or the notions that emphasize individualism, and equality. As a matter of fact, because of the culture factor; western societies manage their
organisation differently to United States. According to (Hofstede, 1980) the culture is defined as the collective mental programming of the people in an environment. He also claims that, change this culture is difficult; if it changes at all, it does so slowly. This is not because it exists in the minds of people, but also these people have built together their family structures, educational structures, religious organisation, associations and forms of government, work organisations, law, and even scientific theories. Moreover, many American theories receive either minimal or mixed support from data collected in the United States. Therefore, it is unlikely that these theories would receive acceptance outside of the United States. So, to avoid the dominance of the American theories it is necessary to develop theories in other cultures rather than merely test U. S. theories with international samples.

Secondly, the units of analysis in studies conducted in the United States are usually individual roles and the functioning of groups. Although, socialists have studied organisations as entities, there are few studies that view organisations holistically as the product of a specific culture.

Lastly, according to (Adler and Boyacigiller, 1996) much U. S. organisational behaviour research emulates natural science methods that emphasize narrow research questions, hypothesis testing, and quantifiable data. They argue that culture is difficult to quantify, accordingly it is difficult to measure the multiple, and often subtle influences it has on behavior. So, other qualitative ways could be useful for studying culture such as ethnographic techniques which are defined as “the study and systematic recording of human cultures; also a descriptive work produced from such research” (Parker and Roffey, 1997). This sort of study: (I) situates the researcher in the context of the site, giving them sensitivity to the unique cultural understandings of that site. In doing this it permits an ethical stance for the researcher as it acknowledges ideological structures and value systems of both the researcher and the subjects that are in operation at the micro level organizational context and, (II) ethnographic methodology accommodates sensitivity to gender and marginalized groups (Rudkin, 2002). Therefore, this method helps researchers to understand life from inside organisations.

More and more, culture has an important effect on the way to motivate employees. According to (Treven et al., 2008) the culture of a country or region in which the organizations function influences the way of motivating employees a great deal. In collective countries, such as Japan, giving an individual reward to an employee could embarrass the recipient and thus be de-motivating. On the hand, this reward can be a good motivator to the employee in other societies, such as Libya. Therefore, it understood that the culture of a country plays a key role in individuals’ motivation.

The generalisation of the American theories in other cultures is a very sensitive issue, because differences in cultural values need more understanding when attempting to motivate changes in behavior. Therefore, theorists and mangers need to interpret the situation and design a strategy that corresponds to an individual's values and needs. This process is fairly aboveboard when working with people of similar backgrounds, however it is much more difficult when attempting to understand and motivate employees whose values and backgrounds may be different from your culture.

Methodology

A study of this type presents a number of data collection challenges. It requires as broad a sample as possible and at the same time requires that each data point provide comprehensive information. Thus, the sample consisted of 170 employees in five large companies: Zawia Company for Oil Refinery, Arabic Company for Engineering Industries, Grand Hotel, Libyan Post and Arabic Company for Chemical Industries. This sample comprised individuals working in all levels of organisations: managers, accountants, engineers, clerks and workers (45 percent engineers and accountant, 55 percent others).

Figure – 2: study’s sample.
The individuals were working in both organisations industrial and service companies. Data was collected through a close format question - (questionnaire) and in-depth interviews selected from the sample. Since, the objective of study was to determine the motivators and the hygiene factors in the Libyan environment most of the questions based on this notion. The workers were asked about whether the factors of the theory were motivators or hygiene factors, and do these factors lead to satisfaction or just to prevent dissatisfaction. The aim of choosing this sample was to give a clearer picture about all working individuals' orientation and about the factors that lead to satisfaction and those that eliminate dissatisfaction.

Data Collection

The questions used during the interviews were of the "open-end" type. This method was used due to the researcher's wish to draw a clear picture about the theory’s factors in the Libyan environment. The researcher guided the respondents around themes such as achievement, financial rewards, responsibility, work condition, salary…etc. the interviewer recorded all notes and answers to facilitate analysis of data. The questionnaire was distributed in the mentioned companies (N=171). A total of (100) questionnaire were returned, this provided a response rate of 58 percent.

Analysis and Results

In this study the objective was to understand the work motivation and hygiene factors in a sample of Libyan workers in both industrial and services firms. The findings support the first hypothesis where some hygiene factors have been changed into motivators; however the study rejected the second hypothesis, because no change has been made in terms of the motivators. A ratio analysis method was used in this study. The answers to the questionnaire were used to identify and measure motivators and hygiene factors in the presented model, Figure 3. Figures obtained from the questionnaire were analysed to reach these results. This method gives the percentage of the sample that agrees or disagrees with the theory factors in Libyan environment. Where ratio > 50 per cent indicates positive relationship to a theory factor; ration < 50 per cent shows inverse relationship to the same factor (variable).

Figure 3: variable agreement: the researcher.
interview, the question: what do you think the most important factor that influences employee’s satisfaction? Why? Answers indicated that job security was an important factor, because it was relatively unavailable in workplaces. Therefore, the accessibility of this motivator is less than 50 per cent in the studied workplaces; which strengthened this factor a great deal. Accordingly, it has become firm motivator.

**Figure 4:** the relation of motivation strength and probability of success (Hersey and Blanchard, 1993).

![Figure 4](image)

Furthermore, figure 5 illustrates the results from the questionnaire where the blue colour indicates the percentage of agreement of the variable in the Libyan environment; on the other hand the red colour shows disagreement with the same variable; the figure shows some of theory’s factors in Libyan environment.

**Figure 5:** the theory’s factors in Libyan environment. Prepared by the researcher.

![Figure 5](image)

More and more, the study shows that in Libyan workplace environments employees place greater emphasis on some hygiene factors than motivators, namely financial rewards and security and job conditions. The study also found that these factors have a substantial effect on job satisfaction. The study indicated that, the motivation programs within the organisations are not so clear, where 65 per cent of the sample see that there is no a clear motivation program. Also, the study supported the idea of Herzberg of “the opposite of satisfaction is not dissatisfaction but no satisfaction” the study indicated that 47 per cent of workers were satisfied at the time of the study, and 42 per cent were not satisfied. On the other hand, the study revealed that only 28 per cent of the sample was dissatisfied at the same time. Accordingly, if the
opposite of satisfaction was dissatisfaction the result would be the complementary of percentage. Figure 6 shows this fact.

**Figure 6**: shows the opposite of satisfaction is not dissatisfaction prepared by the researcher.

![Venn diagram](image)

By using the “Sets Theory” Venn diagram to explain this fact, where
U is the Universal Set which the study’s sample = 100
A is the set of satisfied people = 47
B is the set that represents dissatisfied people = 28
From the figure it can be seen that the complement of A: is U – A or;
P(A) = P(B) + 25 = 28 + 25 = 53. Thus, if the satisfaction is opposite of dissatisfaction the number of dissatisfaction people would be 53 not 28.

**Figure -7**: the complement set by Venn diagram, prepared by the researcher.

That is, job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction are two dimensions that are not on opposite ends of the same continuum.

**Management Implication**

The question is what are the implications of these results for business field whether in industrial or service sectors? First of all, the study indicated an important fact; the motivators are different from one environment to another. For instance, whereas bonus and financial rewards were hygiene factors in American environment; they are motivators in Libyan workplaces. The study also has illustrated that hygiene factors were of importance for the general satisfaction of the employees at their working environment. Accordingly, it is central for management of businesses to cope with these needs. Nevertheless, in terms of employees' motivation the results suggest that security and job condition need to be fulfilled to satisfy the workers, and hence get remarkable performance and productivity. Furthermore, the results show that the issue of satisfaction and dissatisfaction is very complicated; where both can be found at the same time in workplaces. This result suggests that the managers should pay attention to both factors at the same time.
The study also has shown that, financial rewards were substantial for the wellbeing of the Libyan employees where 60 per cent favour increase in salary rather than promotion. Also, the strength of a motivator such as security and job conditions might result from the deficiency of this factor. So, more attention should be paid by the managers on this matter; this attention leads to more satisfaction and hence more performance and productivity. Therefore, enhancing employee productivity through motivation represents a method which can have far reaching benefits for an organisation. More attention must be given by management in the world of the industry and service to the use of motivation as a means of increasing productivity.

Conclusion

In this study the main aim was to understand both factors of Herzberg’s Theory in the Libyan environment. The findings of the study support Herzberg’s Two-factor theory; however some differences were ascertained in the hygiene factors. This study illustrates that all motivators were found to be satisfiers in the Libyan environment. Also, this study confirms that the opposite of satisfaction is not dissatisfaction but no satisfaction. On the other hand, this study indicates that some hygiene factors have been changed into motivators due to the differences in the two environments (Libyan and United States). That is, workers in Libya place greater emphasis on hygiene factors rather than motivators, namely working conditions and bonus. These findings suggest that, managers in Libya may need to consider the hygiene factors which might satisfy the employees and create a productive environment. The study also shows that conducting such studies is an important means for the managers not only to understand the real motivators and hygiene factors in their environment but also to avoid the dominance of American theories of human behavior because national culture does have a strong effect on worker’s motivations. To sum up, more studies about human behavior throughout the world are needed to determine what really motivates workers in the local environment, and hence leads to job satisfaction.

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Media Between Being Power and Business

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Abstract Media plays the key role in the relation between politics and electorate. It has the power to make the transparence of government from one side and from the other side to create the public opinion and to bring in the focus of politic the demands of electorate. The role of media in a political system is important and for that reason is called the fourth power that controls the other three powers. This paper analyses the impact of media in political system and the difficult position of it between being a private business and power. It analyses how this private business is a public power. It analyses also the public power of media business over the politic, public and other business.

1. Introduction

Media is considered the forth power that controls the other public powers. Also it is seen and as powerful entity that has to much control in the mind of people. “The mass media exert great power not simply economic or politic power but the power to shape how we think about the world” (Lichtenberg f. 9) The press is often described as having a special watchdog function or as being a kind of fourth branch of government (Lichtenberg f. 105) Is media so powerful? Is it so strong the impact of media in mind of public? Can media exist as a separate power or is it just a supplement that influences the other three legitimate ones? What relation has media with politics, public and business? Is media power or is media business? Can the position of media be regulated as public power?

2. The power of media over politic, public and business

Media has a lot of impact in the public sphere and for that reason is considered forth power in a state. The three powers are declared so by constitution and law, while media is not declared by constitution as legal forth power in a state. The constitution sanction the freedom of speech but not that the free speech and free press is a power as other powers in state. So it does not have any statutory or constitutional rights to be called a fourth branch of power in none of the countries. Shortly a media is not a power as the other power in a state but is a power that is much more powerful than the three branches; it is a superpower over three legal powers. This is for the fact that the other powers came to public only through media. It is media that brings them on the mind of the public. For some categories of people the three powers would have no existed without media. We see media is a very powerful entity and this powerfulness came by its nature. It is powerful because it has the monopole of information. The difference between three powers and this superpower is the fact that media is private power and they are public powers. So is a power out of the political system but plays a key role in the political system. Holms says about media that “daily press is a public not a private institution”(Holms, f. 36) It is a public institution because it plays important role in political system but in its essence this power drives from a private business. You can not oblige the private businesses to work for the benefic of state and that of the public because they see first the personal benefit. They do not see their business as power that has impact on other powers but as a power from which they make money. They do not make business for charity. According to rules of market as long as they respect ethic and law they have all the right to see it in this way.

What relation has media with politic? Media is related to politic and sometimes is considered as the fourth branch of government. Their work sometimes has been seen as becoming part of the executive or parliamentary communication. From all the power government needs to be into mind of public because need their votes and for that fact it needs media to send them in voters mind. “Governing images and the way in which they are formed have an important, even decisive influence on the unfolding of governing process.” (De Bens· 232) Machiavelli expresses very well the impact of the appearance of a politician in public. “Everyone see what you seem to be few touch upon what you are, and those few does not dare to contradict the opinion of the many who have the majesty of the state to defend them (Machiavelli, chapter 8). The politicians can offer their political supply only through media. They can make publicity to their political
product only through media. They are related with media with or without their desire. They really need each other and it is a kind of relation that makes them inseparable from each other. The political role of media is production of political information, opinion, influencing all political processes. In this way media has the power to form a reality for the way the government works. In this kind of relation is politics that needs media more. Media can find different partners because she is attractive and being so there are many who run after it. The politicians to have in its control this attractive partner make everything they can. Politics want media with or without its will. It is a kind of relation that may be possible through desire, interest and menace. When they like each other it is a normal relation. They love each other when they have the same goals and ideologies. When they do not have so much affection it enters the interest to keep them together. Interest consists not only in taking publicity from politic but also in favoring the owner of media by public goods. In end if the interest does not do its work it enters menace that consists in pressure with taxes, and other state regulations that can damage directly their existence. The menace of politician can destroy their existence and from an attractive entity that keeps every potential partner run after it media can not exist anymore. So they can bring it in the state of inexistence. As every business media will do the impossible to survive. Being in a pressure of to be or not to be in major part media choose to be and to subject to politic. The rebel medias to survive needs to have a large market or otherwise they will fail. So this business that is powerful from it nature became a tool in the politician hands and especially in societies with weak economy and weak political culture.

Media has power over the public. The public needs media because only through it can go to government its demands. The politicians make a direct contact with the public only in time of election when they need their votes and in the rest of time they can make that contact only through media. So strong is the impact of media in public that exist a popular saying that says “people are just sheep that goes wherever media dog lead them”. From the other side media need public too because produces for it. Media could not exist without public. So there is a strong relation between media and public too. This relation is that of the sellers and buyers. The citizens buy the products of media. Despite the fact that public is part of media production it is a kind of production that is sold to public again and the benefits go to media. Media has power also over the other business. It is business as others but is a business that has power in its nature. The businesses need media to link them with public to sell their products. The advertisings of private businesses are transmitted to public through media. It is a market where businesses sell their products but is much more efficient when the products enter in people’s house, in every time of day through media. So if public does not go to market, through media we bring market to public. In this way media goes direct in publics mind and make them buy in the market. In this way media raises the incomes of private businesses. There a lot of businesses that are made successful from this kind of marketing. The relation between media and businesses is a normal contract between private businesses. The only way when business control media is when the owner of media is rich businessmen that can use it according to his political goal or business interests. So when media is made in function of interests of the person that own that. For Lichtenberg the press should bee independent not only of government but also of the power of money (Holms, f. 51)

3. Media between power and business

It exist a “tension between the public role of media and advanced commercialization, between the public sphere and the market model” (De Bens, Hamelink, f. 9) The complexity of media governance also result from the fact that media are located in civil society, but also operate in the market place and a linked to state institution. (De Bens, Hamelink, f. 232). No other business is in such position as media.

The modern democracy sees media as powerful entity that is necessary and must be independent from the political system. The theorists of democracy consider media and free speech as a tool for well functioning of democracy and do not see any other kind of freedom if it does not exist the freedom of expression. “The free speech and free press provision do not merely limit the state, they also require affirmative state action, aimed at securing the precondition of effective freedom of press” (Holms, f. 44) For Raymond Aron, “the fundamental features of a democratic regime is alongside the plurality of it governing categories the pluralism of it means of mass communication, such as radio, the press and television and the independence of this from the political system” (Sartor, 176-182) According to Hume “a free press strengths the government by making magistrates aware of murmurs or secret discontents before they became unmanageable. (Hume, f. 11). Alexander Mikklejohn says that “the citizens in a democracy as the ultimate decision makers need full or at least a lot of information to make intelligent political choices (Lichtenberg, f. 110). So the role of media is important in the creation of public opinion and in choosing the political party that will take the power. The public mission of media is not to make publicity to politicians but to control how they ménage the public finances. So to control how the three powers do their work, to make critics and suggestions through specialists that works in media. To do well
the role of the control of three powers the journalist must be much more specialist than politicians are. In democratic society the real opposite of state powers is media.

What happen when media does not care for the public mission and does not control the government but is part with it? That is the biggest problem of media in democracy because they became a tool of one political party and their mission is to attack the adversaries of this political party. Instead they control the way the government work they make the propaganda of one party. So, media in this way manipulate the truth and send to public an image that is not true. Milli for the truth says that “truth in the great practical concerns of life is so much a question of the reconciling and combining of opposites that very few have mind sufficiently capacious and impartial to make adjustment with an approach to correctness, and it has to be made by the rough process of a struggle between combatants fighting under hostile banners. (Lichtenberg, f. 113).

So the reality that is created by media many times is virtual not real. The power of media in this way is used to manipulate the reality. The Important problems that are necessary to be in media are sometime avoided. The interests of public many times is ignored “The market constrains the presentation of matters of public interest and importance in two ways. First the market privileges select groups, by making programs, journals and newspapers especially responsive to their needs and desires. One such group consist of those who have the capital to acquire or own a television station, newspapers, or journal, another consist of those who controls the advertising budgets of various businesses, and still another consists of those who are most able and most likely to respond enthusiastically to advertising. The number in the last group is no doubt quiet large but is not coextensive with the electorate. To be a consumer, even a sovereign one, is not to be a citizen. Second the market brings to bear on editorial and programming decisions factors that might have a great deal to do with profitability or allocative efficiency, but little to do with democratic need of electorates. (Fiss , M, f. 143-144)

There are voices that favor the regulation of media. Benjamin Franklin says “ because the press is public power similar to the three branches of government, it should be shackled with serious legal restrictions (Holms, f. 36) Private power posses as great threat to liberty as does public power. (Holms, f. 36) Buckley government intervention in the private sector is both necessary and dangerous because for any democracy private power is both dangerous and necessary (Holms, f. 42) To regulate a private business and to make it a public good is a mission that seem impossible. It is uncontrolled the way the media protects a part and attacks a part because it can make it indirectly. So to control their programs it means to censure media and free speech. So it is a double edges sword. “Government control in the other hand appeal to fear. Even when regulation do not amount to over censorship, they employ the chilling apparatus of arbitrary edicts, protracted litigation, bureaucratic procedures- all of them backed by the state power of coercion (Kelley and Donway, f. 90)

From the other part media in democracy is protected by the free market. Media is private business and is the market that decides for it. As all the other business they produce the programs that are much more sold in the market of media. It does not matter what those programs contains as long as they are seen and are bought from public nobody cares for their quality or the hided messages that they contains. In free competition the media that offer the best product will win. A free marketplace of ideas has a self-righting tendency to correct errors and biases. “Like an economic market, a nation wide network of public debate can mobilize resources that would otherwise lay dormant” (Hume, f. 11) So in a way the free market can make media better. Like all the other markets the free market ideas can be more competitive by government intervention (Holms, f. 53) For some others in a free market place journalist and editors depend on their reputation.

Is it true that the media that offer the best quality in market will be more successful and will survive? The products of media in the market of ideas many times has nothing to do with quality or knowledge. “Knowledge of course is an epistemological as well as an economic good. The truth of an idea is determined by it relation to reality, not by the number of people who “buy” it. Its significance and fundamentally are determinant by it relation to the wider body of knowledge, not by degree of attention it attracts in the marketplace (Posner, f. 308) So the quality has nothing to do with the success in market. Is not the market that decided if a book or a song is in high level but the professionals in this field. It is not the amount that determined the quality. So market does not qualify the bests. If the market does not sell the best production then people must be educated with the best so it is a road without end.

4. Conclusions

Media is a business that has power in its nature. This power has impact in political system and the way the politic work. Media has business relation with politic, public and other business. They are all its clients with which it does business. Media exploit this power in its benefit. As the other businesses media needs to wide the market to sell their products that
are information, programs and space for publicity. The regulations for making media a public power are impossible because this kind of private business has conflict of interest with public power. In any case this business with use public power to make money. The function of power and that of business are in contrary with each other. Media can use its power to make business but can not put its business in function of public interests. The state can regulate media in market to protect it from monopolies and to sponsor it with aim to make it independent from three powers but not to make it a real public power because it is simply a business that has power in itself.

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Social Effects and Leadership in Albania, the Analyze of the Social Influences in Albanian Administrative Developing

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Abstract This paper identifies and addresses of the important factors underlying of the social and economical influences, the loss of the leadership roles and cultures—the sense of cultural inferiority prevalent among members of community, women, youth, minority groups. The paper also introduces with the leadership styles in Albanian condition and describes the influences of prejudice in this organization’s efforts to preserve and revitalize the Albanian intangible culture. Prejudice influences convenience or economic reasons. But more often, they abandon their culture and language in order to overcome discrimination. Social prejudice reduces quality and slows the flow. Social prejudice is a chasm that separates information from the people who need it. Many leaders are too proud to reach across and ask for it, instead, they will ask someone for their opinion on their side of the chasm. In the technology age, information is needed from the source, not chain of command or someone’s theory. To stay competitive, work environments must be free of social prejudice and leaders must be willing to cross social class barriers to seek information. In the Albania, it is not uncommon for members of dominant cultures, to look down upon members of a minority cultural group, considering them as “second class” citizens. Projects are undertaken towards overcoming the sense of cultural inferiority and instilling cultural pride among the young. In business, social prejudice has always been a barrier to the information. Leadership likes the feeling of its power while the targets of prejudice tolerate it.

Keywords: Social prejudice, social barriers, cultural inferiority, leadership and the role of leader.

1. Literature Review and Hypotheses

The loss of the stable state means that our society and all of its institutions are in continuous processes of transformation. We cannot expect new stable states that will endure for our own lifetimes. We must learn to understand, guide, influence and manage these transformations. We must make the capacity for undertaking them integral to ourselves and to our institutions. We must, in other words, become adept at learning. We must become able not only to transform our institutions, in response to changing situations and requirements; we must invent and develop institutions which are ‘learning systems’, that is to say, systems capable of bringing about their own continuing transformation. (Schon 1973: 28) Companies, organizations and governments have to operate in a global environment that has altered its character in significant ways. Despite the rapid technological development in many countries there are benefits from the use of e-learning or there are benefits that are not at levels as it’s required.

E-learning will be consider as one of the new business that requires the implementation of a modern infrastructure for the needs of customers (Adler & Bjork 1979, pp 23, 56, 78, 124). There is also the social context to consider when one attempts to understand prejudice. Social scientists who study social learning and conformity as causes of prejudice focus on the social environment within which people live. The social environment is important. One should note, adoption of prejudiced attitudes can occur throughout the life-cycle. People learn to be prejudice through socialization processes like internalization, modeling, and reward and punishment. Values are internalized as people encounter various agents of socialization. Attitudes and behaviors are learned within a social context where agents of socialization are important.
Robertson (1989:204) contends that legal discrimination is “unequal treatment, on the grounds of group membership, that is upheld by law.”

2. Learning Personality Elements

Our learning personality is built around a strong natural talent, intellectual, artistic, technical, or dexterous. Everyone has at least one strong talent, with other talents varying in intensity. Some fortunate people may have more than one. A person with strong intellectual talent usually has weak technical talent. A person with a strong technical talent usually has a weak intellectual talent. Our strong natural talent is the base from which we can build and become a super achiever. The problem is, recognizing what that talent is. Most non-intellectuals don’t discover their natural talent until they stumble onto opportunity by accident and many never find. Society offers help for intellectuals only.

Leadership and the talent of behavior

Early research on leader behavior conducted by psychologist in 1950s-60s, much of the studies on leadership behavior has been affected by two pioneering school: The Ohio State Leadership Studies and The Michigan Leadership Studies. Researchers at Ohio State University surveyed leaders have identified two major behaviors, called consideration and initiating structure. Consideration falls in to category of people-oriented behavior and is the extent to which leader is mindful of subordinates, respects their ideas and feelings, and establishes mutual trust. Considerate leaders are friendly, provide open communication, develop teamwork, and are oriented toward their subordinates. On the other hand initiating structure is the degree of task behavior that is the extent to which the leader is task oriented and directs subordinate work activities toward goal attainment. Leaders with this style typically give instructions, spend time planning, emphasize deadlines, and provide explicit schedules of work activities.

Personal Interest - Teenagers are searching for what turns them on. For some, this is next to impossible because relatives, friends and society are pressuring them to accept what they think their interest should be. A teenager, not knowing what motivates him and under pressure to accept others’ opinions, rebels. In this conflict, it is next to impossible to learn what one’s natural talent and interest are. The results, productivity will be well below capabilities. A strong willed teen will take control, reject parents advice, strike out on their own, and do what they feel is right. If they discover their learning personality, they will build a career that goes beyond their wildest dreams. Parents who recognize their teens natural learning personality and work with them to develop it, usually become very successful at an early age. This includes allowing their teen to drop out of school, if needed, and support their interest and ambition with opportunity.

Current Opportunity - Opportunity is the only way anyone can discover their natural talent and personal interest. Project based education increases opportunity for self-discovery. Opportunity is a powerful motivating tool. Motivated people will find ways to acquire knowledge without dependency on instructors. As a result, these inventors developed a burning desire to learn and it was not on academic subjects. Society creates opportunity for the intellectual learning personality. They are coached all the way through school to their first job. [internet link, Etizen and Baca-Zinn (1994:174) Prejudices and Influences in Society]

Social Environment - People with an intellectual learning personality are viewed as high on the social ladder. People with dexterity learning personality are low on the social effects therefore, their needs are ignored. High school students are taught, “collar” skills are something to avoid at all cost, they are beneath acceptable standards.” The teaching of social prejudice prevents students from discovering themselves.

Everyone could find a productive life style if they could find a learning process with opportunity that matches their learning personality. This is extremely difficult for non-intellectuals because our society says, "everyone must first learn academics before they are allowed to seek other skills." With this policy, non-intellectuals cannot keep up with natural talented intellectuals. They are labeled failures by the education system, thereby killing their desire to learn. For many, self-fulfilling prophecy kills the last bit of ambition. It is extremely difficult to motivate people whose learning personality is out of harmony with society’s preconceived standard. On the other hand, the few who are self-motivated will ignore opinions and find ways to acquire skills to achieve their ambition.
Table 1  Regression Analysis Results on the Mediator Effect of Learning Orientation on Leadership –Firm Performance Relationship

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Regression Model</th>
<th>Independent Variables</th>
<th>Depended Variables</th>
<th>Standardized β</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Adjusted R2</th>
<th>F Value</th>
<th>Model Sig.</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>.319</td>
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<td>.014</td>
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<td>.000</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>1B</td>
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<td>.406***</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.472</td>
<td>102,71</td>
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<td>.000</td>
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<td>2A</td>
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<td>.044</td>
<td>.290</td>
<td>70,982</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2.1 Stereotypes and the institutional group relations

A stereotype is a mental image, or an exaggerated belief, which assumes that whatever is believed about a group is typical for the entire group. Stereotypical thinking is unavoidable in social life and it is not automatically bad. "The essence of prejudicial thinking, however, is that the stereotype is not checked against reality. It is not modified by experiences that counter the rigid image (Farley, 2000:19)."

One might note that even positive stereotypes are a mixed blessing. On one hand, positive stereotypes justify the use of more negative stereotypes. On the other hand, they provide unrealistic attributes that the individual has to try to live up to. [6]

2.2 What is Socioeconomic Status (SES)?

Farley (2005:32) notes that nearly all societies tend to group themselves by socioeconomic status. SES is a concept which is rather complex. The average citizen may tend to group people according to simple criteria like income or wealth. SES is a more robust concept. Socioeconomic status (SES) calls attention the complex nature of social class. It is determined by an array of social and economic indicators. It is also subject to interpretation form various social perspectives.

2.2 Indicators and objectives of leadership indicators and Effects in Albanian public administration

There are objective measures of social class. Henslin (1999:253) suggests that researches can assign people to various social classes based objective criteria involving wealth, power, and prestige. Some objective indicators can include occupation, educational level, number of dependents, [7] type of residence, infant mortality, and life expectancy rates.
Perceived Intelligence in Different Environments

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Learning Type/Talent</th>
<th>Social Environments</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Academic</td>
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<tr>
<td>Intellectual</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Artistic</td>
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<td>Technical</td>
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<tr>
<td>Dexterity</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>Low</td>
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</table>

Tab1. Social environments and talents can be divided into hundreds of categories.

H 1. The Albanian – reforms, good progress was made on decentralization of the police, with the appointment of regional commanders, and the selection, in consultation with municipal councils.

This empirically reflects the need to strengthen different strategic capabilities to achieve an adequate level on the organizational issues, improve performance and encourage entrepreneurship. Thus, the entrepreneurship builds and nurtures OL, which enables the formulation of OI strategies that lead to greater performance. Entrepreneurship creates wealth by concentrating on OI/OL. The organization that promotes entrepreneurship is an organization capable of creating, learning and influencing the environment.

Although the field of entrepreneurship is recognized as being of fundamental importance for our economy, and many researchers throughout the world have turned their attention to it, there’s, as yet, no agreement as to the research object in this scientific field. Today, two basic trends exist and stand in opposition to one-another in the scientific community of entrepreneurship. The field of entrepreneurship would therefore be concerned with the market sector, that’s primarily the private sector and, by extension, non-profit organizations and cooperatives active in the private sector, together with the portion of public sector whose activities are concerned mainly with the sale of products or services on a market.1

The main issues handled out in this presentation are: the field of entrepreneurship; pro-activity and environment as well as the frame conditions for innovations and institutional system of innovation. Entrepreneurship is concerned first and foremost with a process of change, emergence and creation: creation of new value, but also, and at the same time, change and creation for the individual. Community peoples must be encouraged to take active roles in preserving their intangible culture. The loss of a culture spells the loss of inherited knowledge, an entire thought-world. It is also a loss of one’s identity. In the end, it is the community people, not outsiders, who maintain or abandon their culture and heritage. It is their decision if and how they will revitalize, maintain, and fortify their culture, language and heritage.

H 2. Albanian institutions will be consider as one of the new business that requires the implementation of a modern infrastructure for the needs of customers.

One practical example of developing leadership specifically so as to influence an organization’s safety culture is described by Burmman & Evans.

3. The Intellectual Learning Personality in Albania and the Development of Leaders

All through history, intellectuals have power because they control money, politics and the education system. They influence our thinking and goals through the media, they report the news, write the laws, and control our schools that create the next generation of people to think like them. Therefore, it is a popular goal to be an intellectual and be part of

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1 Second Meeting of the Stabilization Association Council between Albania and the EU, Brussels, 11 May 2010.
the influential power structure.

**H3.** Leadership development can build on the development of individuals (including followers) to become leaders. In addition, it also needs to focus on the interpersonal linkages between the individuals in the team. In the belief that the most important resource that an organization possesses is the people that comprise the organization, some organizations address the development of these resources. Therefore, bringing the notion leader together with the team to explore these similarities (rather than focusing on the differences) brings positive results. Intellectuals learn through linguistics. They have the ability to express their thoughts clearly on paper. This ability is the source of power, because a piece of paper can be reproduced efficiently. Efficient communication makes it possible for one man's ideas to influence an extremely large group of people. This influence produces leaders and everyone wants to be a leader.

### 3.1 Strengthening of the Public Administration in Albania

This component as been assessed as unsatisfactory; the argument used is that, because of the transferring of the Public Administration Department from the Prime Minister’s Office to the Ministry of Interior, the influence of this department has lowered in bringing reforms forward. Also, the emphasis has been placed in the inadequacy of the working environment, technical equipments in place, which have influenced the results of their work.

### 3.2. Assistance to the Training Institute of the Public Administration

Concerning this assessment, we clarify that despite some problems with the extension of the Public Administration Department thought, in the first moments (end of 2005), afterwards the Albanian Government has put all its effort in the channeling of all the civil service management procedure through this department.

For all the above mentioned, we judge that despite some problems at the end of 2005, the components should not be assessed as unsatisfactory, taking into consideration not only the time span of the project, but also the very good progress of the reforms in the remuneration field and the one on the functional structural of the institutions, which, as we emphasized have been directed and managed throughout all the time by the Public Administration Department.

### 4. Conclusions and recommendations

The Government of Albania has adopted a comprehensive policy reform program to strengthen Albania’s weak institutional and governance capacity. This policy reform program is being supported by a Structural Adjustment Credit, which was approved by the Bank in June of 1999. The overall objective of the proposed Public Administration Reform Project is to provide required resources for technical assistance, training, goods and incremental operating costs that are needed to implement the Government’s Institutional and Public Administration Reform agenda effectively.

The most striking result to emerge from data is that commitment to learning and shared vision and open-mindedness mediates the effects of task oriented leadership and relations oriented leadership behavior on firm performance. So, H2 (learning orientation mediates the relationship between task-oriented leadership and firm performance) and H3 (learning orientation mediates the relationship between relations-oriented leadership and firm performance) are fully supported.

These findings are consistent with the literature on leadership and learning orientation. Although there are so many studies examining the learning orientation-firm performance relation [59], [60], [18], [61], [30] leadership and learning orientation relation [8], [34], [55], [56], [57] in literature; the mediator effect of learning orientation on the relationship between leadership behavior and firm performance is examined and revealed for the first time through that survey, which differentiates this survey from others. The Development of ATIPA states the objective of the project to be: The objective of the Project is to assist the Borrower to improve its capacity with regard to policy formulation and coordination, and administrative performance so as to create conditions that will encourage the Department of Public Administration of the Borrower to improve their service delivery. This component has been assessed as moderately satisfactory. Concerning this evaluation, we believe that it should have been higher, as the activity on the ITAP has been appraised not only in between local institutions, but also from foreign partners. The foundation of a new institution and achievement of successes contemporary level in the forecasting standards and in offering training should have been valued more in the framework of this project. Concerning this evaluation, we believe that it should have been higher, as the activity on the ITAP has been appraised not only in between local institutions, but also from foreign partners. The foundation of a new institution and achievement of successes contemporary level in the forecasting standards and in offering training should have been valued more in the framework of this project. Albania transitioned away from an extremely closed, autarchic socialist system only in 1992. At that time, Albania’s administrative system was considered chaotic and ineffective. Its
administrative culture - a combination of many influences - emphasized security over service delivery. The capacity of public administration was weak; the system, stemming from a party focused environment, was highly politicized. Corruption was pervasive in every facet of the public sector. Citizens feared public administration and did not trust it to provide even the most basic services in a fair or impartial way.

They include:

Policy and Public Expenditure Management: [1] aggregate fiscal discipline including inflation rate, revenue predictability, and fiscal aggregates; [2] strategic prioritization including policy volatility, delays in auditing, and deviation from functional appropriations and [3] operational efficiency including representative deviation by spending units at sector level, and transparent, competitive procurement and improvement the economical and social development.

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Inevitability of European Travelogues in the Socio-Cultural Studies of Later Medieval Maharashtra

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Abstract: After the Arrival of Portuguese sailor Vasco-de-Gama in India, many foreign travelers has been visited India. The ratio of European travelers was more than other foreign travelers in the post medieval period for visiting India. European travelers had keenly and minutely observed and what they had observed, heard; they have noted it down carefully. They had noted down the information about the cities which they had visited; the customs and traditions, believes and blind-believes, birds and animals, weights and measurements.

Social Life in the Later Medieval Maharashtra

Hindu Society

Most of the foreign travelers traveled in Maharashtra by sea route, so in their travelogues we get the information about the harbors on sea shores like Vasai, Mumbai, Chaul, Dabhol, Rajapur etc.

Foreign travelers traveling through Maharashtra by land route clears the main routes like Surat to Burhanpur, Surat to Goa, Surat to Aurangabad and Govalkonda in medieval Maharashtra.

Through the narration of these travelers we get the information like the roads in Maharashtra, towns, foods, lifestyle, environment, animals and birds, religious faiths, superstitions, the sources of measurements etc. By that we get the idea of social, religious, economical, political and cultural conditions of contemporary Maharashtra.

The foreign travelers like Gemelli Carreri (Italy) (Guha J.P. (Ed.) 1979, b, Pp. 309-315), Dr. John Fryer (England) (Crooke W. (Ed.) 1912, Pp. 100-115), Tavernier (France) (Crooke W. (Ed.) 1995, Pp. 141-146, 149), James Forbes (England) (Forbes J. 1834, Pp. 38-40) explained the social life of Maharashtra in later period that Hindu society was divided in caste and tribes like Brahmin, Rajput (fighters), Bania (Traders), Carpenter, Milkman, Gardener, Goldsmith, Farmer, Washer man, Fisherman etc. They were restricted for inter-caste marriage and diet system.

Lifestyle of the Society

Contemporary Maharashtrian society was divided into two parts, one is high class and other one is general middle class. There was much distance in their lifestyles. High class society enjoyed delicious food. Wealthy people lived in big buildings and bungalows. In general middle class there was no variety in diet and their houses were short and thatched.

Costume- As per the socio-economical conditions there were the variety in the costume. The costume of high class people was different than common people. John Fryer (Crooke W. (Ed.) 1912, Pp. 116- 119), Niccolao Manucci (Italy) (Kaul H. K. (Ed.) 2002, Pp. 337-338), James Forbes (Forbes J. 1834, Pp. 52-53) observed that, common people tried limited costumes and they remained half naked. High class women were fond of variety of cloths. All Hindu, Muslim men and women liked the ornaments of various metals.

Mediums of Entertainment- John Fryer (Crooke W. (Ed.) 1912, Pp. 68-73), Carreri (Guha J.P. (Ed.) 1979, b, Pp. 200-205) and James Forbes (Forbes J. 1834, Pp. 114-116) noted that, at that time there were many sources of entertainment like hunting, racing and fight between animals, acrobats, singing and playing the instruments and it was the monopoly of high class people. Common people were entertained by snake charmers and Bear shows. There were the coronation ceremonies and kings and royal family members weighed in wealth, sugar etc.

Festivals- The most of the travelers traveled through Konkan (sea shore Maharashtra), so we get the description about the festivals in the Konkan. Hindu and Muslim communities celebrated many festivals, but the travelers like John Fryer (Crooke W. (Ed.) 1912, Pp. 79-80), Thevenot (Guha J.P. (Ed.) 1979, b, Pp. 141) & Ovington (England) (Crooke W. (Ed.)
1967, Pp. 197, Footnote No. 3) specially noticed about the two festivals Holi (Festival of fire in the winter season) and Narli Pournima (Full moon day in the rainy season).

Custom of chewing Betel Leaves- Foreign travelers like Duarte Barbosa (Portugal) (Dames M. L. (Ed.) 1918, Pp. 167-169), Thomas Herbert (England) (Foster W. (Ed.) 1928, Pp. 275-276), Carreri (Ojha Dr. P.N. 1975, Pp. 33, Footnote no. 99) were surprised because of the custom of chewing Betel leaves at the same time threw through light on the medicinal features of the Betel leaves.

Condition of Women

The contemporary condition of woman was much degraded than today. The customs like child marriage, widow burning were in practice on large scale. The Purdah (veil) system was much practiced in Muslim women. From the narration of Ralph Fitch (England) (Prasad R. C. 1980, Pp. 55-56), Thevenot (Guha J.P. (Ed.) 1979, b, P. 141), Edward Terry (Samuel Purchas, 1905-07, Vol. IX, P. 43) & James Forbes (Forbes J. 1834, P. 56) we can find that, the marriageable age for girls was 9-10 years and for boys it was before 16. Divorce was agreed by all in Muslim community and in Hindu Community it was used by lower caste. Widow marriages were agreed only in lower communities.

Sati (Widow Burning) Custom

European travelers like Tom Pires (Portugal) (Cortesao A. (Ed.) 1944, P. 52), John Lincostone (Holland) (Samuel Purchas, 1905, P. 256-257), Tavernier (Croke W. (Ed.) 1995, Vol. I., Pp. 175-176) & Bernier (France) (Constable A. (Tr.) 1992, Pp. 306-315), James Forbes (Forbes J. 1834, Pp. 57-58) give in detail about this custom and remarks that there was plight and predicament of women due to inhuman customs like Sati (widow burning) and child marriage. The widow woman was neglected in the society. The lives of widow women were humiliating, servile and below dignity, so those women optioned for widow burning. About the burned widow there was honor and respect in the society. The foreign travelers considered Brahmin community responsible for such customs. According to Tavernier, Muslim Commanders does not permit for widow burning, so the ratio of widow burning was less. But in Hindu kingdom the ratio was high. Up to 19th century widow burning customs was practiced. Devdasi custom (girl child dedicated to the God) was also in practice in Maharashtra; James Forbes (Forbes J. 1834, Pp. 61-62) observed that “Dancing girls are dedicated to the principal Hindoo temples, they are supplied by their parents, and they dance and sing at the festivals. We shall find that these damsels are not only dedicated to the principal idols, but to the pleasure of the priests.”

The Hindu calendar

European travelers like John Fryer, Peter Mundy & Edward Terry (Croke W. (Ed.) 1912, Pp. 90-94) have minutely noticed about the Hindu calendar and the system of counting the time, Pal (moments), Ghatika (Seconds), Prahar (the day is divided into 8 parts).

Natural Calamities & Diseases

In the foreign travelogues of Peter Mundy, Manucci, Martin Francois (France), John Lincostone (Samuel Purchas, 1905, Vol. X, P. 253-254), Thevenot (Guha J.P. (Ed.) 1979, b, Pp. 184-185), John Fryer (Croke W. (Ed.) 1967, Pp. 178-180), Carreri (Guha J.P. (Ed.) 1979, b, Pp. 200-205) we get the eye witness narration about the suffering due to natural calamities like famine, drought and flood. They also noted about the epidemic diseases, their symptoms and solutions. So it threw light on the contemporary later medieval of Maharashtrian health and lifestyle.

Crops & Animals

From the travelogues of John Fryer (Croke W. (Ed.) 1967, Pp. 209-210, (Croke W. (Ed.) 1912, Pp. 73-76, 84-85), Thevenot & Carreri (Guha J.P. (Ed.) 1979, b, Pp. 200-205, 136), James Forbes (Forbes J. 1834, Pp. 12-22, 26-34, 121-122) we get the narration about various crops, vegetables, foods, animals, birds in Maharashtra. Fryer noted that Maharashtrian produces two harvests. Various kinds of pulse, rice, wheat, melons, cucumbers, gourds were the main crops. They found that this country was rich in bamboos, tamarind, teak, coconut, mango, cashew, and pine-apple. Animals and birds like tigers, leopards, wild hogs, antelopes, deer, hares, elephants, monkey, snakes, sheep, sparrow,
peacock, *bulbul* (Persian Nightingale), different types of fishes find in abundant here. So their travelogues are the real mirrors of lifestyle of Maharashtrians.

**Parsi Community**

The sun of Parsi society was setting in Iran, at the same time there condition in India was raising. The foreign traveler like Dr. John Fryer (England) (Crooke W. (Ed.) 1912, P. 115), Alexander Hamilton (England) (Firby N. K. 1988, P. 147) gave the information about their industries. Travelers like British Governor of Mumbai Gerald Anguier and Strensham Master Firby N. K. 1988, P. 141, 143) told about their march towards Mumbai, but it was slow process. Hamilton provided the wide list about their business. Till the time of Strensham Master (1672 AD) Parsi started sea journey and turn towards Mumbai, and Surat was their chief station. Such things are cleared through their travelogues.

**Cities and Lifestyle**

We get the information about people's life, towns and cities through the parts where they traveled, but they did not throw light on the remaining parts.

One can understand well through the details of social life given by some foreigner (John Fryer (Crooke W. (Ed.) 1967, Pp. 323-331, 337-340), Thevenot (Guha J.P. (Ed.) 1979, b, Pp. 140-141) because they traveled through Kolhapur, Junner, Ramnagar, Peth and Baglan.

Contemporary foreign travelers like John Fryer (Crooke W. (Ed.) 1967, Pp. 172-178), Abbe Carre (Fawcett C. (Ed.) and Burn R. (assist.) 1947, Pp. 182, Footnote no. 3), Ovington (Guha J.P. (Ed.) 1979, a, P. 57) and James Forbes (Forbes J. 1834, Pp. 11-12, 94-101) explained the development of Mumbai from small village to a Metropolitan city and the administrative system of the city.

For the study of medieval Burhanpur foreign travelogues are the Main source of information. Fitch Ralph (Samuel Purchas, 1905, Vol. X, P. 170-171), Captain Hawkins (Kunte B.G. (Executive Ed.) 1974, P. 105), Captain Covert (Oaten E. F. 1909, Pp. 158-159), Sir Thomas Roe (Foster William (Ed.) 1899, Vol. I, Pp. 89-95, 100, 397-399, 403, 409, 489-495, 502, 523), Thevenot (Guha J.P. (Ed.) 1979, b, Pp. 120-122), Tavernier (Crooke W. (Ed.) 1995, Vol. I., P. 42) and Bernier (Constable A. (Tr.) 1992, Pp. 32) provides the first hand information about this town's structural design, historical importance, the constructions and surprising water management. Burhanpur has contemporary important town and it was known as the Key of the Deccan, such details were present in their travelogues.

**Main Routes in the Maharashtra**

1) **Surat-Burhanpur** - Many travelers like William Finch (Foster W. (Ed.) 1985, Pp. 136-138), Sir Thomas Roe (Foster William (Ed.) 1899, Vol. I, Pp. 85-89) and Tavernier (Crooke W. (Ed.) 1995, Vol. I., Pp. 40-42) traveled by the route of Surat to Burhanpur, so they described the conditions of Khandesh in their travelogues. So their travelogues are the important tools for the study of Medieval Khandesh. Through their travelogues we get the description about Navapur, Salher, Mulher, Nandurbar, Thalner, Chopda and Adavad. They also described about the Bhill tribe in the Khandesh and the qualities of nature and disposition of Bhill women.


3) **Surat to Gvalkonda** (Hyderabad) - Tavernier (Crooke W. (Ed.) 1995, Vol. I., Pp. 119-121) and Thevenot (Guha J.P. (Ed.) 1979, b, Pp. 123-125, 131-136, 184) traveled by this route, so in their travelogues we find the description about the provinces like Aurangabad, Daulatabad and Balaghat.

**Caves**

Except James Forbes (Forbes J. 1834, Pp. 265-270) other foreign travelers did not widely narrated about Maharashtrian caves, Indian culture and sculpture. So it is clear that they did not have much knowledge about it. Selected travelers narrated about the caves like Ellora, Kanheri, Elephanta, Mahad and Ganesh caves near Junnar. But they lack the real
information about Indian religion and culture. Only the travelers like James Forbes provided the objective information. So I mentioned that how much these foreign travelers understand the caves?

Conclusions

We can derive the following conclusions through their travelogues:

We find the later medieval socio-cultural conditions of Maharashtra in the foreigner's travelogues. These travelers while traveling provide the information about the social life, the customs, important towns, the routes of traveling and the medium of traveling. They give in detail about the Hindu society and culture which was in majority. Due to that we easily understand the lifestyle of Hindu society and the typical characteristics of Brahmin, Rajput (fighters), Bania (Traders), Carpenter, Milkman, Gardener, Goldsmith, Farmer, Washer man, Fisherman etc.

Through their first hand observations they have explained the socio-cultural life of medieval Maharashtra by showing the customs like child marriage, Devdasi custom (girl child dedicated to the God), mediums of entertainment, food, vegetables, fruits, crops, trees, animals and birds.

The foreign travelers also noticed about the minority people like Parsi. They explained the customs, lifestyle and industriousness of the Parsi people.

The foreign travelers traveling through Maharashtra noted the information by traveling from Surat to Goa, Surat to Burhanpur and Surat to Gvokalkonda (Hyderabad), which were the contemporary high ways. These travelers also described about their stages in the traveling, distances, Ghats (hilly roads) in Maharashtra. They also explained about charitable shelters, Palanquins, bulls, horses and carts as the important sources of traveling and the security system and the servants through their narrations. The foreign travelers also threw light on the traders and nomadic tribes like Banjara.

The foreign travelers like Tavernier and James Forbes described about the medieval postal system.

Thus here my attempt is to show later medieval Maharashtrian socio-cultural life through foreign travelogues and thus these travelogues as the mirror of the contemporary system.

But there is some drawbacks in their travelogues, as they wrote their travelogues after much time of their traveling, so they did not provide accurate information, but they have the first hand observation about it, so they were the primary sources of information. But if it was only heard information then it might be secondary. The above said foreign travelers wrote about the observed and heard information and they informed this information to the second officer or the friends through letters. For the heard information they gave the importance as news only. They never thought that their travelogues would be the sources for history writing.

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APPENDIX-1

Profile of the Travelers, Traveled in Later Medieval Maharashtra

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sr. No.</th>
<th>Name of the Traveler</th>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Period</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Barbosa Duarte</td>
<td>Portugal</td>
<td>1500</td>
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<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Varthema Ludovico di</td>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>1505</td>
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<td>3</td>
<td>Barros Joao de</td>
<td>Portugal</td>
<td>16th Cent.</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>Pires Tom</td>
<td>Portugal</td>
<td>1512</td>
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<td>5</td>
<td>Ota Garcia da</td>
<td>Portugal</td>
<td>1534</td>
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<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Castro Dom Joao de</td>
<td>Portugal</td>
<td>1538</td>
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<td>7</td>
<td>Federici Caesar d)</td>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>1565</td>
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<td>8</td>
<td>Stephens Thomas</td>
<td>England</td>
<td>1579</td>
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<td>9</td>
<td>Monserrate Antonio</td>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>1580</td>
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<td>10</td>
<td>Fitch Ralph</td>
<td>England</td>
<td>1583</td>
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<td>Pyrard Francois</td>
<td>France</td>
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<td>12</td>
<td>Finch William</td>
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<td>1608</td>
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<td>14</td>
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<td>1611</td>
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<td>15</td>
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<td>Italy</td>
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<td>Herbert Sir Thomas</td>
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<td>23</td>
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<td>Mandesilo John Albert de</td>
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<td>38</td>
<td>Carei Giovanni Francesco Gemelli</td>
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<td>Grose John Henry</td>
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<tr>
<td>43</td>
<td>Forbes James</td>
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The Missing Part of Nuclear Power Plant Regulations in Turkey: Occupational Health and Safety

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Abstract: The researches made on X-rays and radioactive minerals prove that high level exposure to radiation results clinical harm on human tissues. Therefore, specific standards are needed to be implementing for the protection of workers who are exposed to radiation especially in nuclear plants. Turkey is planning to activate its first nuclear power plant within couple of years. Accordingly, Turkey has signed a contract for building its first nuclear power plant in Akkuyu, Mersin with Russian RosAtom. It will have an installed capacity of 4.8 GW and expected to have a 5 per cent share in Turkey’s electricity generation. In addition, an intensive regulatory work has been done by the Turkish Atomic Energy Authority. Most of them are in accordance with those of International Atomic Energy Agency. The analysis made in this study, however, shows that the occupational health and safety (OHS) of nuclear power plant workers is neglected so far. Specific regulatory suggestions are made in order to raise the standards to international level.

Key Words: occupational health and safety, nuclear power plant, regulations, law

1. Introduction

The researches made on X-rays and radioactive minerals prove that high level exposure to radiation results clinical harm on human tissues (USNRC, 2011; UNSCEAR, 2008). The long-lasting epidemiological analysis on radioactive exposure of Nagasaki and Hiroshima victims of WWII also proves that radioactivity causes some diseases that can be developed by time (Hall, 2007). It is also known by now that very high level of exposure is fatal. 4Gy doses of radiation would kill half of the adult race. Apart from that, it is found out that just working on such a dangerous condition is a source of stress that affects the health of the workers (Cam, 2004), and negatively affects reproductive health of female workers (Esin and Öztürk, 2005). Therefore, specific standards are needed to be implementing for the protection of workers who are exposed to radiation. Such exposure might be the result of, but not limited to, the production and uses of radioactive resources and materials, the management of nuclear waste. Nuclear plants are the typical examples for such a risky environment.

One might think where does the necessity to establish some standards come from? The protection of health is one of the basic human rights. Article 25 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights clearly states that “Everyone has the right to a standard of living adequate for the health...”. This, however, is not the only statute that requires the countries’ makes internal regulations about the subject. In fact, this declaration is not bounding any way. Instead, the obligation for the countries to make regulations on protection of worker’s health comes from their internal regulations, also called as legislation, in which the constitutions are usually at the first place, as well as from international or multinational agreements. This fact is also true for Turkey.

Turkey is planning to activate its first nuclear power plant within couple of years. Accordingly, Turkey has signed a contract for building its first nuclear power plant in Akkuyu, Mersin with Russian RosAtom. It will have an installed capacity of 4.8 GW and expected to have a 5 per cent share in Turkey’s electricity generation. Therefore, there exists actually not a long time period for the Administration to complete the legal foundations about nuclear energy. This also includes the ones about the occupational health and safety.

This study should look into the current legislation enacted so far in Turkey. At first, it will try to explain why the States are under the obligation to make such legislative moves in order to protect the workers’ health. Then, the specific legal arrangements should be analyzed to see if the standards set forth by Turkey is in compliance with international standards.

2. International Sources of Occupational Health and Safety

1. The first international agreement one should note is United Nations’ International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights. Article 7 of the Covenant requires States to create safe and healthy working conditions. The
States are also under the obligation to recognize the right of everyone to the enjoyment of the highest attainable standard of physical and mental health (Article 12).

One major international agreement that can be accepted as the source of occupational health and safety is European Social Charter. Turkey signed the Charter in 1961 and ratified in 1989. There are four specific articles on the right to health in Charter. Part 1.3 is directly related to worker’s right (“All workers have the right to safe and healthy working conditions”) whereas Part 1.11 is about general right to health. “Everyone has the right to benefit from any measures enabling him to enjoy the highest possible standard of health attainable”. Article 3 of the Part 2 is specifically related to the right to safe and healthy working conditions. It states that;

“With a view to ensuring the effective exercise of the right to safe and healthy working conditions, the Parties undertake, in consultation with employers’ and workers’ organizations:

2. to formulate, implement and periodically review a coherent national policy on occupational safety, occupational health and the working environment. The primary aim of this policy shall be to improve occupational safety and health and to prevent accidents and injury to health arising out of, linked with or occurring in the course of work, particularly by minimizing the causes of hazards inherent in the working environment;

3. to issue safety and health regulations;

4. to provide for the enforcement of such regulations by measures of supervision;

5. to promote the progressive development of occupational health services for all workers with essentially preventive and advisory functions.”

And last, the title of the Article 11 of Part 2 is “The right to protection of health” which obliges the State to take appropriate measures for ensuring the effective exercise of the right to protection of health.

Beside the European Social Charter that has been acted internationally, another important agreement that is about the radiation safety is the Radiation Protection Convention of International Labor Organization (ILO) (No. 115) that has been accepted in 1960 (Oğuz, 2011). Turkey has ratified the convention in 1968. The member states of the Convention undertake to take effective protection measures for the protection of workers against ionizing radiations (Alpar, 2003). The Convention brings regulations on protection methods, but instead of establishing strict rules about their applications, it chooses to let the implementation process flexible enough for the States’ own choices. The main rule about the regulations to be prepared by the members is set out in Article 5. Accordingly, “Every effort shall be made to restrict the exposure of workers to ionising radiations to the lowest practicable level, and any unnecessary exposure shall be avoided by all parties concerned”.

Following this article, the minimum level of methods about the precautions that is needed to be taken has set forth. For instance, the regulation made in article 6 requires members to fix maximum permissible doses of ionizing radiations which may be received from sources and maximum permissible amounts of radioactive substances which can be taken. Such maximum permissible doses and amounts shall be kept under constant review accordingly. The article 7 prohibits the employment of workers under 16 years old in the industry and requires the members to set maximum doses of exposure separately for workers who are 18 years old and older and under the 18 years old. Apart from that, appropriate levels shall be fixed for workers who are not directly engaged in radiation work, but who remain or pass where they may be exposed to ionizing radiations or radioactive substances according to the article 8. Article 9 is about the information right of the workers about the presence of hazards from ionizing radiations. The necessary measures and monitoring should be established and carried out in order to understand the real exposure levels of workers to ionizing radiations and radioactive substances (article 11). Article 12 has set out the medical examination obligation for workers who will be employed in such works. So, the member States are under the obligation to take such precautions, they will prepare the necessary internal regulations but will be free to determine their content.

The same year with the Convention, ILO has also accepted the Radiation Protection Recommendation. As it will be understood from the name, this is not a bounding statute. The Recommendation asks the States to fix the appropriate level of exposure stated in the Convention with due regard to the relevant values recommended from time to time by the International Commission on Radiological Protection; the employer to appoint a competent person to deal on behalf of the undertaking with questions of protection against ionizing radiations; that the methods of collective protection, both physical and operational, should be given priority in ensuring effective protection and personal protection should be applied where collective protection is not possible; that all protective devices, appliances and apparatus should be so designed or modified as to fulfill their intended purpose; that all emergency plans should be made in advance, etc.
One should note that, though, there are other ILO regulations made about occupational health and safety, this study limits the analysis towards their effect on radiation legislation on countries. Therefore, such other regulations made by ILO as well as other international organizations would not be mentioned hereunder.

3. National Sources of Occupational Health and Safety and Protection Against Radiation

3.1 The General Sources of Occupational Health and Safety

The right to health is regulated under three different articles of the Constitution of the Republic of Turkey. Article 56 of the Constitution states that “everyone has the right to live in a healthy, balanced environment”. This also includes working environment (Gerek, 2006). Accordingly, article 50 regulates that “No one shall be required to perform work unsuited to his age, sex, and capacity. Minors, women and persons with physical or mental disabilities, shall enjoy special protection with regard to working conditions”. And last, it is the duty of the “State to take the necessary measures to raise the standard of living of workers, and to protect workers...” (Article 49).

This is the major regulation in Turkey that obliges the State to take preventive steps and build the standards towards protection against any risk including the radiation. The country’s such obligation also arises from its occupational health and safety duty. The current Code of Obligation no. 818 of Turkey requires the employers to take necessary precautionary steps against any dangers the workers might confront during their employment (art. 332) (Centel, 2005). The new Turkish Code of Obligation no. 6098 that will be put into effect starting from July 1, 2012 includes a similar article (art. 417).

Chapter 5 of the Labor Act No. 4857 is on occupational health and safety (Mollamahmutoğlu, 2008). With a view to ensure occupational health and safety in their establishments, employers shall take all the necessary measures and maintain all the needed means and tools in full, and employees are under the obligation to obey and observe all the measures taken in the field of occupational health and safety (Güler, 2011).

In order to ensure compliance with and supervision of the measures taken for occupational health and work safety at the establishment, the employer must inform the employees of the occupational risks and measures that must be taken against them as well as employees’ legal rights and obligations and, in this connection, he must provide the employees with the necessary training on occupational health and safety (art. 77). The Ministry of Labour and Social Security, after taking the opinion of the Ministry of Health, shall issue bylaws and regulations, with a view to ensure the adoption of occupational health and safety measures in the establishments (art. 78). Such regulation exists in Turkey (Occupational Health and Safety Regulation). The first two parts of the regulation is about the general requirements that should be applied in every industry and business (Süzek, 2006). The third part however regulates specific requirements taking into account the risk factors. Chapter 5 of the third part is about the special precautions to be taken against occupational disease that can arise from physical and mechanical reasons. Article 83 of the bylaw states the measures to be taken on works done by natural and artificial radioactive and ionizing radiation materials or other sources of corpuscular emanation are:

- Minimum harmful doses of the radioactive material shall be used;
- A reasonable distance between the workers and the source should be provided;
- The work shall be set out so that the workers shall stay close to the source as little as possible;
- A cover shall be placed between the source and the workers. This screen shall be made from lead/concrete for gama and X rays and from plastics and similar materials for beta rays and neutrons.
- The amount of radiation received by each worker shall be measured by special gadgets and analysed at least once a month. If the amount of the radiation received by any worker exceeds the allowed doses, the worker shall be removed from its duty;
- A suitable aspiration system shall be set up. The air that has been emptied shall be filtered from radiation and special masks shall be used during the cleaning process. A special attention shall be paid to the cleanliness of the workplace and the workers. Radiactive waste shall be eliminated accordingly.
- Mobile radioactive materials shall be put in suitable and special boxes.
- The workers who will be employed for such a risky business shall be passed from medical examination prior to their employment and periodically. The nerve, blood and blood-forming systems of the workers shall especially monitored and those who have disorders related to blood disease shall not be employed.
Apart from this Regulation, the Ministry has also enacted Bylaw of Heavy and Dangerous Works in which the radiological works and works done by all kinds of radium and radioactive materials and radiation-emitting device are accepted as heavy and dangerous works. This bylaw, however, does not contain any special provision about the occupational health and safety of the workers who are employed in such works. Any worker under the age of 16 is forbidden to be employed in heavy and dangerous works according to article 4 of the bylaw. Moreover, young workers who are less than 18 years old but older than 16 are also banned to be employed in works that expose radiation and/or include radioactive materials. One might wonder if there exists any special prohibition for female workers. The only regulation made in bylaw about female workers is their right of leave for 5 days during their menstruation. The bylaw also requires the periodical and prior-employment medical examinations of the workers and forbids the employment of any worker who does not have such a medical examination report. One may wonder the sanction of not obeying such restriction. The Labor Act no. 4857 sets forth administrative fine for that one. The amount of the fine for the violation of the regulation that prohibits the employment of a worker under the age of 16 is 1.358 Turkish Lira (TRY) / worker (about 570 Euro), and the amount of the fine is 270 TRY / worker (about 113 Euro) for the violation of the rule that requires the medical examination.

3.2 The Special Legislation of OHS Related to Radiation

These are, so far, the general regulations made on occupational health and safety in Turkey that is related to radioactive works. Apart from them, Turkish Atomic Energy Authority (TAEA) that is established in 1982 by the law no. 2690 is given a special power to make regulations on subject. Article 4 of the said law emphasizes, among the duties and powers of the Authority, the determination of the limits of the principles and measures and legal responsibility that provide protection against the harms of the ionizing radiation which can be arisen from radiation equipment, radioactive materials and the use of similar ionizing radiation sources. Taking its power from this main act, the Authority has enacted some legal arrangements which also include norms about occupational health and safety.

The first arrangement this study will mention, according to the hierarchy of norms, is Radiation Safety Regulation of 1985. The first article of the Regulation drove its scope. Accordingly, the rules that should be applied by public and private institutions, organizations and as well as persons who use, manufacture, import and export, sell, carry and store ionizing radiation sources shall be set forth by the Regulation. Nuclear energy plants are obviously among them. The Regulation, for instance, precise that the protection unit used in biologically equivalent dose of radiation is Rem (art. 2). The radiation fields are divided to two. Radiation field A is the field in which the workers shall be exposed to radiation and yearly radiation level may pass three tenth of the dose equivalent limits; whereas, radiation field B is the field where the yearly radiation level shall stay under that rate. A special Radiation Health and Safety Authority is established by the Regulation. Determination and enforcement of radiation safety principles, legislation, standards and measures; and, taking necessary measures in order to protect the workers who work with the sources of radiation and the community are among the duties of this Authority.

After these general arrangements, Regulation sets forth the basic standards for the radiation levels. So that,

- Annual dose, a person who works with the radiation sources or who are exposed to radiation according to his duty, shall not exceed 5 Rem;
- Annual dose of all remaining persons shall not exceed 0,5 Rem.

The Regulation, in harmony with the Heavy and Dangerous Works Regulation prohibits the employment of workers who are less than 18 years old. Though the occupational health and safety rules of the Regulation are limited to those of the previous paragraphs, this study wants to underline the article about sanctions. It is important to note that the sanction will also be applied to situations like not obeying to the precised maximum radiation doses level and employing workers under the age of 18. According to article 13, with the title “cancellation of license”, a report shall be issued once a non-compliance with licensing conditions and/or radiation safety legislation is identified by experts during regular audits. This report shall be evaluated by Radiation Health and Safety Office. If the issues identified in the report are accepted by the Office, a period of time shall be given to the licensee to remedy the shortcomings during which the license would be temporarily canceled. If the problems stated in the report are solved during this time, the temporary cancelation decision shall be removed. The aforementioned license is the one that is compulsory to possess, use, manufacture, import and export, purchase, sale, transport, store and/or work with any radiation sources.

Another legal arrangement made by TAEA is Radiation Safety Bylaw of 2000. It is seen in the bylaw that the amount of the exposure dose to radiation is set forth in detail and according to international standards. For instance, according to article 10, consecutive five year’s average of effective radiation dose for radiation workers shall not exceed 20 mSv (millisievert), and it shall not be more than 50 mSv for any year. This standard is the same with that of International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA). Unfortunately, the scope of the Bylaw was changed in 2010 and nuclear plants, nuclear
fuels, nuclear substances and activities related to radioactive waste from nuclear facilities were put out of the application of the bylaw. The reason for such change is unknown up to date. It can be concluded that such international standard in now inapplicable for nuclear plants’ workers, so there exists an emptiness in law.

Besides these legal arrangements, TAEA’s legislation towards radioactive activities and nuclear plants is abundant and detailed. One of them, Regulations on Licensing of Nuclear Facilities should be mentioned here alongside with the Directive on the Principles for Nuclear Power Plants licensed. Though, there is no specific article on occupational health and safety in the regulation, the Article 6 of the Directive makes an indirect reference, stating that, apart from the legislation of Republic of Turkey, “The Basics” and “Requirements” categories for the IAEA’s Safety Standards should also be met for licensing. It means that the employers, prior to their licensing should certificate that they took necessary precautions including those of occupational health and safety. There is no specific sanction enacted by this Directive. It is obvious that if the unconformity happens prior any licensing, the Authority should not issue a license for the company. It is not clear, though, what will happen if the unconformity arises later. The Regulation, on the other hand, states that if there exists an unconformity with the legislation, the license shall be temporarily or permanently canceled.

This raises a question in law. Is the administration’s decision on cancellation of the license because of the employer’s (company’s) incompliance with the standards set forth in “The Basics” and “Requirements” categories of the IAEA’s Safety Standards a legally valid action?

To answer this question, we should first answer two separate questions. The first one is: Can “The Basics” and “Requirements” categories of the IAEA’s Safety Standards be accepted as a part of legislation? The term “legislation” is not legally defined. In its simplest form, the legislation is defined as the law which has been promulgated. In Turkey, the legislation is accepted as the whole of the laws, statutes, regulations, etc. that is in force in a country (TDK, 2012). So in both type of the definition, one might point out that enactment is a necessary condition for legal arrangements to be accepted as legislation. IAEA is an independent international organization related to the United Nations system. The standards created or accepted by this organization will not be accepted as enacted legal arrangements in a country. Therefore, it is not possible to accept these standards as legislation.

The second question to answer is: Does the Administration, by referring, not to some international legal norms, but to some norms created by international organization can make them a part of local legislation? The answer will not be changed if the referred rules would be international legal rules. The Constitution of the Republic of Turkey, with its article 90, states which and how the international agreements would be ratified (Türmen, 2000). It can be inferred that only treaties and international agreement may be the subject of any ratification procedure. That means the standards of an independent organization cannot be ratified and bear the force of law.

The answers of these two questions actually provide the answer of the main question. The application of “The Basics” and “Requirements” categories of the IAEA’s Safety Standards by any Administration of Turkey, including TAEA, and the sanctions that shall be applied to companies because of their incompliance to said rules would be legally invalid. Obviously, this comment is not only valid about occupational health and safety rules but all other safety issue as well.

4. Conclusion

The occupational health and safety regulations in Turkey are limited to those of this study mentioned in previous paragraphs. The Turkish Atomic Energy Authority is established as the main Administrative organ with the duty of determination of the limits of the principles and measures and legal responsibility that provide protection against the harms of the ionizing radiation which can arise from radiation equipment, radioactive materials and the use of similar ionizing radiation sources. Taking its power from this main act, the Authority has enacted some legal arrangements which also include norms about occupational health and safety. A big part of the standards set forth by TAEA about the occupational health and safety are created by a reference given to “The Basics” and “Requirements” categories of the IAEA’s Safety Standards in regulations. Unfortunately, due to reason explained above, the standards set by IAEA on this issue would not be applied in the country. Therefore, this study concludes that it exists emptiness about occupational health and safety of the workers who are/will be employed in nuclear facilities in Turkish legislation. There are some general rules that will be applied to broad industrial area, but specific legislation about nuclear power plants are missing. It should be also noted that the limitation of the scope of Radiation Safety Bylaw of 2000 in 2010 causes incompliance with international standards especially on the maximum exposure level.

This should not be understood as that this study finds the standards set by IAEA as bad ones or should not be applied by Turkey. Rather, the works done by IAEA is, probably, the most effective ones made globally. This study suggests the application of the same standards by Turkey. But, doing that, the flaws in the legislation procedure that will create legal
emptiness should be avoided. The standards set forth by IAEA should be transformed to national legal rules in accordance with the procedure of the Turkish Constitution.

References


The Implementation of International Legal Standards in the Investment Legislation of Uzbekistan

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Abstract: This research seeks to identify distinctive inhibitions in the implementation of international legal standards in international laws of Uzbekistan. This study is necessitated by the continued disparity between implementation of international commerce laws and their dismal efficiency in draw foreign investment. Despite the country's effort towards enforcement of international trade laws, there is persistent low FDI in the country compared to other central Asia countries. This is happening despite the central placing of Uzbekistan in the region, the superior human resource base, compared to its neighbors, and the expansive indigenous resources in the country. This highlights the need to identify the cause of these inhibitive phenomena. In sight of decreasing GDP and the global continued pressure on fossil energy, more investment in oil the nation is a priority. Western investors are not eager to invest in the country, while trade volumes with china are low. This study focuses on relationship between Uzbekistan and PRC. A proposed cause of this problem was the disproportion between the domestic laws in both countries. The researcher evaluates the possibility of the differences in the source and nature of domestic laws in both countries as being an inhibitor in the development of effective international investment law that meet international standards, and are efficient in attracting FDI. The research employs comparative law research methodology. This involves the evaluation of the two legal systems, and identifying disparities in local laws that could be detrimental to effective implementation of international law

Keywords: International investment law; a principle of a freedom in choosing the investor of object of investments, a principle of independent realisation by the investor of the activity, a principle of protection of the rights and legitimate interests of investors, a principle of mutual benefit of investments.

Introduction

Since autonomy in 1991, Uzbekistan has significantly transformed, departing from a centrally-planned to a market financial system. Due to its recognition of the fact that foreign direct investment (FDI) contributes to economic growth and fastens the change to a market-based economy, the country has increasingly welcomed foreign investors. The FDI is hoped to increase the cross-national competitiveness of the country's industrial sector, increase job opportunities and develop the SME sector.

According to a 1999 UN report, Uzbekistan has internal strengths as an investment destination, but at that time, it showed investment policy weaknesses leading to investment levels below the potential of the country. The report opined that the country had both opportunity and risk. The opportunity is presented in taking gain on the country’s numerous resources. The danger is in the risk of stagnating and fall behind other competitors in attracting FDI.

The foreign investment law in Uzbekistan is noninterventionist. It receives foreign investments, and legally, numerous businesses are open to FDI (Gurgen 33). There an almost equal treatment of foreign and national investors. Through the establishment of a legal framework, the country has managed to provide rights and assurance to cross-border investors preventing disputes which plague other nation’s investment atmosphere. Among such measures are taxation incentives. There has been a deliberate move towards a conversion policy of economic restructuring that has avoided privatization of state institutions. The approach of the country towards the market system is acclaimed as hesitant. This is supported by the administration’s incursion in foreign exchange and trade management. It is also evident in the country’s negotiations of trade terms with foreign investors.

Though liberal foreign laws exist, investors find it hard and exacting while trying to establish tolerable trade terms with government institutions. This results in incongruence and non-transparency in outcomes. Investors opine that more synchronization of government institutions would be a remedy, but critically, there is need for radical overhaul and re-invigoration of industry investment policy (Gurgen 34-36). These policies would serve to provide a basis for unity and a direction to favorable terms and opportunities availed to investors.
Among the CSI countries, Uzbekistan is acknowledged as the most advanced in terms of IIAs. However, it continues trailing other countries in attracting investors. Though these rules are present, their effectiveness depends on the quality and applicability of the same. In times of arbitration, oversight bodies such as UNCITRAL, only apply the rules the parties concur as prevailing the disputed issue. This was reiterated in the case of Romak vs. Uzbekistan (PCA 1999). The presiding arbitrators noted that according article 33 of the UNCITRAL rules, the arbitrator is required to use only the law identified by the disputing parties as the one applicable to the dispute in question.

The above conditions underscore the importance of IIAs conformity to international standards. In order to attract investors, the IIAs should meet international legal standards. The international investment law in Uzbekistan is a combination of customary law, legislations and presidential decrees. The later are common phenomena in developing grappling with the structure and form of their democracy. Evidently, these laws are somewhat inefficient in advancing cross-border commerce.

Analysts cite them as being state-supervised and managed by regime members. Though it is an advantage in times of economic crisis, the country’s economy is detached from the world market. Perceived informal actions and legal restrictions are accused of averting foreign trade freedom. The government continues to practice harsh payment, transactions, funds transfer and repatriation of profits control. Monetary institutions are mainly state-owned. This results in the absence of a capital market. Due to lack of proper regulations, the actions of these institutions often interfere with the operations of financial intermediaries and commerce forecast. After the USSR break-up, most CSI countries suffered a reduction in their GDP in the following years. The government’s attempts were directed in curbing this decline.

International investment law and international economic relations

International investment agreements (IIA), refer to treaties prepared between countries, and attend to relevant international investments. The purpose of such pacts is the defense, advocacy and liberalization of investments across borders. Commonly these agreements in-cooperate direct (FDI) foreign investment and portfolio investment. These agreements bind the host country to treat foreign investment in an agreed way. Additionally, they include the directions of resolution of disputes arising between the host country and the investors, and the consequences thereof. There are several forms of IIAs: bilateral investment treaties (BITs), preferential trade and investment agreements (PTIAs), international trade agreements and double taxation treaties (DTTs). BITs cover agreements between one country and its investment partner, often I areas regarding admittance and security of investment. PTIAs cover significantly larger areas and include more details, and cover a wider range of issues. These agreements have become more indispensible as regards international investment. UNCTAD reports that each country has signed an IIA. This has resulted in a web like relation in the IIAs, which the UNCTAD refers to as the spaghetti bowl. International investment law is hooked on several principles. Key among them being the definition of investor. This definition sets the margins of the application of rights and commitments of investment accords. Investors are categorized into two; natural and legal persons. For natural individuals, accords are based on the national law. This may sometime require proof of residence in the country. Various hurdles accompany this division, major among them, determination of the nationality of companies in modern operational settings. This is mostly overcome by including the criteria for determining nationals in the agreement.

International investment accords, are often, proposed by the investors’ country. This seeks to ensure that the multinationals feel confident. Multinationals also act as pressure groups to ensure restructuring is done to favor their operation. This is achieved through treaties and to ensure profit protection and repatriation. Issues relating to foreign investment give rise to pertinent concerns about sovereignty, utilization of natural resources and national economic laws. Developed nations seek to solve these issues through investment accords. Developing nations counter this attempt through the NIEO. This aims at establishing national control over all foreign investment.

In increasing volumes of global trade and investment, and due to the mounting complexity of the nature of such interactions, treaties have become basic requirements. Parties agree to such accords to protect their interests and to provide avenues for the resolution of any arising concerns. To investors, this is often viewed as goodwill of the host country, and is often used to gauge the appropriateness of a country as an investment destination.

Research Problem

The need for special investment legislation in Uzbekistan

Uzbekistan is the most densely inhabited in the central Asia region. Additionally, it has a vast resource base. These include estimated 5.5 billion toe of oil, about 1.5 toe of natural gas and 1.7 toe of natural gas. Uzbekistan ranks among
the top manufacturer of natural gas in the world. In recent years the external income from natural gas has overtaken cotton which has been the major exchange earner since USSR. In 2009, earnings from natural gas increased from 21 percent to 34.2 percent in the preceding year. The country, however, is a net importer of oil. Additionally it is a net importer of hydrocarbons.

This phenomenon increases the prospects of investors flowing into Uzbekistan in present and future years. The exploitation of these resources is inevitable. In the sight of receding oil reserves in other countries, there will be an increased need for oil and the country will be an option for investors in the energy industry. Since its 1991 independence, the Uzbekistan authorities have sought to propagate soviet-style control of economy. This consisted of subsidies and strict control of production and prices. This has been heightened by government measures that increase government control of trade rather than the reduction of the same. This in return, provides an opportunity and a risk concurrently. The risk is in the country being bypassed as an investment destination due to unfavorable trade climate, and the opportunity is in the investment prospects provided by the natural and human resources in the country. The government has in various occasions been pressured into international commerce accords. For example, in 2003, the government agreed to article VIII requirements instigated by IMF. This concerns itself with full currency convertibility. Despite their implementation, their effect is still minimal due to strict currency control and border restrictions.

There are prospects of improved economic growth from investments from Russia, Europe and China. This is most likely in the gas and oil sector. However, without international commerce agreements, this growth may not be realized. The economic climate is majorly considered unsafe despite the liberal trade laws (Rumer, Trenin & Zhao 174). The perceived massacre of peaceful demonstrators has worsened relations with numerous countries, especially, in the west. The 2005 response to peaceful demonstrations in Andijan has been condemned as a human right violation. Consequently, this has drawn lots of criticism from western countries. This has resulted in a perceived inclination towards trade with China and Russia. Initially, when China opened its market to investors, the outflow of investors to other countries was less than the influx. However, due to increasing energy needs in China, which has come to rely increasingly on imports, there are an increasing number of Chinese investments in other countries(Rumer, Trenin & Zhao 176). These are numerous in countries rich in energy resources in Africa and Asia, among them, Uzbekistan. An observed trend in China's economic relations with other nations has been the signing of trade treaties. China has increasingly relied on the signing of international commerce treaties to safeguard its investment internationally. This means that without these treaties Uzbekistan may be bypassed by the opportunity, and instead, experience the risk in the dichotomies explained earlier.

Role of bilateral (China and Uzbekistan) agreements of Uzbekistan is in the legal adjusting of foreign investments

Since 1991, Uzbekistan has maintained positive relationship with China. This relationship has continued to grow, and with it an increasing number of BITs. In 2010, the trade volume between China and Uzbekistan reached US dollar 2.48 billion, with an accompanying FDI of 1.65 billion. The volume of this trade is expected to reach $ 5 billion by 2015. The range of these agreements includes energy, commerce, FDI, transport and communications among others. However, according to Medeiros (137), the current upgrade in BITs and other trade accords is hypocritical; having ignored the CSI countries in early 1990s. In 2005, there was a high profile delegation from Uzbekistan to China. This involved the president. During this time, the two countries agreed to a treaty meant to promote comradeship cooperative partnership. This was the first treaty the two countries had signed since 1992. During this trip, the presidents also signed a $ 600 million accord for China to help Uzbekistan in the improvement of oil fields. It would be an injustice to consider these activities without the surrounding political climate of the time in Uzbekistan. This was only two weeks after the violent response to peaceful demonstrations in Andijan. During the time the country’s leadership was experiencing criticism form the US and EU, China offered fiscal opportunities. These attempts by China to improve trade relationships with Uzbekistan have largely bore fruits. China has mainly concentrated in leveraging positive political relationship as the basis for further economic collaboration. China’s bilateral and multilateral agreements in central Asia countries show an increasing interest in the region. The focus on spending is on infrastructure, accessing resources, political manipulation, and supporting martial programs against terrorism. Apparently, the target is to gain a regional role that assures China of access to the markets it needs. This is amidst concerns about US and Russia, and their roles in the region.

Early findings

Examining the general issues of implementation norms of international law in the domestic sphere of Uzbekistan.
Uzbekistan has numerous favorable factors that make it easy to form treaties with China. Among these factors is the lack of a common boundary. This eliminates the probability of boundary disputes between China and Uzbekistan. This was also the reason cited for its refusal to join the Shanghai five prior to 2001. However, there has been various issues that make the implementation of the much needed international laws to be an arduous task.

One of the obvious reasons for the hardships encountered in the implementation of international law is the differences in domestic laws. Uzbekistan has traditionally adopted laws inclined towards state control of major facets of trade. This includes price control, funding and repatriation of profits. Internally, there have been policies that have sought to control the cost of production and pricing. This has shielded the economy from experiencing fully the market forces. This means predicting business trends become awfully hard. These regulations also lead to the absence of a capital market. All this factors inhibit the implementation of international laws. The implemented laws may not meet legal standards of international investment laws.

Another difference between Uzbekistan and China, with possible effects on the implementations of such laws, is the government control of banks (Luo 404-407). Most monetary institutions are state-run. These institutions are mainly not exposed to market forces. Their modes of operation may be quite different from banks in China and other countries. This in turn results in complex monetary procedures in accessing funds and repatriation of profits.

For example, whereas in Uzbekistan currency convertibility was as a result of coercion from international bodies in 2003, China has strong regulations concerning currency issues. In 2008, China restructured its policies regarding foreign exchange. Among the changes was the removal of repatriation requirement on all companies working outside China and the compulsory selling of foreign currency to domestic banks imposed on domestic firms. Generally, these reforms leaned towards giving freedom to monetary institutions to be more responsive to international market forces. The Uzbekistan policies on such issues take a contradictory approach. They are inclined towards government control of monetary institutions. This was even tightened during the world economic crisis.

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A SWOT Analysis of the Greek Health System

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Abstract: This paper intents to make a SWOT analysis of the Greek health care system. SWOT analysis is a key component in the strategic planning of the Greek health system. Scope of this analysis is to evaluate the impact of internal and external factors on the Greek health care system. Internal processes and recourses are considered strengths and weaknesses and external factors are considered opportunities and threats. By using this analysis we will evaluate the current status of the Greek NHS (national healthcare system) and we will identify future prospects.

Keywords: SWOT analysis, Greek health care system, internal processes and resources and external factors and strategic planning.

1. Introduction

Human resource management (HRM, or simply HR) is the management of an organization's workforce, or human resources. HRM has a crucial role in the operation and development of an organization. Development and implementation of specific strategies in the field of human resources is an act of managerial responsibility in the health system in Greece. (Saltman RB, Ferrousier-Davis O, 2000 & Goulas A, 2007).

SWOT analysis is a technique that reveals the most important organization strengths (Strengths), weaknesses (Weaknesses), opportunities (Opportunities) and threats (Threats), in this case the specific operation of the health care system in Greece. (Goulas A, 2007)

In our case, the orientation of this analysis is mostly predicting. The SWOT analysis reviews the external and internal environment of the health system in Greece.

2. Research methodology

The Greek and international bibliography has been reviewed, and in particular papers on the SWOT analysis of health systems published during the last ten years via PubMed and Science Direct. The keywords that were used are: SWOT analysis, Greek health care system, internal processes and resources and external factors and strategic planning.

3. SWOT Analysis

Results obtained

SWOT analysis of the health system in Greece highlights the following aspects of general scope:

- Strengths:

  1) At the level of five functions of management:

    a) planning:
    - The necessity of passing through the planning stage in the health system is important, even if the recognition reasons vary;
    - The planning stage is very important;
    - Development of predictable directions of development of health system;
    - There are regular planning activities in each department;
    - There are generally known forms that must occur planning activity - vision, goals, actions, responsibilities;

    b) Organization
    - clear structuring of the work processes on components, their grouping on places and sub-ordinating institutions, establishing of certain managing, economical and technical criteria;
- in general internal relations are well defined;
- instructions and procedures are well established and respected

c) coordination
- in general planning results are correlated with results of work;
- the tasks assignment follows the hierarchic line;

d) Training (Moilaren, R., 2005)
- own organizational culture allows considering the state as an internal factor of motivation;
- the negative motivation system is well defined by law and known by the competent persons that apply it

e) Control
- there is requirement to reporting (periodically as events or as the case);

2) At the subsystem level

a) methodological subsystem:
- a variety of methods and specific techniques are applied: a simplified form of management by objectives and the dashboard, managing the budgets, simplified methods of techniques to stimulate creativity, forms of delegation, meeting, etc..
- the need for training on the specific areas is recognized;

b) Organizational subsystem (Moilaren, R., 2005):
- Organizational structure is fixed, being determined by law;
- Relationships and responsibilities of each hierarchical level are established by law;
- There are job descriptions for staff of the institution, their structure meet current standards;
- The structure of the informal organization is molded on the formal organization, allowing an improved communication, on vertical, as well as on horizontal;

c) The decision making system (Pemberton, J & Stonehouse, G, 2000)
- decision-making procedures are well established and known;
- the criteria used in decision making are set by regulations;

d) The information subsystem
- hospitals are equipped with computers connected to the Internet;
- hospital staff has the necessary skills to effectively use these resources;
- internal communication respects the hierarchical structure;
- relations with the external environment of the hospitals are established by legislative measures;
- communication system operates both through formal channels and the informal, the results are satisfactory.

Identified weaknesses in the health system:

1) At the level of five functions of management:

a) Planning (Moilaren, R., 2005)
- time for the development of medium and long term strategies is extremely low;
- deadlines are generally very limited, activities are especially focused on the results rather than process;
- Lack of viable strategies for medium and long term de-concentration of public services programs.
- Lack of collaboration with other local authorities
- Limited financial resources and exclusive dependence on allocations from the national budget;

b) Organization
- Resources are inadequate related to current needs;
- Procedures and standards are mostly bureaucratic type, characterized by an extended circuit information,
which affects the time required for decision making;

c) Coordination
- in many cases recruitment and selection process is only formal, more jobs are filled before launching the necessary formalities;
- in terms of staff training there is no concrete training plan based on actual training needs;
- excessive fragmentation of activities leads to inability to establish a unique widely accepted final result;

d) Training
- low importance given to this function of management;
- lack of a monitoring system of the degree of motivation which permits identification of grievances and improvement of the existing situation by integrating the positive and reducing negative ones (Pemberton, J & Stonehouse, G, 2000);

e) Control-evaluation
- the share of control activities is much higher than the evaluation;
- lack of monitoring activity in the evaluation process;
- There are no performance evaluation criteria;

1) At the subsystem level

a) Methodological subsystem (Moilaren R, 2005)
- the need for training in specific areas is constrained by lack of resources that allows only a little coverage of training needs;
- The legislative is complex, complicated, poorly harmonized and creates problems in consistent application and interpretation;

b) The organizational subsystem (Moilaren R, 2005 & Bourandas, D and Papadakis, V., 1996)
- definition of blurred objects affects the whole decisional system;
- Excessive use of informal communication channels generates obvious failure;
- lack of adequate space and facilities for the smooth running of the activities of services of the health system;
- Administrative capacity is different from administrative-territorial units with a negative impact on quality of services provided to citizens;
- slow rate in the implementation of quality management;

c) The decision making system
- failure to establish responsibilities and criteria for assessing the performance of the healthcare system;
- bureaucratic procedures increase the cost of health system management;
- the transmission of information is affected by a lack of a coherent information System;
- creation of an ethical decision making system that would eliminate inequities between different types of decisions

d) Informational system
- equipment with computers and Internet access are not commensurate with the needs (qualitative and quantitative);
- lack of strategies in the acquisition of IT technologies;
- information flows and circuits are affected by external systems;
- management of public funds is centralized and rigid.

In this current analysis we carried on, looking in more detail at human resources, we evaluated in detail the main activities of human resource management in the health system in Greece, as follows (Bourandas, D and Papadakis, V., 1996):

- human resource planning;
- job analysis;
recruitment and selection;
individual performance appraisal;
initial and continuing education;
assessment of the costs of human resources management activities;
computerized data management of staff;
motivation;

Also reviewed, with a lower level of detail however, and other matters of interest, such as:
- Job evaluation;
- Labor relations;
- Status management and disciplinary practices;
- Promotion of personnel;
- Organization structures;

By the integration of all conclusions obtained for the above mentioned activities from the performed analysis, resulted the picture of the most important elements, with generalizing values, as follows:

Opportunities

- significant growth of importance in the field of the human resources management in the health system in Greece, by placing the personnel in the position of essential value of the organization;
- the presence of the normative frame of high level, which permit the development of the carriers of the personnel of different categories, in the health system of Greece;
- maintaining in society a high level of attractiveness for the professions in the health system of Greece;
- participation on international co-operation programs aimed to the sanitary field development;
- higher expectations of the society regarding the tasks fulfillment in the field of the public health services, by growing the quality of the personnel professional performance.

Threats

- budget restrictions and limitations;
- provisions of some normative laws which enforce the system development on some co-ordinates, sometimes atypical and which, also, contain heterogenic procedures;
- higher salary or earning conditions on the labor market, compared to those ensured in the health system in Greece, for certain specialties, generally, in deficit.

Strong points

- possibility of initiation by the institution of normative acts favorable to the development of the human resources;
- the existence, already, of internal regulations, well structured, which allow the significant growth, in quantity and quality, of the activities of human resources management;
- the existence of coherent conceptions for the development of the main fields of the human resources management;
- the professional training, generally adequate, of the institution personnel;
- the existence of a well structured system of the institutions for initial and continuous training of the personnel, which can be improved and modernized by well directed interventions;
- the operation of the Department specialized in Human Resources Management;
- the system for social protection, relatively developed, compared to the one other budget categories have access;
- the well established provisions regarding the disciplinary regime of the personnel.

Weak points

- the planning process of human resources has a low friability, especially on medium or long term;
- some procedures of human resources does not ensure publicity, transparence and non-discrimination, necessary as regards the management of the personnel carriers;
Based on this SWOT analysis, a reformation of human resource management is needed. The Change of the management (managerial change) is recommended by following some steps. Necessary steps that we should follow are:

1. The development of a new management system that would make a positive change in the health care system. At this step are outlined new goals and objectives in which the health care system must respond in the near future.

2. Implementation of the new management system which ensures sustainability of the health system. This step is important because the old system should harmonize with the changes that are required to perform. In this sense the current system must be prepared to allow implementation of changes. Interim measures are implemented to switch from the old system to new system. Next move to the effective implementation of the proposed measures can be done in stages or in a direct, sudden manner.

3. Assessment of the changes has the role of comparing the original estimates at the planning stage and the results of effective implementation of change; this step has the role of highlighting the deviations that occur between estimated and realized causes and trends. As a result of going through this step will establish a number of conclusions and recommendations for necessary actions that should be taken in the future. Future changes will have to remove irregularities and eventually causes that generate them.

Synthetic steps and mode of action on the implementation of change management to ensure the sustainability of the health system is represented in Figure no 1

![Figure no. 1 - Stages on the implementation of management changes. (Robinson R, 1993)](image-url)
As shown in figure no. 1, to ensure sustainability of the health system, managerial changes are permanent, and this is influenced by how rapidly the environment is involved. This environment influences the adoption of significant changes in a very short time by the following factors:

- Evolution in population growth, which entails the need for a developed and robust health care system;
- Evolution of the lifestyle in a direction that requires extensive research on the present and especially future health of the population served by the healthcare system;
- Dynamic economic environment with direct impact on the financial resources of central systems and thus on the health care system;
- The impact of technology and resource consumption on the environment by destroying the natural balance which entails a negative response to public health and thus will require new health system costs;
- The evolution of medical techniques, medical research and disease control that have direct impact on decisions for future action in the health system and which require attention and impose a state of continuous alert

4. Concluding remarks

In conclusion, we can say that changes in management in the Greek Health System are a necessity, a fact that guarantees the sustainability of the system. Adopting a conservative management and avoiding application of changes that forces the system to turn quickly to the needs of society does nothing more than to seriously affect long-term sustainability of the system.

In this sense management has the role of monitoring the environmental trends on the health care system and preparing adaptation measures and permanent change to the new system requirements.

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Trends in Internal Migration in Romania and Spain: How Different Are They?

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Abstract: Internal migration is important from two perspectives: first, which are its motivations and, secondly, which are its consequences on regional economic growth. Theoretically, between internal migration and economic growth there is a bidirectional relationship. The purpose of this paper is to make a comparative study Romania-Spain in order to establish the main differences between them and the reasons beyond differences. The choice for these two countries has its roots in the different timing of EU accession and in their socio-economic heterogeneity. The research method is a quantitative comparative analysis using national and county/provincial data which takes account of inter and intra-regional streams, the evolution of migration (both absolute and relative), the permanent or temporary existence of regional poles of attraction, the migration structure by sex and by age. Moreover, I will try to elucidate whether regional gaps in income and unemployment influence somewhat the decision to migrate using a dynamic econometric appraisal. The main results point out at a domination of intra-flows over inter-flows, an oscillatory evolution of migration, the existence of reduced poles of attraction and a higher willingness of younger people to migrate in both Romania and Spain. Instead, the two countries are different as regards the much higher propensity to migrate of Spanish residents. Also, women migrate more than men in Romania while the contrary happens in Spain; also, the difference between sexes is greater in Romania. The System GMM estimations reveal that in-migration rate exhibits state dependence and only GDP gaps motivate mobility in both countries.

Keywords: migration, comparative study, System GMM, Romania, Spain

1. Introduction

Romania and Spain, although quite different as regards their socio-economic development, may share some similarities in domestic migration patterns. This is the main purpose of this paper.

People and labor internal migration was and continues to be one of the most debated topics in economics. The implications of this phenomenon are not limited to the boundaries of the labor market, but go beyond and are also related to local convergence which can be favored and not. As a consequence, mobility is not “a priori” good and governments do not have to make policies in order to foment migration unless this returns useful outcomes. Migration is bidirectional in the sense that it is both a cause and an effect of socio-economic conditions and not only. In this article, my objectives are to make a deep assessment of the migration flows that have occurred in Romania and Spain during the last two decades and to elucidate if county or provincial disparities are important when deciding to migrate within national borders.

Data. The variables used in this study are the gross migration rate, the per capita income and the unemployment rate. The data sources are the Romanian and Spanish national institutes of statistics INS and INE. The periods under analysis throughout section 3 are 1990(4)-2010 for Romania and 1998-2010 for Spain (including some inter-census data) whilst in section 4 I use panel data covering the periods 1995-2008 for Romania and 1998-2008 for Spain.

Paper structure. This paper is structured as follows: section 2 makes a brief review of the existing literature on approaches, determinants and models of migration, section 3 is dedicated to an extensive comparative statistical analysis of migration flows covering inter- and intra-flows, rates and numbers of migrants and their territorial distribution, migration by sex and by age groups; section 4 makes an econometric analysis in order to establish whether income or unemployment gaps among counties/provinces influence the decision to migrate; finally, section 5 gives some insights on future work.

2. Literature Review on Approaches, Determinants and Models of Migration

Approaches. Migration modeling distinguishes between micro and macro approaches. The micro approach refers to the individual or household decision of staying in the current location or moving into a different one. After deciding to move, the next step is to choose between alternative destinations. Both stages are based on the axiom of utility maximization. The factors that influence these decisions comprise characteristics of: individuals (sex, age, education, marital status, etc.), families (size and structure) and/or origin and destination places (wage, (un)employment, house prices, amenities, etc.). Instead, the macro theory relates to aggregate migration flows and the relationship between
migration and objectively macroeconomic variables such as population sizes, unemployment, economic growth and environmental conditions rather than behavioral aspects of the migration decision (Stillwell & Congdon, 1991).

**Determinants.** Numerous empirical studies have tried to establish why people migrate but the answers are extremely varied. The starting point is the push-pull theory developed by Everett Lee (1966). According to this theory, there are only two types of factors that influence the decision to migrate. Push factors are those reasons for emigrating (or leaving a place) because of some difficulties such as not enough jobs, few opportunities, precarious conditions, poor social services, etc. Instead, the pull factors are those reasons that attract people to immigrate (or move into a place) because of something desirable.

Borjas (2008) considers the following factors: age, education, distance, unemployment and wage differentials. Instead, Van Gaag et al. (2003) make a distinction between selective influences (i.e. demographic factors) and determinants of migration. The former include mainly age and sex, whereas the latter can be classified in: gravity variables, economic variables, labor market variables, housing market variables, environment variables and policy variables. Next, Anjomani (2002) finds the following determinants: previous gross migration (as proxy for social networking or availability of information), distance (as proxy for the costs of moving), economic variables (incomes at origin and destination, (un)employment rates, regional income tax, manufacturing wage at destination), amenity variables (population density at destination, mean temperatures, welfare benefits at destination, crime rates), demographic variables (population size at destination, mean educational levels, median population age at destination). The list of studies investigating the determinants of migration is very comprehensive and will be extended in a future paperwork.

**Models.** The main models of migration are: the human capital or neoclassical theory model (developed by Sjaastad, 1962), the Harris-Todaro model (1970), the new economics of labor migration (Stark & Bloom, 1985), the job-matching or job-search theory (Gordon & Vickerman, 1982). The most applied in empirical studies is the gravity model of migration developed by Lowry (1966) and which belongs to the neoclassical approach.

### 3. Statistical Analysis of Internal Migration

#### 3.1. Inter-Flows versus Intra-Flows

**Romania 1994-2010.** During this whole period, *intra-county migration dominated inter-county migration*, with an average difference of 24 percentage points. Notably, from 2001 to 2005, intra-county flows strongly dominated inter-county flows; otherwise, the percentage distribution of the two types was quite the same (fig. 1 (a)).

**Spain 1998-2010.** For this period, the percentage distribution of inter- and intra-provincial migration in Spain was very constant, with averages of 60% in favor of intra-flows and 40% for inter-flows. Similarly to Romania, *intra-provincial migration surpassed inter-provincial migration*, with almost the same average distribution in time (fig. 1 (b)).

![Diagram showing the percentage distribution of inter- and intra-county/municipality migration in Romania and Spain](image)
3.2. Absolute and Relative Flows of Gross Migration

Romania 1990-2010. Internal migration (both numbers and rates) registered an oscillatory evolution with minimums of 240,231 migrants and 10.55‰ both in 1993 and maximums of 786,471 migrants and 33.88‰ both in 1990. As the chart below shows there were two sub-periods, 2001-2004 and 2006-2008, of constant increases. Overall, Romania recorded an annual average number of 333,207 migrants and a rate of 15‰ (fig. 2 (a)).

Spain 1960-2001 and 1998-2010. According to census data (1960-1970, 1971-1981, 1981-1991, 1991-2001), Spain witnessed constant falls in internal migration from one decade to another; if in 1960-1970 the migration rate had reached 82.5‰ in 1991-2001 fell at 33.02‰. Instead, according to the year-by-year data, one can observe that after a four-year period with relatively low levels, Spain was subject to a constant upward trend from 2002 to 2007, after which migratory flows decrease slightly and remained steady. On average for the interval 1998-2010, Spain registered an annual average number of migrants of 1,402,888 persons, i.e. an annual average rate of 32.11‰, with peaks in 1998 and bottoms in 2007 (fig. 2 (b)).

Therefore, internal migration in Spain more than doubled internal migration in Romania, i.e. Spanish people were much more mobile than Romanian people. If, for the period 1998-2010, in Spain migration rates were within the range [23.21-39.5‰], in Romania, for the same period, migration rates were within [10.89-21.39‰].
3.3. Territorial Distribution of Migration Rates

Romania 1990-2010. Dividing the whole period in four five-year sub-periods, I obtained an uneven distribution of positive and negative flows across the 42 Romanian counties. Thus, for 1990-1994, 30 counties turned negative and 11 positive; for 1995-1999, 23 turned negative and 18 positive; for 2000-2004, 25 turned negative while 17 positive; for 2005-2009, 28 turned negative whereas 14 positive; and, for the whole period 1990-2010, 31 negative and 11 positive.


Comparing the two countries, I can conclude that both Romania and Spain had different degrees of attractiveness/development within their own territory, with a relatively higher inequality in Romania.

3.4. Internal Migration by Sex

Romania 1990-2009. In the case of Romania, women migrated more than men, with a difference of 10 percentage points (55% women, 45% men) (fig. 3 (a)). Migration rates (national, men’s, and women’s) followed an oscillatory evolution with ups and downs. Moreover, in 1991, there was a sharp fall in migration rates from values higher than 33‰ to values around 11‰. According to figure 3 (b), on average, women’s rates (15.6‰) exceeded national rates (14.7‰) which, in turn, exceeded men’s rates (13.7‰).
Spain 1998-2010. Contrary to Romania, in Spain, **men were constantly more mobile than women** (51% - 49%) (fig. 4 (a)). As for the rates, one can observe a steady increase from 2002 to 2007. Men's rates (total average of 33.7‰) were higher than national rates (total average of 32.1‰) and women's rates (total average of 31‰) (fig. 4 (b)).
3.5. Internal Migration by Age Group

**Romania 1990-2009.** Analyzing internal migration by age, it turned out that migration is directly related to age, i.e. younger people migrate more than older people. Fig. 5, describing weights (a) and rates of each age bracket (b), shows that people aged 25-34 were the most eager to move, followed by those aged 15-24.

![Graph showing distribution of migration by age group for Romania (1990-2009)](source)

Source: Own elaboration based on INS data

**Spain 1998-2010.** The same affirmations hold for Spain, with some mentions: the difference between the age group 25-34 (32%) is now much higher compared to the following one (here 35-44 if we account for weights and 16-24 if we accounts for rates). See fig. 6.

In conclusion, the cases of Romania and Spain confirm the neoclassical theory of migration that the willingness to move decreases with age. Moreover, the distribution of migration by age takes an ∩-shaped form.

![Graph showing distribution of migration by age group for Spain (1998-2010)](source)

Source: Own elaboration based on INE data

**Figure 5.** Classification of migration by age group in Romania (distribution and rates)
4. What Motivate People to Migrate: Income or Unemployment Gaps?

In this section, I will study whether income gaps or unemployment rate gaps are important when making the decision to migrate. I will use a provincial (NUTS 3) framework and a dynamic panel data model. As one should know, Romania is divided into 42 counties including the capital Bucharest while Spain is split into 50 provinces. Both counties and provinces belong to the Eurostat NUTS 3 level of classification. I opt for this level as being the most disaggregated one for which data are available. The periods covered in the analysis are 1995-2008 for Romania and 1998-2008 for Spain.

My purpose is to find out whether the disparities across these territorial units have any influence on migrants. The variables employed are the in-migration rate, the GDP per capita and the unemployment rate, each by NUTS 3 unit and in logarithms. I prefer to use System GMM estimation because it is more appropriate with models asymptotic in N (N/T ratio is large) and can overcome the problem of weak instruments (Blundell & Bond, 1998). BB estimator estimates a system of two simultaneous equations, one in levels (with lagged first differences as instruments) and the other in first differences (with lagged levels as instruments). Therefore, the technique of estimation applied is Two-step System GMM with Windmeijer-corrected standard errors, small-sample adjustments, orthogonal deviations and collapsed instruments (Roodman, 2006).

This dynamic GMM technique distinguishes between endogenous, predetermined and strictly exogenous variables. The endogenous variable is correlated with past and present residuals, the predetermined variable is correlated only with past residuals while the strictly exogenous one is uncorrelated with both past or present errors. In the table below, in-migration rate is endogenous while lagged GDP and unemployment are predetermined. The model specification is correct since the AR terms confirm the existence is first-order correlation AR(1) but not of second-order serial correlation AR(2), whereas the Hansen test (with Difference-in-Hansen tests) returns p-values higher than 0.05. The (robust) Hansen test is based on the assumption that the residuals should be uncorrelated with the covariates if the instruments are truly exogenous (H0). Hence, I can trust that the models and overidentifying conditions are correctly specified, i.e. all instruments are exogenous.

I ought to mention that GDP and unemployment are not included in the same model because as Furceri (2006) and Etzo (2008) argue, when the two covariates (regressors) are included in the same model, both the signs and significance of coefficients are not robust to the inclusion of other variables. Additionally, I include time dummies to control for common shocks to all counties/provinces.

In consequence, the results showed that both Romania and Spain react to income gaps within national borders but neither reacts to unemployment gaps. Concretely, a 1% increase in previous GDP/capita level boosts current in-migration rate by 0.20% in Romania and by 0.39% in Spain. Thus, Spaniards reacted more to income gaps than Romanians. Moreover, both countries exhibited state dependence, i.e. the estimate of lagged dependent variable turns positive and significant, with a higher level for Spain. Following the inertia of the dependent variable, GDP/capita (and all other possible regressors) has also long-run effects on in-migration rate (Bastida et al., 2009). These can be obtained by dividing the short-run coefficient by (1-0.48) in the case of Romania and by (1-0.89) for Spain. Thus, I obtain long-run income coefficients of 0.38% (Romania) and 3.54% (Spain).
Table 1. System GMM estimations (two-step)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Regressant: in-migration rate</th>
<th>Romania</th>
<th>Spain</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lagged in-migration rate</td>
<td>0.48***</td>
<td>0.89***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lagged GDP/capita</td>
<td>0.20***</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lagged unemployment rate</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.042</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No. instruments</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Observations</td>
<td>544</td>
<td>500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F-statistic (14,41)</td>
<td>115.78***</td>
<td>785.87***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AR(1)</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AR(2)</td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td>0.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hansen test (p-value)</td>
<td>0.79</td>
<td>0.20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

NB: All regressions were carried out in STATA (9.2/SE version), *** Significant at 1% level, ** Significant at 5%

5. Future Research

Next, I intend to investigate more on the determinants of migration and, in this sense, to apply a suitable and comprehensive gravity model of migration. Moreover, I will perform a convergence analysis in order to see if migration is also a causal factor in the real economy, i.e. impacts on local convergence.

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Albania in the EU?
Constitutional Implications of the Doctrine of Supremacy of EU Law

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Abstract: The doctrine of the supremacy of Community Law as developed by the ECJ has been at the heart of juridical and doctrinal debates. One of the most acute issues for national courts in the European Union has been whether to accept EU law as the supreme law of the land, giving it primacy even when conflicting with national constitutional provisions. The judicial approach regarding this principle even in the new Member States from Central Eastern Europe has been varying. Therefore, we analyze the position of a potential Member State such as Albania, the role of its Constitution and Constitutional Court, regarding the doctrine of supremacy of EU law as developed by the ECJ. Many Albanian authors, according to the Kelsenian concept of the legal system as a pyramid, interpret Article 116 of the Albanian Constitution as creating a hierarchy between the sources of the law, by placing the Constitution in the first place. However, the Albanian Constitution was drafted to facilitate the Euro-Atlantic integration of the country and includes specific articles for the abovementioned integration. One of them - Article 122/3 relevant to the doctrine of supremacy of EU law - will be analysed to understand whether its language upholds the doctrine of supremacy of EU law. We will supplement such analysis with a general view of the constitutional provisions and Constitutional Court decisions, which address the problems of international law in the Albanian legal system. Such analysis is both important and timely since the pending ‘candidate status’ for Albania will both widen and deepen Albania’s relationship with the EU making the issue of the supremacy of EU law legally more pressing and socially and politically more pertinent.

1. Introduction

In December 1990 the communist regime in Albania, one of the most isolated regimes in Eastern Europe, fell. The democratic changes following it and the need to establish a new political and economical system dictated the need for constitutional changes. The first pluralist National Assembly chosen by free elections in 1991 was not able to draft a Constitution (Anastasi, 2008). Consequently, the political parties represented in the National Assembly agreed to approve some provisional constitutional provisions generally defining the organization of the state (Anastasi 2008). These provisions were approved by law No. 7491, date 29.04.1991 “On the Main Constitutional Provisions”. Since it was a provisional solution, this law had many gaps and it did not contain a catalogue of human rights.

After the rejection of the 1994 draft constitution in a popular referendum and the 1997 political and institutional crisis, the constitutional question became a major unresolved issue which was holding back the country’s democratization and institutionalization reforms. Albania was the sole country from the Eastern Europe which did not have a new post-communist Constitution until November 1998 (Omari, 2008). The actual constitution was approved by the Parliament of Albania on 21 October 1998 and subsequently confirmed by a nationwide referendum on 22 November 1998. This constitution defines Albania as a parliamentary republic, guarantees the independence of the judiciary and is based on the checks and balances principle creating premises for the democratization of the country.

The definition of the relationship between international law and national law in the framework of Albanian’s Euro – Atlantic integration was one of the tasks of the drafters of the constitution. The approach the Constitution has towards international law is substantially different from the one held by the Constitutions of the communist regime, which ignored international law. The Constitution reflects the positive view of reciprocal cooperation between international law and constitutional law (Zaganjori, 2004). The relationship between international law and national law is discussed in detail in Part Seven of the Constitution, which regards normative acts and international agreements. This part addresses the normative acts which are effective within the territory of the Republic of Albania, the procedures for the adoption of the norms of international law and the competences of organs in this field.

Since membership in EU and NATO is one of the priorities of the Albanian government the Constitutions reflects the openness of the country’s legal structure to accommodate international law principles. Albania has taken different steps in this framework the most important of which are the ratification of the Stabilization and Association Agreement and the application to join EU. The Stabilization and Association Agreement (SAA) between Albania and the EU and the EU member states was signed on 12 June 2006 and entered into force on 1 April 2009 after having been ratified by the last EU Member State Greece.
Now that Albania is closer to more substantive EU integration, a number of issues which had not been important are attracting increasing attention. Consequently, this paper will analyse whether there will be any need for Constitutional amendments to accept the supremacy of EU law over acts of Parliament and over the Constitution itself once Albania becomes an EU member. After explaining briefly the doctrine of supremacy of EU as created by ECJ, the paper will give a general overview regarding the relationship between international law and national law in the Albanian legal order. It will be explained that Albania is among those countries which give supremacy to the constitution, however the Albanian constitution includes also the so-called integration Articles. Article 122/3 related to the supremacy of the norms issued by an international organization will be analyzed aiming to understand whether the Albanian Constitution accommodates the doctrine of the supremacy of EU law or not.

2. The doctrine of supremacy of EC law

The doctrine of the supremacy of Community law has no formal basis in the EC Treaty and was developed by the ECJ based on its conception of the “new legal order” (Craig & De Burca, 2008). It was the ECJ, which from the early existence of the Community, touched the issue of supremacy of EC law by stating in Van Gend en Loos (Algemene Transporten Expeditie Onderneming van Gend en Loos v. Nederlandse Amministrazione der Belastigen, 1963) that the Community constituted a new legal order of international law for the advantage of which the States had limited their sovereign rights (Craig & De Burca). The supremacy doctrine was the main focus in the decision Costa v. Enel (1964), where ECJ held that EC Treaty had created its own legal order which became part of the legal systems of the Member States which had transferred to the Community institutions “real powers stemming from a limitation of sovereignty”. The Court provided giving further arguments such as the spirit and the aims of the treaty which made it “impossible” for Member States to accord primacy to their national law (Craig & De Burca). Finally, the Court argued that Article 249 of the EC Treaty (now Article 288 TFEU) would be meaningless if Member States would not respect it by approving inconsistent national law. After having created a basis in Costa v Enel (1964) in the following cases such as: Internationale Handelsgesellschaft (Internationale Handelsgesellschaft mbH v. Einfuhr und Vorratsstelle fur Getreide und Futtermittel, 1970) and Simmenthal (Amministrazione delle Finanze dello Stato v. Simmenthal, 1978) ECJ held that not even a fundamental rule part of the national constitution could challenge the supremacy of directly applicable Community law (Craig & De Burca, 2008). It is now established by the case law of the Court of Justice that Community law is supreme over the national law of member states, including the fundamental norms of their national constitutions (Albi, 2007).

The principle of supremacy of Community law has been one of the most important principles of the European Community’s legal system because it ensured uniform application and effectiveness of Community law. However, this principle has continuously been at the heart of juridical and doctrinal debates. Member States tend to accept the supremacy of Community law over the laws of the country, but they make certain reservations related to their constitutions. They regard supremacy as a concept rooted in the national constitutions, rather than deriving from the autonomous nature of the Community’s legal order (Albi, 2007). As a result, Constitutional Courts have reserved the right to review whether European institutions act within the competences conferred to them and respect fundamental constitutional norms and human rights (Albi). We can mention different cases in this framework such as Solange I and II (1974) and Maastricht (1994) of the German Constitutional Court, cases of the Italian Constitutional Court the Granital (19840 and Frontini (1973).

As it was mentioned above, the principle of supremacy of EC law was developed in the absence of any legal base in the EC Treaty. A provision regarding the supremacy was included in the Constitutional Treaty (2004). Nevertheless, debates regarding the supremacy of EC law continued after the incorporation of the supremacy clause in the Treaty Establishing a Constitution for Europe. For example, the French Constitutional Court and the Spanish Constitutional Tribunal gave decisions on the meaning of the supremacy on the context of the European Constitution (Albi, 2007). The French Conseil Constitutionnel, in a decision of November 2004, held that the supremacy clause, which was included in the European Constitutional Treaty, would not require any changes to the position of the French Constitution at the top of the French internal order (Albi). On the other hand, the Constitutional Court in Spain, in a decision of December 2004, held that primacy of EC law is limited to the exercise of competences that have been conferred on the Community, while ultimate supremacy is in the Spanish Constitution, which remains the essential source of validity (Albi). The Treaty of Lisbon provides also about the supremacy of EC law in the form of declaration.
3. International Law in the Albanian Legal Order

There are two main theories which explain the relationship between national law and international law. The first one is the dualistic theory and the second one is the monistic theory (Cassese, 2004). The dualistic theory was developed by the end of XIX century and beginning of XX and according to it international law and national legal systems constitute two distinct and legally separate categories of legal orders; they have different subjects, different sources, and different contents. International law cannot directly address itself to individuals or become binding within a certain legal order because it needs to be “transformed” into national law by the mechanisms of implementation decided by the State. International law cannot alter or repeal national legislation and vice versa (Cassese).

While the monist approach was first outlined in 1899 by the German legal scholar Kaufman but and was further developed after the First World War by Kelsen and subsequently by other authors (Cassese 2004). The monist approach advocates the primacy of international law. According to this approach, there is a unitary system which includes all different legal orders operating at various levels; national law should be in conformity with international law and in case of conflict the later declares all national laws not in conformity with it illegal. This doctrine claims that the subjects of international law are not completely different from those of national law and international law can be applied directly by domestic courts without any need for transformation. However, even if transformation is needed, it should be applied on national law rather than international law (Cassese).

The way in which the Albanian Constitution has solved the issue of the relationship between international law and national law is closer to the monistic approach. As will be explained, ratified international agreements are part of the Albanian legal order after being published in the Official Journal, they have supremacy over the national law in case of conflict and they can be directly applied.

The first part of the Albanian Constitution regards basic principles. Article 5 of the Constitution, provides that Albania should apply international law binding upon it. “The republic of Albania applies international law that is binding upon it” (Albanian Const. Article 5). This Article is placed in the first part of the Constitution placing it among the general constitutional principles (Anastasi, 2008). There are different interpretations regarding the above-mentioned Article in the Albanian judicial literature. One is that Article 5 should be interpreted in connection with other Articles of the Constitution especially with Article 122, which means that the Republic of Albania applies only international treaties ratified and published in the Official Journal of the Republic of Albania, because this way they become part of the Albanian national legal order. This kind of interpretation would give Article 5 only declarative character (Anastasi, 2008).

Another view is that Article 5 should be broadly interpreted. The notion “binding international law” should include not only provisions of international agreements ratified by the state, but also provisions of international law generally accepted and general principles of international law (Zaganjori, 2004). There are norms of public international law that are not part of any treaties such as peremptory norms (jus cogens), which are directed to all states and are generally accepted to have a higher rank over international law (Zaganjori). The Vienna Convention on the Law of treaties gives these peremptory norms (jus cogens) higher rank than treaty law (Vienna Convention on the Law of Treaties, Article 53).

The above-mentioned standing is also supported by the Albanian Constitutional Court. In its judgment regarding the compliance between the Albanian Constitution and the provisions of the Rome Statute for the International Criminal Court it held that: “… since on the basis of Constitution generally accepted rules of international law are part of the internal judicial system, so also the lack of immunity in the international criminal processes regarding definite crimes with high risk, becomes part of the Albanian legal order” (Constitutional Court of the Republic of Albania, 2002). So beside ratified international agreements also peremptory norms should be applied within the Albanian legal order. Supremacy of international law is an issue decided by national law rather than international law, although ICJ has held that “international law prevails over national law” (ICJ, 1988). However, in practice there is no general acceptance of the supremacy of international law, there are states which rank international law in the same position as their national law and there are others which give international law a higher status and rank than that of national law (Cassese, 2004).

The Constitution of the Republic of Albania has clearly defined the supremacy of ratified international agreements over the laws of the land and it has automatically resolved the problem of conflict between international law and national law in favour of international law. Article 116 of the Constitution creates a hierarchy between normative acts which are effective in the territory of the Republic of Albania, by placing the ratified international agreements before the national laws. “Normative acts that are effective in the entire territory of the Republic of Albania are: a. the Constitution; b. ratified international agreements; c. the laws; d. normative acts of the Council of Ministers” (Albanian Const. Article 116/1). According to Article 122/1 every ratified international agreement constitutes part of the Albanian legal order and can be directly applied except for the cases when it is not self-executing and its implementation needs issuance of law. “Any international agreement that has been ratified constitutes part of the internal juridical system after it is published in the
Official Journal of the Republic of Albania. It is implemented directly, except for the cases when it is not self-executing and its implementation requires issuance of a law. The amendment, supplementing and repeal of laws approved by the majority of all members of the Assembly, for the direct effect of ratifying an international agreement, is done with the same majority” (Albanian Const. Article 122/1). Paragraph 2 of Article 122 recognizes the supremacy of the ratified international agreements over national laws and such agreements prevail over national laws which contradict them. “An international agreement that has been duly ratified by law has superiority over the laws of the country that are not compatible with it” (Albanian Const. Article 122/2). So the Albanian Constitution provides for the supremacy of international law over national law and automatically solves problems of conflicts between them in favour of international law. This confirmed supremacy of international law towards national law separates Albania from the solution given by the dualistic countries regarding the relationship between international and national law (Sadushi, 2003). Many Constitutions of other countries have only provided that their legislation is in conformity with rules and norms of international law, but they leave unsolved the problem of conflict between national norms and international norms. This is a partial solution given by the Constitutions of these countries (Krisafi, 2004). The Albanian Constitution is similar to the Constitutions of Poland and Croatia, which provide for the supremacy of ratified international agreements over the laws of the land, in case of conflict between them (Anastasi, 2008).

This supremacy of international law over national laws sanctioned in the Constitution has also been applied in practice. The Albanian Constitutional Court abrogated provisions of the Criminal Code and provisions of the Criminal Military Code which predicated the death penalty, in order to comply with Protocol No. 6 of the European Convention on Human Rights (Constitutional Court of the Republic of Albania, 1999). Article 21 of the Constitution, “Right to life” was interpreted in the light of the European Convention of Human Rights. According to the Constitutional Court the death penalty was not in compliance with the Albanian Constitution and the European Convention on Human Rights since it denied the right to life and it was related to the elimination of the subject from the society. On the other hand, the limitations predicted by the European Convention on Human Rights were not related to the death penalty as an execution of a final decision of the Court. The Constitutional Court based its arguments on the European Convention on Human Rights also related to the abrogation of death penalty in time of war (Sadushi, 2003).

According to the principle of “direct effect” national courts can apply rules of international law that are not transformed into national law. There should always be a rule of national law authorizing the courts to apply international law (Cassese, 2004). According to Article 122/1 of the Albanian Constitution every ratified international agreement constitutes part of the Albanian legal order and can be directly applied except for the cases when it is not self-executing and its implementation needs issuance of a law. So national courts, can apply articles of a ratified international agreement, which have become part of the national legal order after having been published in the Official Journal and if there is no need for implementing legislation. In practice the judges of national courts in Albania hesitate to apply directly international agreements although they fulfil the above-mentioned criteria (Sadushi, 2003).

4. The Position of the Constitution within the Albanian Legal Order

Article 116 of the Albanian Constitution gives a general hierarchy of the normative sources binding within the territory of the Republic of Albania. According to this Article the first normative source is the Constitution, followed by the second normative source which are the international agreements ratified by the National Assembly. International agreements are followed by the laws and the last normative source is the normative acts of the Council of Ministers.

Many Albanian authors (Sadushi, 2003; Zaganjori, 2004; Anastasi, 2008;) interpret Article 116 of the Constitution as creating a hierarchy between the normative acts which are effective in the territory of the Republic of Albania, by placing the Constitution in the first place. The Albanian Constitution gives international law a higher status and rank than national law, but it gives priority to the Constitution over international law; international agreements have the second place after the Constitution (Anastasi). So the Constitution has supremacy over the ratified international agreements, international agreements come after it and have supremacy over the laws of the land. Albania is among those countries - which have adopted the monist system by giving supremacy to the constitution - where international acts come directly after the constitution, after being ratified by law, but they have supremacy only over the other national laws (Anastasi & Omari, 2010).

The above-mentioned Article has also been interpreted by the Albanian Constitutional Court as creating a hierarchy between the normative acts which are effective in the territory of the Republic of Albania, by placing international agreements in the second place, before the laws and after the Constitution. In its decision (Albanian Constitutional Court, 1999) about the abrogation of the provisions of the Criminal Code and Military Criminal Code which predicted the death penalty, the Constitutional Court held that the Constitution has recognised that Albania applies international law binding
upon it. By ranking international agreements, which are part of the national legal order, in the hierarchy of normative acts effective within the territory of the Republic of Albania before laws the Constitution gives such agreements precedence. The general standing supported by the Albanian authors and the Albanian Constitutional Court that the Albanian Constitution has primacy within the Albanian legal order, is not in compliance with the doctrine of supremacy of EC law as developed by ECJ, according to which EC law should have primacy over the national law of the member states, including the fundamental norms of their national constitutions.

International law can have the same rank with the Constitution within the Albanian national legal order. A special constitutional status is given to the European Convention for the Protection of Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms. The European Convention for the Protection of Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms is part of the normative acts which are binding within the territory of the Republic of Albania. The Convention according to Article 122/2 of the Constitution has superiority over the laws. But Article 17 of the Constitution provides that there cannot be limitations of the rights and freedoms which may violate the essence of these rights and freedoms and they cannot go beyond the limitations provided for in the European Convention for the Protection of Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms, giving the Convention the same rank with the Constitution. The way in which is formulated the above-mentioned Article of the Constitution brings to the conclusion that fundamental human rights should be interpreted in the light of the European Convention for the Protection of Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms (Sadushi, 2003). This special Constitutional status is given to the provisions of the Convention related to the limitations of rights provided in the Constitution. This is a characteristic of the Albanian Constitution which cannot be found in other legal systems (Anastasi, 2008). This special Constitutional status given to the provisions of the European Convention for the Protection of Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms and especially to those related to the limitations makes the Convention directly applicable (Sadushi). The intention of the drafters of the Constitution must have been to create a guarantee and not to allow the arbitral interference of the State related to the limitations of human rights.

Although as it was mentioned above, Article 17/2 of the Albanian Constitution refers only to limitations of human rights, the content of the provisions of the Constitution related to human rights is also important. The Articles of the Constitution regarding human rights are compiled in the same way as the Articles of the European Convention for the Protection of Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms (Sadushi, 2003). This special Constitutional status is given to the provisions of the Convention related to the limitations of rights provided in the Constitution. This is a characteristic of the Albanian Constitution which cannot be found in other legal systems (Anastasi, 2008). This special Constitutional status given to the provisions of the European Convention for the Protection of Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms and especially to those related to the limitations makes the Convention directly applicable (Sadushi). The intention of the drafters of the Constitution must have been to create a guarantee and not to allow the arbitral interference of the State related to the limitations of human rights.

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5. The Integration Articles Provided by the Albanian Constitution – Article 122/3

The definition of the relationship between international law and national law in the framework of Albanian’s Euro – Atlantic integration was one of the tasks of the drafters of the constitution. By carefully analyzing the constitutional status of international acts, besides the general standing explained above, there are also so-called specific articles which provide for the participation of Albania in supranational organizations (Anastasi & Omari, 2010). These are article 122/3: “The norms issued by an international organization have superiority, in case of conflict, over the right of the country if the agreement ratified by the Republic of Albania for its participation in the organization expressly contemplates their direct applicability” and article 123: “1. The Republic of Albania, on the basis of international agreements, delegates to international organizations state powers for specific issues. 2. The law that ratifies an international agreement as provided in paragraph 1 of this article is approved by a majority of all members of the Assembly. 3. The Assembly may decide that the ratification of such an agreement be done through a referendum” for the purpose of this paper it will be analyzed only article 122/3”.

The Albanian Constitution creates two systems regarding the relationship between international law and national law (Zaganjori, Anastasi, & Cani, 2011). The first system as it was explained above is based on two basic principles: first on the principle of direct applicability of the ratified international agreements (except for the cases when they are not self-executing and their implementation requires issuance of a law) second on the principle of the superiority of the ratified international agreements over the laws of the country, that are not compatible with them. (Zaganjori et al., 2011).

The second system is related to Article 122/3, which introduces some special characteristics different from the general system of the relationship between ratified international treaties and national law. This Article provides that norms issued by an international organization can have supremacy over the right of the country in case of conflict, but with one condition that the ratified agreement for the participation of the Republic of Albania in that organization should provide for the direct effect of the norms issued by that organization. The norms issued by this international organization will have supremacy not only over the national laws, as it was for the international norms of public international law, but they will have supremacy over the right of the country. From a literal interpretation of Article 122/3, the right of the country
includes all internal norms including the constitution itself, so it is understandable supremacy over the Constitution itself and not only over the national laws (Anastasi & Omari, 2010).

Let’s explain what might be the relationship between EC law and Albanian law according to Article 122/3 of the Constitution. The sources of EC law can be divided into primary and secondary (derived) EC law (Kellermann, 2007). The primary EC law consists of the constituent treaties, EU treaty provisions, and the general concepts of law. The secondary EC law consists of acts of the European institutions. The norms issued by the institutions of the Union are regulations, directives, decisions, recommendations and opinions. According to Article 288 TFEU (ex Article 249 of EC Treaty) in order to exercise the Union’s competences the institutions shall adopt regulations, directives, decisions, recommendations and opinions. According to Article 122/3 of the Albanian Constitution the primary EC law will become part of the Albanian legal order and it will be directly applicable once the treaties between EU and the Republic of Albania are signed and ratified by the national Parliament (Zaganjori & et.al. 2011). The secondary legislation will depend on the primary legislation, according to the interpretations of the ECJ. According to the ECJ national courts are required to give immediate effect to the provisions of directly effective EC law of whatever rank in cases which rise before them, and ignore or set aside any national law of whatever rank which would impede the application of EC law (Craig & De Burca, 2008).

Although Article 122/3 can guarantee the supremacy of the norms of an international organisation, even over the constitution itself, it still remains an unclear Article as long as it is not implemented and it is not interpreted by the Albanian Constitutional Court itself (Anastasi & Omari, 2010). According to Anastasi (2010) it would have been better if the Albanian Constitution would have provided for an Article authorising the membership of Albania in the EU. Taking into account the importance of the membership of Albania in the EU, constitutional amendments regarding the supremacy of EU law might be considered and this would also relieve the Albanian Constitutional Court from the duty of clearly defining the relationship between EU law and national law (Daci & Mustafaj, 2011). Kellermann (2007) recommended that there should be a distinction between Community law and international treaties and general rules of international law within the Albanian legal order, so primary and secondary Community law should have legal authority, supremacy and the possibility of direct effect should be clearly mentioned. This can be regulated in the same article providing the legal basis for EU membership or by a separate provision regulating the sources of the law. (Kellermann).

6. Conclusions

The doctrine of supremacy of EC law was developed by ECJ, which held that Community law is supreme over the national law of the member states, including the fundamental norms of their national constitutions. In this regard, the Constitution of the Republic of Albania has clearly defined the supremacy of ratified international agreements over the laws of the land. It has also resolved the problem of conflict between international law and national law in favour of international law. This supremacy of international law over national law within the Albanian legal order has been applied in practice when the Albanian Constitutional Court abrogated the provisions of the Criminal Code and provisions of the Criminal Military Code which predicted death penalty, in order to comply with Protocol No. 6 of the European Convention on Human Rights.

On the other hand, the supremacy doctrine of EC law is not in line with the supremacy of the Constitution within the Albanian legal order. The Albanian Constitution has supremacy over all normative acts including international agreements ratified by law. This is provided by Article 116 of the Constitution which creates a general hierarchy between the normative acts which are effective in the territory of Albania, by giving the Constitution the first place. This standing is also supported by the Albanian Constitutional Court placing Albania among those monist countries which give supremacy to their Constitutions.

Article 122/3 of the Albanian Constitution introduces some special characteristics regarding the relationship between ratified international agreements and national law. It provides that norms issued by an international organization can have supremacy over the right of the country in case of conflict but with the condition that the agreement for the participation of the Republic of Albania in that organization provides for the direct effect of the norms issued by that organization. So the norms issued by that organization would have supremacy not only over the national laws but also over the constitution itself as the right of the country includes also the constitution. Although this Article would provide for the supremacy of the norms issued by an international organization, it is not a clear Article as long as it is not implemented in practice and for as long as there is no interpretation by the Constitutional Court. It does not distinguish between international law and European Community law. This separation should recognize the specific nature of the community law. Under these conditions foreign experts, who consider the specific nature of Community law, supported also by Albanian experts, recommend that it would be better to add in the Albanian Constitution appropriate provisions giving Community law legal
authority, supremacy and direct effect when possible (Kellermann 2007). This Article would not change the position held by the Albanian Constitution towards international law in general as it would only provide for the special status of the Community law within the Albanian legal order (Kellermann).

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The EU's Ineffective Counterterrorism Policy – A Critical Historical and Functional Assessment

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Abstract Following the September 11, 2001 terrorist attacks on the United States, the European Union has acted on several fronts to reinforce its existing and nascent capabilities to combat terrorism. The European Council adopted a comprehensive Plan of Action and reached political agreement on a number of important counterterrorism initiatives. This paper provides a critical analysis of all these measures and reveals that the EU’s counterterrorism policy is more of a paper tiger than it is an effective counterterrorism device. The first part provides a brief historical overview, which analyses the event-driven and contingent development of the EU’s counterterrorism policy. The second part presents a critical assessment of policy outcomes according to the objectives set out in the EU’s Counterterrorism Strategy. Measures ‘to pursue’, and ‘to protect’ against terrorists seem to have grown substantially. In practice, however, they are undercut by a lack of focus and use at the operational level. Similarly, EU’s capacities ‘to respond’ to terrorism have been boosted, but there are doubts as to their relevance in real crisis situations. Yet most importantly, the EU remains unable to do more ‘to prevent’ terrorism. This seriously limits the overall effectiveness and output legitimacy of the EU’s efforts. The concluding third part assesses these findings and argues that EU counterterrorism policy is ineffective and there is an immediate need for more cooperative policies and implementations.

Key Words: International Terrorism, European Union, Counterterrorism Policy, defense, security

Introduction

This paper analyses the achievements and limits of the EU’s response to international terrorism since 9/11. Based on official documents, internal reports, and secondary resources, the basic argument of this paper is that the EU’s counterterrorism policy is more of a paper tiger than it is an effective device.

Although it has become almost impossible to adequately cover the EU’s extensive counterterrorism policy in a single paper, such overviews (Monar, 2007) remain a necessary complement to more specialised articles on issues such as fight against the financing of terrorism (Jacob, 2006) or judicial cooperation. (Nilsson, 2007) In particular, by providing a critical reading of the EU’s Counterterrorism Strategy, this paper seeks to provide a counterpoint to the official summary of the EU’s achievements. This should also help to clarify whether the EU has actually increased its “output legitimacy” since 9/11, or whether its counterterrorism efforts have only given grounds to political controversy.

1. Historical Background of the EU’s Counterterrorism Policy

EU’s Counterterrorism Policy has been driven by events, which resulted in an uneven rhythm of policy-making. Although terrorism had plagued numerous member states in the past, 9/11 led to an unprecedented political mobilisation at the EU level (den Boer and Monar, “11 September and Global Terrorism”, 2002). The EU’s rapid “beyond-rhetoric” response was built on a number of pre-existing policy proposals that were pushed through the “window of opportunity” after the attacks (den Boer, 2003). While the European Council set the political direction, it was mainly the Commission and the Council Secretariat that acted as policy entrepreneurs to match “old” policy solutions to the “new” problem of terrorism. (Bosson, 2008)

This was most clearly the case with the European Arrest Warrant, which came to be seen as a “keystone measure” in the EU’s counterterrorism policy. The Commission had worked on the EAW since the beginning of 2001, putting it in the fortunate position to be able to table a proposal only eight days after 9/11 (Kaunert, 2007). This early intervention - joined by a proposal for an EU-wide definition and criminalisation of terrorism (Council of the European Union 03/12/2001) - led to unexpectedly swift agreement by the end of 2001 (Mégie, 2004). Many other agenda items were similarly accelerated, such as the creation of EUROJUST or of joint investigation teams.
1.1. Introduction of a European Arrest Warrant (EAW)

The idea of a European Arrest Warrant (EAW) originated from the Tampere European Council of 1999, in which leaders of all Member States expressed their desire to improve judicial cooperation in the EU by abolishing the formal extradition procedures for persons “who are fleeing from justice after having been finally sentenced” (European Commission, 2004). The European Commission, on one of the most outspoken proponents of EAW, “regarded the arrest warrant as one of the first genuine steps towards the harmonisation of (criminal) procedure laws and, ultimately, towards the realisation of a European judicial area” (den Boer and Monar, “Keynote Article: 11 September”, 2002). Nevertheless, the idea of a EAW proved to be a highly controversial in a number of EU Member States1 and as a result, was not accepted before September 2001. The events of 9/11, however, forced the European leaders to recognise that the EU’s open borders and legal systems allowed terrorists and other criminals to evade arrest and prosecution. The Council reached a political agreement in December 2001 and the EAW Framework Decision was duly approved in June 2002 (Council of the European Union, 2002). For instance, the EAW has three important innovations that make the extradition process more efficient and effective:

First, it institutes short time limits for formal extradition procedures.2 Second, it excludes any political involvement of the Ministers of Justice and/or Foreign Affairs and requires only one judicial decision for both arrest and surrender.3 Third, it abolishes the principle of double criminal liability for thirty-two serious criminal offences, including participation in a criminal organisation and terrorism4, as well as the principles of political offence and nationality as legitimate reasons for refusal and extradition. Despite the benefits of the extradition process, some experts still consider the EAW as a threat to national sovereignty. Some argues that the EAW “appears to be a part of a larger agenda, one that aims...to expand the EU’s supranational legal jurisdiction”. Furthermore, they warn that this could lead to significant backlash from Member States worried about their “hemorrhaging national authority” (Stevenson, 2003). In contrast, while admitting that the new model “implies the transfer of another element of intergovernmental cooperation to the supranational level”, there are also some arguments that the EAW “would not be a breach of national sovereignty in respect of extradition decisions, since surrender of a suspect within the Union would not be regarded as classic extradition” (Jasinski, 2002). In either case, although there is little doubt that the EAW represents the first realisation of the principle of mutual recognition of judicial decisions that was established by the Tampere European Council as the cornerstone of judicial cooperation, the increase of the EU’s judicial cooperation has not been as substantial as originally expected.

1.2. The Impact of March 11, 2004

On March 11, 2004, a series of blasts killed more than 200 train passengers in Madrid. As the implications of an Al-Qaeda-linked terror attack on their own territory, the EU Member States began to question all measures they have taken to combat terrorism thus far. At the EU level, a number of internal reports revealed that the implementation of measures agreed upon years ago has been “slow, poor and inadequate” (European Commission, “Response to the Terrorist Attacks on Madrid”) and top level EU officials have suddenly become unusually outspoken in their criticisms of the tendency of the EU Member States to produce “networks and institutions and then refuse to provide them with necessary tools to perform their duty or simply not using them” (European Commission, “Response to the Terrorist Attacks on Madrid”). Perhaps, the most important explanation came from Austrian Chancellor: he stated that the measures previously taken by the EU have been “absolutely not sufficient as a protection against terrorism” (Austrian Chancellor Wolfgang Schüssel, BBC Monitoring International Reports, accessed 10 April 2004).

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1 Italy was the most reluctant of all EU Member States to give its assent to the EAW. It claimed that the thirty-two offenses were too many and wanted the warrant’s thirty-two offenses reduced to six, including terrorism but excluding financial crimes. Press reports speculated that this osition was due to allegations of corruption and tax evasion pending against Prime Minister Berlusconi in Italy and elsewhere in Europe. For more detail, see: Archick,K.(2002) “Europe and Counterterrorism: Strenghtening Police”, Congressional Research Report to Congress, available at http://www.law.umaryland.edu/marshall/Electronic sources/crsreports crsdocuments RL31509_ 7232002.pdf.

2 The state in which the person is arrested must return him/her to the state where the EAW was issued within a maximum period of ninety days after the arrest. If the detained person gives his/her consent to the surrender, the limit is ten days.

3 In contrast, the traditional international extradition procedure requires a separate procedure for arrest and surrender.

4 The abolition of double criminality means that the crime for which the convinced person is requested no longer needs to be recognised in both the requesting and the requested states.
Seizing the momentum created by the March 2004 terrorist attacks in Madrid, the European Commission proposed a number of ways for further enhancement of operational cooperation in the fight against terrorism at the EU level (European Commission, “Response to the Terrorist Attacks on Madrid”).

The Member States also agreed upon the need to appoint an EU Security Coordinator, immediately after the Madrid terrorist attacks (Council of the European Union, 2004). Nicknamed “Mr. Terrorism” and/or the “European Terrorism Tsar”, the Coordinator should remove some of the shortcomings of the EU’s Counterterrorism Policy. The March 25-26, 2004 European Council took notice of many of the critiques and decided to review what has been done before to combat terrorism in Europe. For this aim, it issued a Declaration on Combating Terrorism, which outlines seven of the EU’s strategic objectives to combat terrorism in a Revised Plan of Action such as to deepen the international consensus and enhance international efforts to combat terrorism, to reduce the Access of terrorists to financial and other economic resources, etc. (Council of the European Union, 2004). While it is clear that the primary aim of the Revised Plan of Action is to eliminate the tactical shortcomings of the existing EU Counterterrorism Policy, the wording of these objectives seems to suggest that changes may also be necessary at the strategic level.

Then, it “proved” the argument that international terrorists not only used the EU as a base of operation, but also targeted it directly. Therefore, the increasingly large implementation and transposition deficits of the EU’s post-9/11 agenda – particularly in the area of police and judicial cooperation – came to be harshly criticised. The European Council passed the Declaration on Combating Terrorism that promised more political direction and a significant improvement in national implementation efforts (Council of the European Union 25/04/2004). This was meant to be supported by the new EU Counterterrorism Coordinator, or “Tsar”. Moreover, a revised Action Plan on Combating Terrorism was drawn up around seven “strategic objectives”, so as to improve the coherence of measures that had accumulated on the Anti-Terrorism Roadmap (Council of the European Union 01/06/2004). The ESS was also drawn upon to better define the EU’s possible role in the fight against terrorism, (Commission of the European Communities 19/03/2004), particularly in relation to the ESDP (Council of the European Union 03/11/2004).

Meanwhile, the Madrid attacks led to a further expansion of the EU’s Counterterrorism Policy. Again, the Commission and the Council Secretariat were important for driving the agenda forward. Yet member states, too, sought to act as policy entrepreneurs. For example, Sweden pulled an existing proposal for simplified information sharing between law enforcement authorities “out of the drawer” (Council of the European Union 04/06/2004). In fact, the most controversial proposal that made it on to agenda, i.e. mandatory retention of electronic communication data, (Council of the European Union 29/04/2004) was sponsored by several member states that operated such a system at the domestic level. After the terrorist cell behind the Madrid attacks was tracked down on the basis of mobile call records, previous objections to such a regulation at the EU-level were set aside. Yet the new “window of opportunity” in Spring 2004 had its limits. For instance, the idea of a European Intelligence Agency that had been floated by Austria found no support (European Report 21/04/2004). Instead, the EU tasked SITCEN to generate strategic threat assessments of terrorism (Statewatch 08/2004).

Moreover, discussions started on how to tackle the new “strategic objective” of combating “support for, and recruitment into, terrorism”. Yet just after 9/11, the political momentum to agree on difficult issues, such as data retention, disappeared quickly. The Counterterrorism “Tsar” struggled to make a mark, as he had not been given any authority over the diverse actors that played a part in EU counterterrorism policy (Lugna, 2006). At best, he occasionally managed to “shame” some Member States into speeding up their implementation processes. Otherwise, he mostly fulfilled a purely representational role towards the media and third countries.

In sum, the London bombings of July 2005 greatly proved that there was a undeniable gap between the EU’s aspirations in the fight against terrorism and its actual impact on the ground. Member States were, thus, even more concerned with making headway on the existing agenda than adding new proposals. For instance, there was a major political push to conclude the issue of mandatory data retention (Statewatch 07/2005). The Council also consolidated existing arrangements for information exchange and judicial aid in relation to terrorist attacks (Council of the European Union 29/09/2005). As a consequence, by December 2005 EU agreed on a Strategy as well as an Action Plan “for Combating Radicalisation and Recruitment to Terrorism” (Council of the European Union 22/11/2005).

2. A critical assessment of policy outcomes according to EU’s

Counterterrorism Strategy

Although the Counterterrorism Strategy had no direct impact on EU policy-making, it succeeded in staking out the possible or desirable contribution of the EU. The Strategy presents the EU’s fight against terrorism under four objectives, namely “to prevent, pursue, protect and to respond”. There is a clear logic to these four goals, as can be seen if they are
arranged in the following table.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Countering intentional Threats</th>
<th>BEFORE ATTACK</th>
<th>AFTER ATTACK</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Prevent</td>
<td>Pursue</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Controlling structural hazards/effects</td>
<td>Protect</td>
<td>Respond</td>
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One can easily understand here that the EU is covering all possible angles of an effective counterterrorism policy, i.e. the before as well as after an attack, and at the level of structure as well as agency. It is, therefore, not surprising that the EU has readily taken to the four objectives of the Strategy when presenting its achievements in the fight against terrorism. Yet given the uneven and contingent development of EU Counterterrorism Policy outlined above, it is clear that this is a rationalisation after the fact. The objectives of the Strategy are “so broad” that almost any policy can be presented as being relevant.

2.1. Prevent

Prevention is the most important, but arguably also the most challenging, component of an effective counterterrorism policy. Precisely for this reason the EU has tried to make a contribution (Dittrich, 2007). Unfortunately, it is clear that the EU has only played a weak role in the area of prevention, as it faces several structural obstacles: the EU is almost completely excluded from operational intelligence-sharing; it has a weak external foreign and security policy; and it has almost no competences in matters of integration, education and social policy.

Intelligence is the most valuable tool in preventive counterterrorism work. Yet the EU’s possible role in intelligence-sharing remains also very limited (Müller-Wille, 2002 and Müller-Wille, 2008). Member States have simply refused to integrate their national security services at the EU level. The so-called Counterterrorism Group (CTG), which was founded after 9/11, has maintained a distance from the EU (Council of the European Union 20/09/2001). The defence of sovereignty in matters of “national security” is supported by a culture of secrecy and independence of these services. Last but not least, the EU does not have any human intelligence collection capacities of its own. As mentioned previously, SITCEN remains entirely dependent on voluntary contributions of information from member states’ services and does not concern itself with operational intelligence work.

2.2. Protect

This is the perhaps the most dynamic area of EU activity due to the intersection of Member States’ interest in controlling migration and US pressure for more border and transport security. The EU was basically forced to oblige on the issue of PNR and container security, but was eager to introduce biometric standards in visas and passports. In addition, it has introduced “counterterrorism” functions to the next generation of the Schengen Information System. EUROPOL and the so-called Counterterrorism Group (CTG), which was founded after 9/11, has maintained a distance from the EU (Council of the European Union 20/09/2001). The defence of sovereignty in matters of “national security” is supported by a culture of secrecy and independence of these services. Last but not least, the EU does not have any human intelligence collection capacities of its own. As mentioned previously, SITCEN remains entirely dependent on voluntary contributions of information from member states’ services and does not concern itself with operational intelligence work.

Critical infrastructure protection and new financial framework for security research are still recent developments and have not yielded many concrete results (Boin, 2008). Particularly critical infrastructure protection is a very complex policy area with an unclear number of stakeholders that need to be brought together.
2.3. Pursue

Since 9/11 a number policies for increased police and judicial cooperation have been agreed under the heading of counterterrorism (Nilsson, 2007). In particular, the European Arrest Warrant and the associated framework decision on combating terrorism have been touted as a success. Moreover, EUROJUST was not only set up quickly, it is by now operating quite successfully, including in terrorist cases (Council of the European Union, 21/03/2007). Meanwhile, EUROPOL has been authorised to work on terrorism and to conduct data exchanges with third countries.

Perhaps the most tangible measures under this objective are EU’s actions in the fight against the financing of terrorism (Council of the European Union, 05/10/2007). While it may have preventive side effects, the freezing of terrorist assets is mainly a punitive tool to target already known terrorist structures. By contrast, financial surveillance has been used quite successfully to uncover networks of supporters and more hidden members of terrorist organisations, and then to punish them in absence of ‘hard’ judicial proof by freezing their assets.

Nevertheless, the EU can only claim again a “moderate” success in the pursuit of terrorists. While adequate implementation is wide-spread problem for EU counterterrorism policy, (Monar, 2007) it has been a particular concern in matters of judicial and police cooperation. Oversight mechanisms are notoriously weak, and member states are often faced with considerable legal difficulties to match EU framework decisions in this area to their diverse legal traditions.

Yet even if implemented, the EU instruments to aid the pursuit of terrorist have not been readily made use at operational level. For instance, even though Joint Investigation Teams were quickly made possible after 9/11, they have not spread in practice (Rijken and Vermeulen, 2006). Similarly, the Police Chiefs Task Force, originally intended to create a more operational forum of cooperation, has not made any significant contribution to EU counterterrorism cooperation. Moreover, the exchange of information between national police and EUROPOL remains unsatisfactory, particularly in sensitive areas such as counterterrorism, which blurs the line to intelligence (Brady, 2007). This is mainly due to the conservatism of police and judicial authorities, which renders even domestic cooperation difficult.

2.4. Respond

This strand is almost exclusively constituted by the EU’s efforts in the field of civil protection. For instance, since 9/11 the EU has a civil protection ‘mechanism’ to improve information exchange and coordination in the case of emergencies. Moreover, the EU has also agreed on a number of programmes for improving the response capacities against CBRN attacks (Council of the European Union, 31/05/2005). This mostly has taken the form of exercises, compendia and exchange of best practices, but also resulted in additional funding.

However, the impact of these mechanisms has largely remained on paper. Yet also in the case of natural disasters member states have mostly preferred to deal with it among themselves. At least so far, relevant national actors do not seem expect more from the EU than training and added funding (Ekengren, 2008). Perhaps the clearest sign for limits to EU cooperation is that there has not been much political support for the creation of a European civil protection force.

Meanwhile, the ESDP has not become an important part of the EU’s response capacity to terrorism. To be precise, terrorism has been incorporated into the ESS and the assessment process for the definition of the civilian headline goal. In any case, the EU is neither willing nor in a position to mount an offensive military response to a terrorist attack. It should also not be forgotten that NATO capacities and structures are still much more significant, also in relation to defensive issues such as the consequence management of a WMD attack. In sum, the EU has achieved a moderate level of success in the area of civil protection by adding funds and by promoting the exchange of information or best practices between national authorities.

Conclusion: Reasons Behind the Ineffectivess of the EU’s Counterterrorism Policy and some Further Recommendations

Despite the EU’s immediate response to the threat of terrorism, it has been widely criticised for the lack of effectiveness of its strategy. There are several reasons for this. While the EU made a proposition for communication data retention, public opinion condemned the lack of personal data protection and problems with the proportionality principle (a method of creating a balance between means and ends). Also, an unnecessarily large amount of documents is produced as a consequence of an institutional race between the Council and the Commission, both of which want to present their active involvement in terrorist matters, which in the end causes any antiterrorist strategy to be less coherent. Furthermore, both the intergovernmental character of the third pillar and the lack of trust between Member States weaken any antiterrorist measures. Bearing in mind that counterterrorism is a cross-pillar domain, the lack of cooperation between actions taken within different pillars is also a serious obstacle undermining counterterrorism policy as a whole.
The “intergovernmental” nature of the third pillar is based on the rule of unanimity, the exclusion of the European Parliament and the European Court of Justice and the lack of transparency in the decision making process. These aspects impede an effective cooperation between states. The lack of trust was evident in the difficulties surrounding the implementation of the EAW. This instrument was established to prevent criminals from avoiding their sentences and is based on mutual recognition and trust. However, the EAW does not work properly. The core of the EAW is the mutual recognition rule; its full implementation by Member States is a sine qua non condition for making the EAW a truly effective tool (den Boer, 2003).

In his interviews, Gijs De Vries identifies numerous vulnerabilities in antiterrorist strategy. He sees the exchange of information as one of the weak points in the policies, as there is a lack of a clear set of rules governing states’ abilities to obtain information from each other. De Vries draws attention to an availability principle – he claims that available information concerning crimes in one state should be available to other states as well (de Vries, “Presentation at the seminar of the Center for European Reform”, 2006). Such a diagnosis is also given by EUROPOL: “80% of information concerning terrorism which is delivered to Hague headquarters is provided by only five Member States” (EUROPOL, An Overview of the Counter Terrorism Unit Activities, January 2006 and EUROPOL, EU Terrorism Situation and Trend Report, 2007). Furthermore, De Vries points to a factor also noticed by many authorities and politicians – the poor implementation of antiterrorist measures. The rejection of the Lisbon Treaty exacerbated this situation. The Treaty would have simplified the implementation of procedures: “Directives would be approved by a qualified majority under the strong control of national parliaments and the European Parliament and with access to the European Court of Justice. It would make the process more effective, more democratic and it would be better for the protection of our civil liberties” (de Vries, “Presentation from Annual European Foeign Policy Conference”, 2006).

Filip Jasinski repeats the already mentioned problem – poor implementation of antiterrorism laws. He mentions the European Commission Report, which states that the laws that have been enforced are not used enough. He gives several reasons for this: there are not enough educated people who would impose the laws; people are not keen on taking advantage of new instruments provided by the EU; and, finally, there is a lack of awareness of the importance of being open to new solutions as well as obligations. The majority of these allegations actually concern “old” Member States since the “new” ones agreed in the accession treaty to implement framework decisions (Jasinski, 2002).

Moreover, actions taken by the EU are a duplication of already existing measures rather than a formulation of new approaches. Raphael Bossong mentions that only one out of eleven measures listed in “Anti-terrorism Roadmap” was a new item. He calls it “the garbage can policy” or “expectations/capabilities gap”. Bossong presents a similar opinion about the European Counter-Terrorism Strategy. He sees the strategy as an attractive re-packaging of old resolutions. When goals concerning security matters are overly ambitious or controversial, the EU is put in the position of having to force states to meet the deadlines. This results in inefficient top-down actions. Ideally, counterterrorism proposals would be initiated down-top, from national governments to the EU. Jasinski describes another tendency – the lack of clearly defined timelines. For instance, the Hague Programme and the Action Plan on Combating Terrorism have many unspecified deadlines; in some cases, deadlines are not specified at all. Some of the actions concerning the JHA, indirectly connected with terrorism, are dealt with from such a long-term perspective that consequently they are ineffective.

Another weak point in counterterrorism policy is creation of many forums operating from within and outside the EU, which do not act in a compatible way. This situation makes actions incoherent and difficult to manage. Björn Müller-Wille explains the problems in co-operation between intelligence agencies developed outside the EU framework with EU centralized intelligence co-operation structures (Müller-Wille, 2008). One of the main EU bodies assigned the task of gathering, exchanging and analyzing intelligence data is EUROPOL. However, according to Müller-Wille, even though EUROPOL is well capable of analyzing intelligence data, it has serious problems with the collection of data. EUROPOL does not have its own independent source of intelligence information, so it must rely on access from other open sources. Müller-Wille names two units independent from the EU which collect intelligent information: the Counter Terrorist Group and the Police Working Group on Terrorism. He argues that the poor cooperation between these national agencies and EUROPOL is due to the fact that the agencies are suspicious of exchanging information with EUROPOL. Furthermore, EUROPOL has no real counterterrorism responsibilities. It is the national agencies, not EUROPOL, who are blamed or praised for fighting terrorism. The main responsibility in collecting and analyzing data remains within the hands of the national services. Thus, providing intelligence data for EUROPOL is an obligation which the agencies are unwilling to fulfill. EUROPOL, therefore, has only a supporting role.

Another important point is that; in order to harmonise counterterrorism actions, the EU appointed antiterrorist coordinator. Not only were his duties ambiguous, but he was also unable to change states’ approaches towards the implementation of counterterrorist decisions. In practice, the antiterrorist coordinator does not have a significant impact on antiterrorist policy. The coordinator’s only power is that of persuasion. Furthermore, he has no budget to implement new
initiatives and cannot force Member States to accelerate implementation processes. As long as there are no sanctions for delaying the enforcement of laws (as there are in the first pillar), states will not treat antiterrorist measures seriously.

Statewatch – an organisation which monitors states and civil liberties in Europe, is highly critical of antiterrorist measures taken by the EU. In a report evaluating antiterrorist measures proposed after the Madrid attacks, Statewatch charges that many inappropriate laws unrelated to terrorism had been adopted. Moreover, they violate personal data protection law. The authors suggest that the EU should be more focused on removing cultural and political barriers, so as to improve the exchange of information between police and intelligence services. Furthermore, they state that there was no need to develop more antiterrorist measures; it would have sufficed if judicial and police authorities cooperated efficiently to track down terrorists.5

Furthermore, Europeans and Americans are at odds over their approach towards transatlantic cooperation. According to Didier Bigo, Americans are much too focused on cooperation with intelligence services, developing new technology and conducting military interventions, rather than working to improve transatlantic cooperation in the police and judiciary spheres. The author sees an asymmetry in EU-US relations. The EU is suspicious of sharing information between different bodies, because the reliability of information depends on the body which provides it – on whether it is a judicature, an intelligence service, or the police. Additionally, Americans want to administer the processes of data analysis, despite the fact that the information that they provide has a personal, not a strategic character, therefore discouraging cooperation. The European role is only to gather such information. The most intensive EU-US contacts are in the field of intelligence services. Bigo suggests that such broad intelligence cooperation originated with the network developed between the Commonwealth and the United States, which then extended to other European states. Paradoxically, even countries that do not support the US war in Iraq (for instance, France and Germany), strengthened their cooperation with the American intelligence service. The author sees a great danger in the improper usage of information provided by an intelligence service (Bigo, 2004).

Finally, freezing terrorist funds is an important antiterrorist tool, as without money terrorist groups cannot operate. In other words, the EU created a tool directed at individuals, because it is they, not states, who are responsible for terrorist attacks. However, this measure has also been widely criticized. Michael Jacobson explains that the EU based its list of terrorist suspects on a list that had been recognized by the United Nations’ 1267 committee. Jacobson reproached that although the EU launched a separate process to recognize and add other terrorist suspects to the list, the framework of unanimity impeded the building of consensus. For instance, Jacobson criticises, due to “French-led opposition, the EU has thus far not designated Hizbollah as a terrorist organization. And, until 2003, only Hamas’s military wing was designated” (Jacobson, 2003). This example not only shows vulnerabilities in the field of freezing terrorist funds, but also proves that differences in the national interests of EU Member States are the main hindrance in the European Union decision-making process.

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Towards the Professionalization of Students Prepared to Become Teachers

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Abstract: The study is focused on mentoring of the teaching practice for student teachers. It aims at assessing their formation based on the application of theoretical knowledge in professional practice, taking into consideration new perspectives about the meaning of teaching effectively. The following study is based on a survey of students conducted by student teachers, based on the characteristics of the profession of teachers and valued professional competencies as necessary to achieve. Review and analysis of data allows us to appreciate to what extent the previous experiences, relationships with companion pedagogue and teacher mentor, as well as all the supporting factors in professional practice, condition the effectiveness of the professional practice of the student teacher. Professional practice, viewed as a coordination of theoretical knowledge with practical skills and adaptation to the school context, makes us think about the choice of different strategies in the preparation of teachers skilled in the function of a successful teaching.

Keywords: teaching practice, mentoring, professional development, professional competencies

Introduction

The context of the preparatory work in the faculty

The student teachers participate in a process that gives them the essential professionalism, which is achieved towards the pedagogical practices. According to Paquay (2007), the pedagogical practices compose an important modality in the professional developing of future teachers, because they put the student teachers in situations that will come up during the process of teaching. There are some considerable numbers of treatments on pedagogical practises in building the profession of the teacher and especially on the way how the impact in building professional responsibilities is seen. Brau-Antony & Jourdain (2007) and also Perrault, Brassart & Dubus (2007) evaluate that the pedagogical practises are the dispositive that contributes more in developing professional necessary competences to exercise a teacher’s profession.

Leaving aside the tension that is felt amongst theoretical knowledge and practical ones, the student teachers find the need to build and obtain diverse professional competencies: technical and didactical in choosing contents of teaching and learning, also social, relationship, adaptations and interactions in a class.

Our research is concerned with the process of professionalism in the first steps of the career. It aims to detect support items that help towards the professional practice, the adoptions that lead to a progressive building of professional competences, seen as a crucial element in the process of developing the identity of a student teacher. As a matter of fact, it seems inadequate to look for us to ask for the achievement of a good relationship with knowledge during the professional practice since the very beginning. According to Charlot “the relationship with knowledge is the relationship with the world, the other and with him/herself of a subject that is facing the need to learn”.

The student teacher is gradually integrated in the school context and tries to adapt with it. Lyn McDonald (1st Volume, Number 2, 2004) emphasizes the role that cooperation has in the development of student teachers. The primary factors in the relationship mentor teacher-student teacher are systematically considered. Personal pedagogy of student practitioner and cooperation are seen as important, especially in the ability of mentor teachers in articulating their practice and helping in linking theory with practice. The initial professional experience, lived in different ways can enhance and reinforce the motivation on a choice made or may bring a period of doubt to future teachers.

The presentations during the development in professional practice

Seen as one of the forms of knowledge with a lot of values, presentations of student practitioners give meaning to practice. They serve to operate when confronted to the surrounding environment by maintaining at the same time a cognitive balance in a specific professional context.

To reduce possible discrepancies between the rates, ideas and real practices, the student teachers present a series of works that are especially focused about of lessons construction and the different aspects of teaching. Initially a concept of the ideal way of teaching is developed, starting from discussions, cultures and ideas embedded in the school experience.
Exploring forms of personalization of training, starting from individual presentations makes you aware of the way everyone develops a particular view about the nature of professional competences. If this point of view evolves with practice, ideal views, relative with the profession and qualification will guide the behaviour and attitudes of a student teacher through his experience in professional practice. But this process takes into consideration even moments of tension and imbalance in relation to the initial knowledge, from which the student has to build new coherences, necessary in developing professional competences.

Professional competences, identity construction and the relation to knowledge

To find a balance, student teachers be exposed to reports of the formation rates, with the requirements of the profession, different disciplines, professional practices and are so engaged in action. The rate of knowing and the feeling of controlling the situation might lead straight to a partial reorganization of professional practice. The identity of the student teacher can be discovered by looking at the awareness, the interactions and adjustments.

Altet, in a study on the student teachers identifies three types of reports with knowledge throughout the period of the professional practice:

- The "instrumental", on which you can see a strict need of the student teachers for using in class available recipes that have been successful.
- The professional report, which underlines the progressive construction of acting schemes and the need to articulate theory and practice at the same time.
- The intellectual report, in which the satisfaction brought by studying, the practices done in university and the participation in an environment far from the teaching one is evaluated.

The professional competences are gained in a progressive way in such a practice that puts the student teacher in front of complex real life situations, where he looks from himself to put in practice the theoretical aspects that he learned. From this point of view, socializing (exchange between colleagues, different meetings) and personal experiences (leaving with the students, the image of the ideal teacher, engagement in sport activities or other entertainment activities) help in building the presentations on the teaching profession.

The final goal of any training should be increased confidence and competence of the co-operators. Teachers who feel a sense of accomplishment in their role will bring that passion and commitment that is necessary to make practice a crucial experience, suggested by literature. The study show that the characteristics, attitudes and good practices of mentor teachers include the ability to motivate student teachers and in many cases, to be motivated by them.

Method

In making this article possible, qualitative and quantitative method was used. Initially a survey with last year’s student teachers, who were almost in the end of their professional practice, and also mentor teachers who accompanied the students in the classes, was made. This survey was given to around 100 students who were invited to anonymously fill them, during a meeting that lasted around 35 minutes, and also to around 20 mentor teachers. In addition to the written survey, a conversation was developed too.

A series of questions that were directly related to teaching and the behaviour of the student teacher in class, such as the tricks of teaching developed through the professional practice, the implementation of different theoretical aspects taught in the University during the everyday practice, the organization of the work in class, taking into consideration students with different levels, teamwork and the co-operation of the mentor and the other actors.

The surveys showed different modalities of action and engagement in professional practice. Besides the classic identification questions (sex, age, school were you practiced etc.), the questionnaires was concerned with professional experience. This was requested by various questions dealing with: the importance that was dedicated to professional practice; the possible expectations from the mentor teacher (help, sharing experience, etc.); the difficulties encountered in the professional context, the links that student teachers could decide between teachings they have gotten at the University and the reality lived throughout the professional practice; relationships with accompanying teacher, his assistance and intervention during the realization of professional practise, the need of conversations and sharing experience with other student teachers and with other teacher in the school and some suggestions about issues that they thought should be changed.

In general, professional practice is seen as a very important aspect of the process of forming future teachers. Student teachers have appreciated the fact that it is divided in two years, alternating with the observation period, because this
The role of professional practice in forming future teachers

Professional practice forms a teacher; it’s where the knowledge learned in the University is put in practice. This is not considered simple. It requires adapting and good integrating abilities in an unfamiliar environment. The student teacher has to find his spot and integrate in a well-structured context, in depth of which there are different actors: students, mentor teachers, accompanying pedagogue, parents, other teachers in the school etc. During a discussion with a student it was noticed that he never had the chance to integrate in a satisfactory way and find himself. This is not a general case, but many of them say that it’s difficult integrating and be recognized as part of the school. Maybe the timespan itself cannot let this aspect become better.

The data and comments that were collected are overall positive as far as professional practice is concerned. However, there are some remarks that testify the problems that you run through. Being in a school for a short period of teaching doesn’t give you the chance to finish a whole activity or project. On the other hand, you can notice a lack of homogeneity in the development and inclusion of professional practice. A student said that he was under the impression that he learned less than his friends because the teacher had only given him second hand responsibilities. This student attributes this fact to the lack of inclusion of integration theory-practice from the mentoring teacher through all the development of the practice.

However, the collected data is encouraging. Out of 100 students, 76 of them seem satisfied by the practical formation that they had the chance to get. Only 12 students are not very satisfied, but they say there was nothing wrong with the way of proceeding. For 82 students, professional practice is the most interesting and motivating part of their formation as a future teacher. 68 students say that only with the theoretical knowledge that they get in the University they wouldn’t be able to confront the class in the near future, seeing the multiple problems they had to overcome in the everyday teaching practice. To the question whether the objectives that were set with the student were achieved, 73% of the teachers answered positively, 22% answered “partially” and in only 5% of them the objectives weren’t reached. To the question “How do you qualify the level of implication of the student teacher during the professional practice?” the answers were these: 46%- very good, 32%- good, 17%- satisfactory, 5%- weak.

As we expressed above, because this article in a broader study zone, the diversity of surveys and the conversations with teachers and student teachers is broader and involves a considerable number of topics, related to all the aspects of the educative job in a school, which have to get absorbed by the student teachers.

Professional practice is estimated from the students that are preparing to become students from different didactical points of view. It allows “learning how to build summaries that are optimized for the level of the students” (62%), “learning how to build mechanisms that will make students learn” (53%). It also makes easier the professional orientations, favouring a better knowing of the teacher staff (61%), “yourself” (48%) and of the characteristics of students” (72%).

Apart from this aspect, from a pedagogical standpoint, it offers an interesting experience, especially through improving the quality of the relationships between students and a more efficient administration of different situation throughout teaching.

The evaluation forms in the end of the professional practices are seen from around 55% of the surveyed students as a way they get to know the class and the students better, which allows them to follow in continuity their development and reach towards the necessary competences to teach.

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What we expect from the mentoring teacher

Throughout this professional experience, the help of the mentoring teacher is seen as an essential factor in realizing a successful practice. According to 73% of the surveyed student, the mentoring teacher “should not hesitate to make any kind of remark”, we can distinguish different nuances in the relationship created between the accompanying teacher and the student teacher. Through a request “to be always paying attention to the mentoring teacher”, “to trust and be certain about what he says”, and the wait for “the concrete solution” and the expressed need to “overcome difficulties”, we see how relationship between the student teacher, the mentoring teacher and the pedagogue that guides them in these practises, becomes better and more professional. According to the modalities of considering the help that is reciprocally expected, the transformations connected to the professional practice are seen more or less related with these counter
reactions. For 52% of the students, pedagogical practice “improves mainly thanks to the help given by the mentoring teacher”, and for 23% of them, this improvement comes from “work and personal reflection”. For 16% of them, it improves because of “the reciprocal relationship teacher-student” and for 9% the professional practice didn’t have “any influence” in their teaching practice. It's suggested that an effective co-operator is not only engaged for the teaching profession, but it is also an articulate supported of that profession (Mayer & Austin, 1999). They keep suggesting the idea that co-operative teachers work as a ‘Doormen towards the profession’ and they have a central role in building and keeping teaching a profession with a high status. Mentor teachers mediate the professional formation of student teachers, by supporting the acquisition of their practical and professional capabilities (Fairbanks, Freedman and Kahn, 2000). This development of professionalization is tightly connected to the direction, reciprocal learning and friendship amongst the accompanying teacher and the student teacher.

Discussion

Towards the professionalization of student teachers, the focus on the pupils

The analysis highlights a lot of themes. Initially, an important place is dedicated to the reflection of the student teacher, which allows choosing the appropriate didactical solutions in order to adapt teaching with the reality in the class, and favours the effective practical analysis, whose purpose is to understand the difficulties that pupils go through, so that he/she can find appropriate ways and forms to have a successful teaching process. Taking into consideration the level of the student encourages different questions and opens a lot of opportunities to work with efficiency and to manage a successful teaching process. Alternating the time between individual research, time of the individualized help supposes the position of the student teacher, the clarity of the action, establishing a healthy relationship with learning, being self-conscious over what you want to achieve. Preparing the teaching sequences and sessions, the clarification of the objectives, defining the technique and methods that are going to be used, making questions with forming character, knowledge over the subject, making an argumentative evaluation etc. are substantial factors that increase the participation in the class.

Professionalism

The problematic has to do with the fact that the professional status of a teacher has taken great importance and tendencies to see the act of teaching as a professional act is becoming more visible. As a matter of fact, this case is built on knowing the professional character of teaching that requires an initial college formation and intellectual, personal and social capabilities. The complexity of the duty of a teacher requires for him to be able to solve several problems. In his work he has to be independent and accomplish his responsibilities. In such a context, we have to put of first view a bigger participation of student teacher in administering the educative orientation of the class and a dynamic co-operation between the student teacher and the mentoring teacher. Furthermore, the presentations that student teachers make in their role as a teacher, the responsibilities they assume and the relationships with the pupils are also part of the professionalization process. Student teachers have to be sensitized on the professional character of their future jobs and think about the purposes of education.

Implementation in forming future teachers

We have to notice the emergency of the process of teaching professionalization at the student teachers. For this, it’s necessary to create a professional portfolio with the purpose of favouring his development and the reflexive analysis, for a better understanding of his/her work. This portfolio gives the student teacher the chance to clarify his personal and professional objectives during college education.

Except from the different techniques and procedures, it is also about the development of a statement seen in a professional perspective. Last but not least, the student teacher should not forget that the main responsibility connected to his/her profession is the relationship created with the pupils and their well-being in the classroom. The respect towards individual and collective changes should also be in the attention of the teacher student.
The place of professional practice in the formation of future teachers

In the professional context of the profession of the teacher and especially future teachers, professional practice shows up as a crucial moment in the professional development. It constitutes a favourable context in the acquisition of knowledge on the aspect of professional reaction:

- Professional Practice allows future teachers to develop professional competencies and to build their professional identity
- Professional Practice allows future teachers to obtain a realistic view of the profession
- Professional Practice allows student teachers to socialize with the teaching profession.

The way in which professional practice is articulated with other activities in the process of development has a lot of importance. The achievement of the expected competencies in the end of the professional practice is also related with the role and the effectiveness of the mentor teacher. Furthermore, we are not only talking about verifying the level of development of one or the other competence, but also favouring a clear reflection and thought over the teaching and learning practice on the student teacher. Evaluation requires taking into consideration a huge number of social factors and has to happen in a context where the mentor teacher and the student teacher share their ideas on teaching. On the other hand, even the mentoring teachers have to be trained to be able to supervise the practice. It involves identifying the purpose, styles, approaches and the ability to develop an effective relationship with the student teacher. This also means that the mentor teachers have to be in touch with the latest professional knowledge, which involves knowledge on the curricula, teaching and learning, the styles and the sources. This is what makes a successful mentoring teacher, but also requires the recognition of the status and the financing of the mentor teacher.

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Rituals and Ceremonies of Quality of Higher Education. New Academic Tribes and Challenges in Social Recognition

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Abstract: Quality has been the most relevance public policy on higher education worldwide in about three decades. Quality is, primarily, a product of a linear equation of an overall expansion and massification of higher education since the 1970s, and the lack of resources to ensure a long-term educational support. Therefore, it is evident the design and implementation of a public policy without a critical debate about the implications for the entire educational systems. Secondly, it implies a qualitative change in the process of evaluation from a pedagogical process based on significant curricular experiences, to the construction of a positivist system of evidence for each potential or de facto act of learning, producing an institutional evaluation based on productivity, competitiveness, achievement and treasure of economical, social and cultural capitals. It is about a substantial change in the concepts and practices of educational administration from an academic/knowledge regime to academic/knowledge capitalism regime, corporatizing educational institutions and promoting social fragmentation. Testimonies from scholars in facing this academic regime show a relevant erosion of the academic work and an epistemic reduction of educational disciplines, making the policy of quality of education, more than a well-intentioned educational improvement, a source of deinstitutionalization, discrimination and practices of social control and lack of social recognition. This work analyzes social configurations from scholars’ experiences in Higher Education in Mexico facing the rhetoric and procedures of quality of education. Through ethnography and phenomenological hermeneutics analysis this research shows imaginaries that deform scholars’ educational practices and a consequent ideological social recognition.

Keywords: Quality, Higher Education, ritualization, social recognition, identities.

1. Introduction

It is an undeniable fact that on these days, the globalization of grammar, rhetoric and discourse of the public policies in higher education. The way they are designed, constructed and implemented can be hear in all podiums, political, economic, social and even, in not few educational spaces. The managers of educational systems worldwide, the principals and academic directors in local (rural and urban), national and international institutions of higher education, and even some teachers and researchers are repeating the same formula of one general and homogeneous strategy: efficiency, excellence and academic success, as a sign of a new educational culture.

The efforts to achieve a wider registration of students, the procedures of validation and evaluation of institutions of higher education, the processes of productivity, efficiency and effectiveness validated by the so-called “Quality of Education” and the adscription to the honor top hundred prestige universities all over the world are actions drenched by the same grammar, rhetoric and discourse that shape the hegemonic ideology in the field of education: the academic capitalism and its market of goods of knowledge.

The contemporary public University, as we know it, in spite of the large historical transformations suffered several times on their historical evolution by diverse sectors of society (religious, political, social, cultural and economic), social movements and the education systems, maintains paradoxically, and in spite of its critical belief, the traditional structures that reminds its own birth in the lands of Central Europe several centuries ago. This fact is especially evident in the contradictions of the development of its substantive functions: teaching, researching and the interaction with the social and productive sectors.

However, the transformations of the beginning of the last century can well be compared to the mutations of these institutions at the end of the 20th century and the first decade of the 21st century, due to the profound changes pushed by technology, process of globalization and the necessary conscience of a global ecosystem. Complexes and accelerated changes that accompanied by a modernizing wave and a free market system, have succeed in generating new roles, functions, nature and identities within the University. All these mutations require a deep socio-critical analysis that goes beyond the simple study of management, normally used as the unique approach at the time that University is analyzed through the design and implementation of educational policies.

This article aims initially to identify and analyze the different grammatical and rhetoric structures of the actual public policies that build the global educational discourse since the end of 1980’s up to the present. This first analytical path of grammar, rhetoric and discursive thread of the hegemonic policies in higher education from a phenomenal hermeneutics
allows to test the first thesis presented, as the beginning of the development of this work: the implementation of policies in higher education has produced the birth of an new academic culture whose nucleus of rationality is framed in the limits, resistances and innovations of scholars in facing the academic capitalism.

Secondly, the analysis focuses on expressions, signs and symbols of the hegemonic culture within institutions of higher education: rituals, ceremonies, chants and dances, expressions and creations that make possible the implementation of educational policies especially focused in the central educational policy worldwide: The Quality of Education.

Finally, this paper analyzes from the critical theory approach, especially in the logic of the theory of recognition (Honneth 1992), the diverse identity configurations capable to build an ideological social recognition, which on the one hand restricts the academics’ capabilities of saying, telling and to narrating themselves as members of a university community and a collectivity, and restricts the recognition of the scholars with their own institution; and by the other hand, produces the institutionalization of social control by fragmenting the educational community and implementing a general individualism among scholars.

Therefore it is possible to see the different mutations of the ethos—-or ways how scholars do and performed their academic work, and the habitus—the systems of thinking the scholars use in interpreting and understanding their actions--in facing the hegemonic educational policies, at the same time that it is an excellent opportunity to access to possible futures of the University within a restricted field of options, good wishes, viable and limits options and utopias.

2. Institutions and imaginaries

Traditionally institutions have been defined from an operational perspective, identifying them as organizations that adopt a functionalist culture. From this logic, all expression, belief and practice should play a vital role in all kinds of civilization, which leads us to think that there is no institution without physical substrate (Malinowski, 1922).

Besides, institutions as the basis of a society are built according to Castoriadis (1975), from a collective imagination. The concept of imaginary equally present in Bazcko (1984), Durand (1960), Maffesoli (1991), Anderson (1991), among others, represents a key clue for the construction of languages, production of beliefs and images capable of forging a culture.

In this way, the institution as such, appears under the sign of desirable, imaginable, thinkable and feasible of a society in a particular socio-historical context. Thus, the institution of language, as first and foremost institution among all human institutions, found one space of construction of individual identities that are internalized/ externalized in ways of been perceived, imagined, thought, and seen in action (Castoriadis, 1975). Imaginaries that build an institution acquired the strength of concrete in the material world in the form of behaviors, expressions, and other elements that constitute the process of building a common group, which is expressed as a tribe or a community capable now to build a culture.

When we talk about imaginary we refer to things that already had been invented in advance, be it an object, a concept, a situation or a history, where, as it affirms Castoriadis (1975) there are available symbols that allow other meanings beyond the pre-established and canonical ones, and where occurs slides of sense. Consequently, the imaginary uses not only the symbolic to express itself, but it requires the presence of the symbols to exist as a subject, situation, myth, or thing, while "symbolism presupposes the imaginary competence, due that it accepts the ability to see into something this that is not and to see in another what it is. Finally, it is certainly, about the irreducible ability to evoke an image" (Castoriadis, 1975: 220).

In the same way, the imaginary in Ricoeur (2004) is an indispensable component of subjectivity that precisely orients the individuals towards to acquire the ability of recognition of him/herself and other individuals. Thus, the imaginary is not constitutive of an unreal or false construction of reality; it rather indicates the substrate of the social configurations as a truth in situ, meaning, situational, a reconstructed truth that represents fiction, in Aristotelian terms (fiction/story)\(^1\), which is constitutive of the act of narrating.

The social meanings in Castoriadis are relate to the way of,

Understand, and even simply capture the symbolism of a society, is to capture the meanings that entails. These meanings are not displayed but circulated by significant structures, but this does not mean that they are

\(^1\) Cf. Aristotle’s Poetic.
reduced neither to them, nor to be uniquely a product of them, or finally nor that they can be determined by themselves (Castoriadis, 1975:238).

In capturing these configurations which are oriented by the meaning and the interpretative sense giving by particular individuals, it allows to rescue stories from a socio-historical matrix where individuals shown their most subjective dimension. It is important to note that these configurations identified are able to describe worlds of meaning and sense; therefore, it is necessary a descriptive and analytical process to understand how these configurations operate in the domain of the intuitions of higher education.

Each society defines and produces an image of the natural world, the universe in which they live, trying to increasingly make it a significant set, which should certainly find its place objects and natural beings that matter for the life of the community, but also this same community, and finally some kind of order in the world (Castoriadis, 1975:259).

3. Policies in higher education and University tribes: The Academics

Public Policies in Latin America in terms of the design, development and evaluation appeared at the beginning of 1980s due to the following facts: a) the increasing relevance of educational systems as a product of the great expansion of enrollment, particularly in higher education; b) a complex educational structure of higher education systems trying to answer the increasing social demands and to solve social asymmetries in the access and permanence in educational institutions; c) the subsequent interactions between the State, Society and the University on the basis of democracy, autonomy and participation of all educational community; d) the relevance of social movements in demanding accountability in the diverse political, economical and administrative activities of the State; and e) the high pressure inflicted on the nature and identity of public universities by the processes of globalization and the wave of modernization of State commanded by international bodies such as World Bank (WB), International Monetary Fund (IMF), etc.

Traditionally, public policies in Latin America have been understood as a matter under the action of politicians as State’s agents, which has kept at first place, the image of the State as great designer and implementer of public policies through politicians, and then, society as a simple beneficiary of different policies with varied degrees of participation.

The enormous expansion of students’ enrollment in higher education evidences the State’s control of public policies in education, and the strong relationship between institutional evaluation and quality of education developed since the 1980s in Latin America. For instance, in Argentina and Uruguay in this decade the student enrollment reached the higher historical levels than ever, thanks to the decision of these governments to reject any regulatory action in the access to institutions of higher education. Argentina raises it up to 60%, Bolivian increased 45% and in Brazil and Mexico remained their annual growth rate from 1%-2%, in contrast, with the 10% of growth reached in 1960’s and 1970’s in these countries. However, towards the middle of the 1980s Latin American universities were impacted by economic crisis and adjustment programs, a factor that limited public financing possibilities. In the early 1990s, the economic downturn and the neoliberalism logic changed the way of confrontation of the financial crisis, which have affected deeply the nature and administration of the educational institutions. It has also produced a strong trend of privatization and fosters the participation of private higher institutions in attending the students demand in this region.

According to Rodriguez (1999), in proceeding with the student’s enrollment growth in higher education has demanded the liberalization of higher education market and the specialization and diversification of academic programs for public and private education. Specialization was due to the strengthening of some programs and academic areas and/or the creation of institutions with an educational offer correlated to the existing demands.

This diversification was accompanied with particular planning strategies (reengineering and strategy planning) and a significant shift of the University culture. In the early 1990s, the institutional evaluation performance was established as the central public policy in higher education, and prepares Quality as the nucleus of all public policies at the end of the 1990’s up to the present. Both policies made possible to legitimize the process of accreditation of academic programs, the certification of educational institutions and the inclusion of instrumental and managerial methods in academic activities and educational making decision processes.

As a result of it, evaluation has been the vehicle for the institutionalization of the policy of Quality in Higher Education, changing the conception of educational institutions to a knowledge organization, and then evaluating their academics by
parameters of performance and productivity considered as “desirables”\(^2\). This condition applied to educational establishments and the various scientific communities is beginning to tie higher institutions performance (evaluation/quality) to universities budget’s allocation.

As for the academics Lendesman and García Salord (2003: 115), has defined them as:

A multifaceted actor and heterogeneous (teacher, researcher, technician, scientist, intellectual), whose common point is his/her membership to educational institutions and their adscription to the functions of production and transmission of knowledge and culture.

In this regard, scholars constitute a heterogeneous community, that are bond thanks to the nature, products and consequences of their own academic work, and as well as for their different interests that increasingly, are more imposed and manipulated by the needs of the society and not by the reflection of the Sciences of education towards the hegemonic model of society. This makes the construction of that tribe of the academic community also very different and complex. While the concept of tribe or neo-tribe Maffesoli (1991), is referred to the meeting of a given group around images that act as vectors of a community in which they remain to reflect on their emotions in common, it is necessary that there has been an initiation to new individuals so that they are able to share these emotions which are included into the imaginary space of this collectivity.

The initiation allows the exchange of emotions, as the basis for the community social link. So therefore is not a standardization of actions (both obligations and sanctions), but rather a process of normalization that Maffesoli calls an "aesthetic of ethics". This aesthetic will be regulated not by the moral, but by ways of being and living together. These individuals will imagine how better together they will be or will they be while they are controlled by the hegemonic rhetoric that leads them towards action.

The tribal logic allows, according to Maffesoli (1991), to think about action in terms of the meaning given to collective actions. It is the intersubjective action that gives meaning to reality. Thus, a choice or a decision of a particular individual not may be reduced to the single form of his/her individual rationality as the center of his/her action, but a choice under a control of a collective imaginary that has been already institutionalized in this community.

The culture of scholars as a result of the implementation of public policies of higher education is governed by a grammar that builds the bedrock of the community and it offers a common language in order to think, say, reproduce, innovate, etc. In fact, the rhetoric that has been formed from three already mentioned educational policies: expanding the students’ registration, the institutional evaluation and quality of education are the sediments of the logic of the institutions of higher education. Predominantly, Quality of Education gathers the largest concepts, symbols and imaginaries of this new rationality in the educational field. However, this rhetoric has a scarcely and unclear epistemic content. Mistakenly Quality has been defined as a polysemy concept, but in reality the epistemic educational content of it is minimal, if not contrary to what would be precisely educational; while there are plenty of elements inside of its rhetoric that clearly are capable to guide the behavior and action of individuals towards an hegemonic ideology.

These components are guides for an individualized action focused on competition, success and excellence. So the academic culture will be based on ritualization of the hegemonic rhetoric: Quality of Education. The commemoration and ritualization of these components reinforces the conception of a society built on the basis of a savage individualism, typical of the late capitalism we are living in.

In this way, Lesli and Slaughter (1997), and Slaughter and Rhoades (2004) have well detected the expression of an Academic Capitalism whose major imperative in the educational field is the policy of Quality and the active participation by scholars as best players or outsiders within the global market of goods of knowledge. The outsiders are academics in the periphery of the institution with no possibilities to develop their academic work, and the first are scholars that “surf” in different academic, public and private sector spaces, wrap up with the capitals of their institutions while creating networks of academic work that at large scale will not include even the participation of their institutions. The clearest case of this new educational game market is the way the University of Phoenix is structured, where its owner builds the University based in an unregulated global market of knowledge changing the social aim of the university.\(^3\)

\(^2\) Cf. Program of improvement of teachers. PROMEP has as a main goal to permanently raise the level of teachers' habilitation based on profiles suitable for each subsystem of higher education. Thus, in driving substantial improvement in training, dedication and performance of research groups the quality of higher education quality rises. http://promep.sep.gob.mx/

\(^3\) Cf. Slaughter and Rhoades (2004), when they bring up the case of Phoenix University.
4. New cultural constructions among scholars and challenges of social recognition

Culture according Geertz (1973) is "a system of inherited conceptions expressed in symbolic forms by means of which men communicate, perpetuate, and develop their knowledge about and attitudes toward life". Culture plays a key role by providing meaning to the world individual experiences making this world an understandable unit framed in a socio-historical context.

Thus, the symbols allow an interaction mediated by an interpretation and a particular valuation thereof. These symbols sediment ways of thinking and doing in the collective memory of individuals. Collective memory plays a relevant role in the maintenance of traditions, but also in the creation of new forms and fractures of old ways of thinking.

Geertz cites the idea of Weber which regards man as: "an animal suspended in webs of significance he himself has spun, I take culture to be those webs" (Geertz, 1973:20).

Therefore, culture not strives to demonstrate nothing but reveal meanings that guide senses of social reality. These frames are recovered through ethnographic and biographical methods. Life stories tell us the trajectories of the individuals that put into scene their life through the story and tell us clues about their culture. As well Geertz affirms that "Culture is more understandable not as complex of concrete schemes of conduct – customs, practices, traditions, habits sets - as it has happened in general so far, but as a series of control mechanisms - plans, recipes, rules, instructions (what computer engineers call "programs"—which govern the conduct)" (Geertz, 1973:51). This means that culture is the network or plot of senses capable to give meaning to the events or phenomena of everyday life. In this way, culture is considered as production of senses, but it is through rites, celebrations and commemorations that it can be followed the cultural traits of a specific community.

The production of meaning and sense under the terms of the culture of the university is primarily associated with the language that is developed in the institution. This language ends up to be a hegemonic discourse regulating the imaginaries and desires of the individuals at the institution. This institutional language includes educational, socio-cultural, historical, administrative and political components. It is this continuous crossing of languages culture makes the most sense and complexity. Consequently, it is not possible to restrict the idea of the culture of the university as unique, but a cluster of cultures that overlap through various expressions and cultural creations that are not scattered evenly, nor are they universal.

The innovation of the policy of Quality of Education is to present his rhetoric as the center of culture of the contemporary university, as the only way of doing and living the complexity of the academic world nowadays. In several investigations in which this article is supported and in particular, in a study conducted between 2006-2010, at the University of Guadalajara, in Mexico, it was found that academics, embody quality of education through acts of ritual behavior. The institution encourages scholars act better and to live or be better by treasuring greater deal of material goods, to dress better and to get more "culture". At this point, Quality of Education becomes a synonym for quality of life or bien-être. Let see a comment from one of the scholars' interviews at the University of Guadalajara:

Quality is a way of life, is not a resource is not an end, but once you know it you don't want to leave it. But it involves effort, commitment, and hard work is not sporadic, it does not come by spontaneous generation (Teacher, CUCEA, University of Guadalajara, Mexico, 2007).

Ritual acts can be identified at the time institutions recognizes the scholars because their academic work. In these acts, the institutional authority and power is reinforced, because in this logic, it is from the institutional power that makes sense social recognition. In general, the institution will be the legitimate subtract to recognize their academics production and trajectories. Another element within the ritualization of Quality of Education is the construction of monuments and totems, either physical or imaginaries.

For instance, accreditation of academic programs is usually accompanied by a ceremony and a monument, a plaque showing the institutional recognition the university has accomplished. Administrators of the university join together behind the monuments in order to commemorate and honored themselves for the academic work done. These monuments remain as historical marks that recall the achievements of the institution. All these dispositive of control help the entrepreneurs of memory.

Quality as the main public policy in Higher Education is the responsible for putting social recognition at the centre of the scholars' concerns and struggles, via the production of academic goods and capitals. These connections is not coincidental, but attained thanks that the economic capital (money) scholars receive as recognition of their academic production, that in fact, not in few times, is more representative than their own salary. In the last years, it is clearly noticed the increasing of incentives programs to recognize with money or tools for academic work in teaching and
research, with representative and desirable amount of money, which favors the competition for these amounts of money among scholars. Social recognition presents here a deformation of its nucleus of rationality, since it is subject to the scope of reaching it through competition in order to gain cultural, social and economic recognition.

In this sense, institutional rites for recognition serve to legitimize the group in power at the university and instantly and they give the capacity to this group to recognize an academic trajectory that has been built from scholars through several years. This power becomes from the logic of Althusser (1976), as the most clear expression of reproduction and domination by the institution, but according to in Honneth (1992), as the foundation of acts of an ideological recognition. Honneth (2007: 139) defines recognition as “the behavior of reaction from we respond rationally to value qualities that we have learnt to perceive in human beings according to an incarnation of a second nature in the world of life”.

Thought the policy of quality of education, the institutions transmit to their members the sense of social recognition as a way of adscription and institutional reproduction, and at the same time, the promise for all scholars of self realization and autonomy. However, when institutions of higher education take a priority role in the production or detection of new value human qualities, in such cases they impose modified models of social recognition by regulations and practices before it reaches expression in a narrative praxis in the world of life (Honneth, 2007).

The fact to be officially covered of complements by certain qualities or certain competences seems to have become an instrument of symbolic policy, whose underlying function is the integration of individuals in social groups within a dominant social origin and to provide them with a positive image of themselves (Honneth, 2007: 245).

In this type of recognition among scholars the core of rationality seems consistent; thanks to the ritual that accompanies it: celebrations, rites, the podium, the rigorous and protocol acts. One may think that this recognition is authentic. However, recognition for Honneth (2007), it is an institutional behavior, meaning that institutions have to keep their promise given as a continuous behavior.

The ideological shift occurs when institutions despite having granted recognition to the academic, do not keep their promise in the physical world. This means that the protocol, rites and ceremonies acts loses their value, among the contradictions of the institutions in accomplish their promise in the short, medium and long term. The institutional recognition fails in meeting the conditions imposed by it.

A clear example correlated with the ideological recognition in institutions of higher education is that these institutions can recognize scholars in public events for its production in research, but in a short or medium-term, the institutions may removed all the financial resources so that this academic may not be able to continue his/her research or teaching in the properly way. However, this is just one example; the lack of the promise may be equally intangible but with fundamental elements to maintain the social recognition: abuse of power, changing the rules in a negotiation, cutting academic opportunities, etc. These elements show the way how academics are oriented to a culture which eventually distorted the social recognition of these individuals.

5. Conclusions

Public policies in higher education have evolved in such a way in the past thirty years, managing to align the expansion of enrolment, the institutional evaluation and the quality of education as a new rhetoric of institutions of higher education worldwide. This rhetoric is capable of building institutional discourses which contents imaginaries and symbolic of the late capitalism. The imagery of the success achieved through individual competition, the accomplishment of excellence and the institutional recognition through an ideological component are strategies to lead individuals to self control, maintaining at the same time the institutional controls. The academics are compelled to live the ontology of Quality of Education.

The world of quality of education appears as pre-established scenery with rites, ceremonies and celebrations, rhetoric, speeches and statements, to establish in the scholars a form of habitus and ethos, and enable them to participate in the global market of goods of knowledge.

Despite the fact that education has historically been an asset at the moment it becomes a key element in the capital market of knowledge and the institutional prestige of universities around the world. Facing this situation questions arise regarding social recognition of academics: How to establish an identification link of scholars with the contemporary university within the framework of the late capitalism? What are the actions of resistance beyond the whispering conversations of academics in the corridors of the institutions of higher education? Definitely best players and outsiders are new exclusive categories that emerge from universities, thanks to the policy of quality of education, are these new
academic tribes more the once that are going to lead the university in the future? Or actually are they guiding the university sense and meaning at the present?

The struggle for scholars’ social recognition not only concerns the sanctions of educational policies, regulations or institutional control devices, they rather have to do directly with understanding the social, educational and professional trajectories of these individuals. In fact, it will not be only the academic programs, the structural policies of education or the different actions of the State or from the university’s authorities, that will define the future of the University, but mostly it is from the interpretation, comprehension and actions of scholars before the new *habitus* and *ethos* imposed directly on the educational community by the public policy of Quality of Education where one of the structural debates of the contemporary University will lie.

**References**


Managing Intellectual Capital to Confront the Challenges of Globalization

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Abstract: The world has changed dramatically during the last 20 years and the dawn of a new form of civilization has emerged as the new millennium begins. In this age of rapid, unexpected, and unpredictable changes with far reaching consequences, the role of governments, citizens, organized groups, nation-states, and societies is changing rapidly as well. Public and private organizations, and management systems, are being transformed by either choice or pressure and necessity of adaptation for survival. This article addresses intellectual capital as a new strategic asset in the age of globalization. After maximizing production factors such as land, buildings, equipment inventory and financial resources (the tangible assets), companies have discovered that the so-called intangible assets (hidden) asset of knowledge can play a vital role in helping them obtain a sustainable competitive advantage. To meet the challenges of globalization—negative as well as positive—capacity building is needed in areas of organization, management, governance, and public administration all over the world. The aim of this research is to investigate the different methods in managing intellectual capital due to the globalization status in different Algerian companies. The results indicate that without human capital (as a part of intellectual capital) nothing can be accomplished, and without a well-trained, well-developed, well-appreciated, and well-managed human capital, modern organizations of government and business cannot meet the challenges of the globalization age. It shows also that there is a lack comprehension of Algerian managers concerning how to manage intellectual capital in this new era.

Key words: Globalization – intellectual capital – new strategic – human capital – performance.

Introduction

According to Thomas L. Friedman, the globalization is in the third stage and work has become global knowledge work (Ichijo & Nonaka, 2007). In other words today we are in knowledge economy era. According to Drucker (1993) in the new economy, knowledge is the only meaningful resource. The traditional factors of production—land, labor and capital—have not disappeared but they become secondary. It is clear that in the knowledge economy, innovation which means the use of new technological and market knowledge to offer a new product or service that customers will require (Afuah, 2003) is playing a crucial role in gaining competitive advantage and maintaining sustainable growth for companies.

Along with governmental transformation, citizens are also transforming from the traditional passive or receptive role to the one that is highly demanding, challenging, and participating. New technologies and organizational networks are enable citizens to play a more active and powerful role in the governance and administration processes that affect their present as well as future lives.

Obviously, inequality persists and in fact widens rapidly between the rich and the poor, and between the rich nations of the industrialized world and those of the developed and less developed countries. All nation-states are challenged by the forces of rapid globalization and their governments’ sovereignty is being eroded by the new norms and organizations of the world order. There is also a widening gap between the few powerful nations that are home to globalizers and those

of the rest of the world that are being globalized and affected by the consequences of globalization and the new world order. Therefore, the challenges—positive as well as negative—facing the governance, administration, and management of developing nations are far more serious and more demanding than those in industrialized nations. (2)

These challenges present opportunities as well as severe constraints to the governments in these nations that are making efforts to develop their economies, to utilize and manage their resources, to promote the social welfare of their citizens, to advance in science and technology, and to improve their capacity in both governability and service delivery to their citizens. To counter and meet these challenges, all governments are forced to rethink the philosophy of government, to reconsider the modes of governance, and to redesign new systems and organizations of public administration and management. To accomplish these multiple objectives, a new vision is required that strategically places intellectual capital management as a key strategic instrument in meeting and managing the challenges of globalization.

Measuring intellectual capital is difficult. In the last decade various tools are proposed in the studies however the reliability of instmment still largely depends on the industry characteristics and objectivity of information. This study takes on a broader analytical perspective to allow observation of the multiple dimensions of intellectual capital.

1. Literature Review

1.1. Intellectual capital

The term "Intellectual Capital" (IC) was first published by John Kenneth Galbraith in 1969 (Hudson, 1993), but Stewart (2001a) claimed the first use back to 1958 when he started intellectual capital study with Itami who later published Mobilizing Invisible Assets in Japanese in 1980. In general, IC means more than just "intellect as pure intellect" but also a degree of "intellectual action" (Bontis, 1998; Feiwal, 1975). In that sense, intellectual capital is not only a static intangible asset per se, but an ideological process. It is the kind of movement from "having" knowledge and skills to "using" knowledge and skills.

Although historically the intellectual capital concept has been discussed for some decades, there is no consensus to its definition yet. One definition that has arisen from the Skandia team was that the intellectual capital represents the domain of knowledge, of practical experience, of organizational technology, of customer relation, of professional skills, that provides the company with relevant advantage in its market.

Intellectual capital management (ICM) is defined as the direction of the value-driven transformation of human and relational capital into the structural capital of the organization (Lynn, 1998). Corporate processes (e.g., recruitment, training and compensation) help foster creativity and innovation. Together with appropriate technology and structural capital they create and share organizational knowledge which, when exploited and applied to external knowledge and relational capital, produces corporate competitive advantage. (3)

Gratton and Ghoshal (2003) argue that intellectual capital is part of human capital, that is, human capital subsumes intellectual capital, and also includes within it social capital and emotional capital. Roos & al (1997). Intellectual capital includes all the processes and the assets which are not normally shown on the balance sheet and all the intangible assets (trademarks, patents and brands) which modern accounting methods consider ... it includes the sum of the knowledge of its members and the practical translation of his/her knowledge. Bontis (1998) defines IC as the pursuit of effective use of knowledge (the finished product) as opposed to information (the raw material). Olve et al. (1999) regarded IC as an element of the company’s market value as well as a market premium. Brooking (1996) defines IC as the term given to the combined intangible assets of -market, intellectual property, human- centered and infrastructure – which enable the company to function. (4)

Union Fenosa (1999), a top Spanish firm, defines intellectual capital as the set of intangible values that promote the organizational capability for generating profits now and in the future. (5)

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5. Patricia Ordonez de pablos, Evidence of intellectual capital measurement from Asia ,Europe and middle East, journal of intellectual capital, Vol 3,N 3,2002.p 288
1.2 Component of intellectual capital

There are different views about determining the component of intellectual capital in the article concerned. According to Edvinsson and Malone (1997), Intellectual Capital takes three basic forms: human capital, structural capital, and customer capital. Human capital includes knowledge, skills, and abilities of employees. In Figure (1)

Brooking (1996) suggests that Intellectual Capital is comprised of four types of assets: (i) market assets, (ii) intellectual property assets, (iii) human-centered assets and (iv) infrastructure assets.

Market assets consist of such things as brands, customers, distribution channels, and business collaborations. Intellectual property assets include patents, copyrights, and trade secrets. Human centered assets include education and work-related knowledge and competencies. Infrastructure assets include management processes, information technology systems, networking, and financial systems.

Generally intellectual capital consists of three types of capital; human capital, structural capital and relational capital. Intellectual capital can be located in its people, its structures and its relation with its stakeholders.

- **Human capital**: Human capital refers to the value of knowledge, skills and experience held by individual employees in a firm. (Edvinsson & Malone, 1997). It is the intangibles that rests within the minds of individuals, such as knowledge, competencies, know how, etc. Bontis (1999) argues that human capital is important because it is a source of innovation and strategic renewal, whether it is from brainstorming in a research lab, daydreaming at the office, throwing out old files, reengineering new processes, improving personal skills or developing new leads in a sales rep’s little black book. The essence of human capital is the sheer intelligence of the organizational member.

- **Structural Capital**: Structural capital includes all the non-human storehouses of knowledge in organizations which include the databases, organizational charts, process manuals, strategies, routines and anything whose value to the company is higher than its material value. Roos et al. (1998) describe structural capital as “what remains in the company when employees go home for the night” Structural capital results from processes and organizational value which reflect external and internal configuration of the company, and their development value in the future. According to Bontis (1998), if an organisation has poor systems and procedures by which to track its actions, the overall intellectual capital will not reach its fullest potential. Organizations with strong structural capital will have a supportive culture that allows individual to try new things, to learn, and to fail. Structural capital is the critical link that allows IC to be measured at the organizational level of analysis. This component of intellectual capital is the infrastructure firms develop to commercialize their intellectual capital (Edvinsson and Sullivan, 1996). It provides a platform for people to be creative (Stewart, 2000).

- **Relational capital**: The relationships the organization has established with resource providers, customers and other key stakeholders, relational capital represents the potential an organization has due to ex-firm intangibles. These intangibles include the knowledge embedded in customers, suppliers, the government or related industry associations Bontis, (1998).

It is the ensemble of intangible values matured in the relations of the firm with its external environment (clients, distributors, suppliers, investors).

![Figure 1. Edvinsson's Categorization of Capital](image)

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1.3 Organizational and environmental changes and intellectual capital

With many technological changes occurring both in education, work, and homes, many changes have been observed, measured, analyzed, and discussed in terms of intellectual capital. As a result of changing technology and economic times, many organizations are realizing the need to update, innovate, and rejuvenate. InCaS (2010) noted that “As a result of constant changes caused by globalization, emerging technologies and shorter product life-cycles, knowledge and innovation have already become the main competitive advantages of many companies. Especially European small and medium-sized enterprises (SME) are highly dependent on the ability to identify changes in their global economic environment quickly and respond to these changes with suitable solutions.”

1.4 Management Measures of Intellectual Capital:

If enterprises want to acquire advantages in the market competition, they should not only innovate upon products, marketing channel, market and service, but enhance the R&D ability of market and product, and specially pay attention to the cultivation and management of enterprise Intellectual Capital. The target of Intellectual Capital management is to distinguish, acquire, utilize and circle Intellectual Capitals to enhance the value production ability of the enterprise.

1.4.1 Strengthening the management of enterprise knowledge resources

The knowledge resource of the enterprise means the resources which can be utilized repeatedly by the enterprise, are based on the information and technology, and bring wealth growth for the enterprise. It generally includes three aspects, i.e. the intangible assets created and possessed by the enterprise (such as brand, reputation, channel, technical flow, management mode and method, information network), information resource (various information about enterprise management acquired by the information network), intelligence resource (various knowledge which can be utilized by the enterprise and exist in human resources of the enterprise, and ability which can utilize knowledge in a creative way).

It is obvious that the knowledge resource could create large market opportunity and wealth for the enterprise. Because the role of knowledge resource in the survival and development of the enterprise is more and more important, and the management of knowledge resource has turned into the most important content of the enterprise management, and the management of knowledge resource is a kind of comprehensive management, and it comes down to many domains such as human resource management, production management, marketing management, intellectual property protection, establishment of public relations, technology and information management. The intention of knowledge resource management is to offer new technology, method and environment to harmonize, support laborers’ creation, distribution and utilization of knowledge, and finally enhance the core competitive ability of the enterprise. The main content of knowledge resource management generally include following aspects, i.e. the organization system and operation standards of generating, utilizing and transferring knowledge resources of enterprise, the investment management of knowledge resources such as the training of human resources, the introduction of information and technology, and the establishment of enterprise image, the establishment of the knowledge repository to improve the sharing of knowledge, the improvement of knowledge innovation to integrate created knowledge into products, services and production process, the protection of intellectual property, the output assessment, income distribution, confirmation and evaluation of knowledge resources.

1.4.2 Reinforcing an intern and extern companies knowledge management

As viewed from the range of knowledge management, the knowledge management comes down to the interior management and the exterior knowledge management. The interior knowledge management includes the generation, communication, accumulation and application of knowledge in the interior of the enterprise. The interior management of enterprise knowledge should build a loose environment which is propitious to generate, communicate with and validate knowledge for employees, establish an information network in the interior of the enterprise convenient for employees to communicate with knowledge, constitute various encouragement polices for the knowledge communication among

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employees, utilize various knowledge database and patent database to store and accumulate knowledge, loosen the control of knowledge application and encourage employees to carve out their own careers in the interior of the enterprise and promote the application of knowledge. The intention of the exterior management of knowledge is to effectively manage knowledge by the communication and the cooperation among enterprise, and accumulate more knowledge for the enterprise and acquire more benefits. The exterior management of knowledge should make the enterprise to effectively communicate and share knowledge with other enterprises, and effectively cooperate with other special exterior suppliers of knowledge, and share knowledge, develop and cultivate the market with the competitors together.

1.4.3 Strengthening the management of explicit knowledge and implicit knowledge

As viewed from the management form of knowledge, knowledge can be divided into explicit knowledge and implicit knowledge. Explicit knowledge mainly means the knowledge existing by the forms such as patents, scientific invention and special technology. And the implicit knowledge means employees’ creationary knowledge and ideas, and it only exists in employees’ heads, which can not be observed and understood definitely by others. At present, many technologies and methods can be used to manage explicit knowledge, for example, the explicit knowledge such as patent and special technologies which can be stored in the database, and checked and used by the computer network to share them with others. Because electric information can span the obstacles induced by duties and classes in the daily contacts, make the communications among peoples more freely, and make the communication effect more effective. Therefore, enterprises must learn to use this new information and knowledge disposal tool, and grasp the new knowledge, new information and new trends in the world, and utilize all human treasures of knowledge to quicken their development.

2. Empirical study

2.1. Objective and methodology

The model of this study is translate from the study of A. Sharbaty; S. Djawd & N. Bontis (2010) that examine the interrelation between the intellectual capital and business performance in the pharmaceutical sector of Jordan.

Intellectual capital in this study was defined as the total stocks of all kinds of intangible assets, knowledge, capabilities, and relationships, etc. at employee level and organization level, within a company. The aim of this study is to investigate the relationship between intellectual capital and business performance in the age of globalization. We referred to literatures to classified intellectual capital into human capital, structural capital and relational capital. “Human capital” in this study was defined as the summation of employees’ knowledge, skills, capabilities, experience, attitude, wisdom, creativities, and commitment, etc. and was embedded in employees, not organizations. A company can increase its innovation performance through its human capital, “structural capital” was defined as the stocks of organizational capabilities, organizational commitment, knowledge management systems, reward systems, information technology systems, databases, managerial institution, operation processes, managerial philosophies, organizational culture, company images, patents, copyrights, and trademarks, etc. within a company; it is embedded in organizations, and thereby cannot be taken away by employees. Relational capital represents all the knowledge embedded in relationships with external parties such as customers, suppliers, partners and other external stakeholders. The purpose of this study has been done to investigate the relationship of intellectual capital in the Algerian companies upon their innovation performance. The hypotheses are described as follows:

H1: Intellectual capital is positively associated with business performance in Algerian companies.
H2: Human capital is positively associated with business performance in Algerian companies.
H3: Structural capital is positively associated with business performance in Algerian companies.
H4: Relational capital is positively associated with business performance in Algerian companies.

2.2. Data Collection and Samples

This study tested hypotheses with a questionnaire survey that was conducted in Algerian companies. The data for this study was collected throughout a field survey. There were 17 organizations in different sectors in Algeria. The entire population was chosen to explore the topic of intellectual capital, thus negating any need for sampling. The survey unit of analysis was composed of top and middle managers and the executers drawn from the Algerian
companies’ population. Financial information was also collected from annual reports, journals, books, and trade magazines. Primary information was also collected from expert interviews, and a pilot study conducted by the research team.

![Figure 2: Conceptual model](image)

### 2.3 Results:

In order to test for the normal distribution of response data, Cronbach’s alpha was used to test the reliability of the measures. All variable and sub-variable items were confirmed valid since their factor loading values were more than 0.4. This result mirrors previous studies conducted by Bontis (1998), Bollen et al.(2005) and Bin Ismail (2005); as shown in the table : 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Cronbach’s alpha</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Human capital</td>
<td>0.8202</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Structural capital</td>
<td>0.8886</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relational capital</td>
<td>0.8167</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business performance</td>
<td>0.7846</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Pearson’s bi-variate correlation coefficient was used to test the relationship between independent and dependent variables. The result showed that the intellectual capital variables and sub-variables had a weak and significant relationship with innovation performance. An ANOVA test was then used to analyze respondents’ characteristics related to gender, age, education, role and experience.

The data for the study were collected from 120 respondents from various different services companies. As per the table-2 demographic profiles of the respondents where male participants in the study was 24 where female participants consisted 13 of the total population. The almost of the respondent have the license diploma, it consists73%. Age wise distribution depicts 31-40 age group dominates in the study consisting of more than 40% of the total sample. The respondents having more than 5 years of experience at current organization is very well present in the study consisting of 53.8% of the total sample

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parameter</th>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sex</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>68.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>31.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>20-30</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>26.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>31-40</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>41-50</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>27.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&gt; 50</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>5.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Study level</td>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>21.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
License Post graduate
91 3
75.8 2.5

Role
General manager 6 5
Trade commercial 17 14.2
Account 16 13.3
Branch manager 18 15
Others 63 52.5

Experience
> 5 years 46 38.3
< 5 years 47 61.7

Total 120 100

Table 3 depicts the mean scores of each variable and its corresponding construct. Generally speaking, all items scored in the affirmative (1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree, with 3 the mid-point) with mean values greater than 3.0. The only item below the mid-point was the use of intellectual property at 2.80.

### Table 3: Statistical results of summary variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Intellectual capital</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std-dev</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Human capital</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Learning and education</td>
<td>3.80</td>
<td>0.972</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Employees satisfaction</td>
<td>3.68</td>
<td>1.088</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Innovation and creation</td>
<td>3.67</td>
<td>1.078</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Structural capital</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Systems and programs</td>
<td>3.56</td>
<td>1.070</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Research &amp; development</td>
<td>3.58</td>
<td>1.097</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Intellectual property rights</td>
<td>3.42</td>
<td>0.994</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relational capital</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Customers satisfaction</td>
<td>3.94</td>
<td>0.887</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Knowledge about partners, suppliers and customers</td>
<td>3.87</td>
<td>0.894</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Alliances, licensing and agreements</td>
<td>3.78</td>
<td>0.992</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business performance</td>
<td>4.14</td>
<td>0.690</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Productivity</td>
<td>3.99</td>
<td>0.693</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Profit</td>
<td>4.19</td>
<td>0.699</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Market value</td>
<td>4.26</td>
<td>0.678</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As defined in table-4, the regression equation of the business performance with human capital, structural capital and relational capital.

The regression equation of business performance component with human capital and structural capital clearly depict the model is poorly fit with R less than 0.5. Structural capital has a strong relationship with R value 0.550.

The effects of human capital, structural capital and relational capital on business performance are not significant with R value 0.150, 0.114 and 0.123 in this arrangement and intellectual capital as a whole has a little influence on business performance with R value 0.086.

### Table 4: Business performance Vs intellectual capital

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Business Performance</th>
<th>Intellectual capital</th>
<th>Multiple R</th>
<th>$R^2$</th>
<th>Std.Error</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Human capital</td>
<td>0.383</td>
<td>0.147</td>
<td>0.055</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Structural capital</td>
<td>0.391</td>
<td>0.153</td>
<td>0.048</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relational capital</td>
<td>0.55</td>
<td>0.302</td>
<td>0.057</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intellectual capital</td>
<td>0.495</td>
<td>0.245</td>
<td>0.020</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results related to path analysis showed that the three sub-constructs of intellectual capital together have a positive and weak relationship with business performance.
Table 5 represents a correlation matrix across all variables with only the component of intellectual capital and intellectual capital values being statistically significant (p < 0.01).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>8</th>
<th>9</th>
<th>10</th>
<th>11</th>
<th>12</th>
<th>13</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Learning and education</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Employees satisfaction</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Innovation and creation</td>
<td>0.583</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Human capital</td>
<td>0.830</td>
<td>0.911</td>
<td>0.900</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Systems and programs</td>
<td>0.546</td>
<td>0.538</td>
<td>0.507</td>
<td>0.587</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Research and development</td>
<td>0.543</td>
<td>0.645</td>
<td>0.563</td>
<td>0.651</td>
<td>0.686</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Intellectual property rights</td>
<td>0.529</td>
<td>0.624</td>
<td>0.616</td>
<td>0.663</td>
<td>0.639</td>
<td>0.694</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Structural capital</td>
<td>0.610</td>
<td>0.670</td>
<td>0.629</td>
<td>0.710</td>
<td>0.907</td>
<td>0.865</td>
<td>0.873</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Customers satisfaction</td>
<td>0.435</td>
<td>0.473</td>
<td>0.456</td>
<td>0.506</td>
<td>0.531</td>
<td>0.487</td>
<td>0.472</td>
<td>0.565</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Knowledge about partners</td>
<td>0.289</td>
<td>0.410</td>
<td>0.480</td>
<td>0.461</td>
<td>0.469</td>
<td>0.272</td>
<td>0.500</td>
<td>0.487</td>
<td>0.606</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Alliances, licensing and</td>
<td>0.385</td>
<td>0.399</td>
<td>0.477</td>
<td>0.472</td>
<td>0.550</td>
<td>0.48</td>
<td>0.523</td>
<td>0.592</td>
<td>0.497</td>
<td>0.480</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Relational capital</td>
<td>0.722</td>
<td>0.804</td>
<td>0.799</td>
<td>0.875</td>
<td>0.817</td>
<td>0.778</td>
<td>0.826</td>
<td>0.915</td>
<td>0.714</td>
<td>0.676</td>
<td>0.681</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Business performance</td>
<td>0.350</td>
<td>0.285</td>
<td>0.360</td>
<td>0.383</td>
<td>0.369</td>
<td>0.291</td>
<td>0.358</td>
<td>0.391</td>
<td>0.445</td>
<td>0.516</td>
<td>0.384</td>
<td>0.495</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 5: Correlation matrix**

*Note: All correlation values are significant at the 0.01 level (two-tailed)*

### 2.3. Discussion

The present study found that each of the three types of intellectual capital to be associated with increased business performance. Human capital, structural capital and relational capital exhibited weak relationship with business performance. The results of this study have shown that there is in fact strong and positive evidence that Algerian firms are managing intellectual capital effectively and that in turn is influencing business performance positively.

Human capital exhibited strong relationship with performance lending support to the widespread anecdotal evidence suggesting that talented people are critical ingredient in developing and delivering superior products and services that generate high consumer demand. Hence the elements of human capital management are central to the successful implementation of most other management initiatives and achieving the firm's strategic goal. Social capital is regarded as the strongest predicator of performance.

The relationship between structural capital and performance become statistically significant in the study with weakness relationship. Since individuals form the basis of organizational level of learning and knowledge accumulation (Structural Capital) and knowledge institutionalization and knowledge sharing is lowly encouraged in Algerian industries, there is weak co-relation between structural capitals with its bottom line.

These results refer the necessary to increase the awareness of the manager, the important of the component of the intellectual capital in result to increase the business performance and this is important to meet the challenge of the globalization.
Conclusion

The management of intellect lies at the heart of value in the current “knowledge era” of business. Unfortunately, methods of measuring and evaluating intellectual capital have been slow to develop. There is an extremely limited literature on the study and management of intellectual capital. This is partly due to the privacy that accompanies most organizations and their discussion on intellectual capital. Continued research of this phenomenon should show that organizations with a high level of intellectual capital will be those in which the value-added service of the firm comes from deep professional knowledge, organizational learning, and protection and security of information. Managers, analysts and researchers should also be wary of looking for a formula of intellectual capital. By definition, the tacitness of intellectual capital may not allow analysts to ever measure it using economic variables. A warning must be sent out to those accountants and financial analysts who are asking the question, “How much is my intellectual capital worth?” A formula may never exist. This article has addressed intellectual capital (in particularly human capital) as key instruments for capacity building and enhancement in the age of accelerated globalization of corporate capitalism and rapidly changing global environment that challenge governance and public management worldwide.

Such a capacity building enables the governments and public managers to not only perform the functions of today, but also move beyond by using strategic choices to control destiny through capabilities of an anticipatory and future oriented system of governance and public management.

The article concludes that essential to national development, to sound governance and Algerian public administration is the dire need to manage their hidden assets that serves as capacity building to meet the challenges of globalization of Algerian companies. No organization can function without competent and co-operative people, and strategic human resource management is central to the development and enhancement of sound governance and public management. Further research and writings are needed in this critical area of globalization, especially, in less developed countries. Today’s managers need the cutting edge information for tomorrow.

References


Patricia Ordonez de pablos, Evidence of intellectual capital measurement from Asia, Europe and middle East, journal of intellectual capital, Vol 3, N 3, 2002.


Store Image’s Influence on Perceived Quality of Store Brands and Store Brand Purchasing Behavior

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Abstract In the marketing literature store image and its dimensions are identified and studied by many researchers. However, its influence on consumers’ “store brand purchase” and its “perceived quality” is rarely studied for different product categories (food, non-food). In this framework, the purpose of this study is to examine store image and its influence on the consumers’ store brand choice and perceived quality of store brands. Store image dimensions’ effect on each mentioned variable is tested on a sample of 378 customers who usually shop from hypermarkets in Ankara, Turkey. As there are too many store image variables, initially factor analysis is applied to group the store image variables in order to reduce the number of variables to a smaller set of independent factors. In the second step, “store image dimensions and store brand purchase” and “store image dimensions and perceived quality of store brands” are investigated with the Regression Analysis. ANOVA was applied to identify the variances between perceived quality of food and non-food categories. It was found that store atmosphere dimension of store image affects perceived quality of store brands. Perceived quality of store brands affects the purchasing of store brands whereas any of the store image dimensions does not. In food and non-food categories perceived quality of store brands effect store brand purchasing. In non-food category, store atmosphere dimension of store image affects perceived quality of these products.

Keywords: store image, store brands, consumer purchase behavior, perceived quality, product category (food, non-food)

1. Introduction

Positive store image is a key asset for retailers to achieve and sustain success in an increasingly competitive marketplace (Grewal et al., 1998). Because of this, retailers are trying to make their customers perceive their store image positively. Store brands - that are unique to the store - may increase customer traffic, generate greater store loyalty (Corstjens and Lal, 2000; Richardson et. al. 1996) and contribute to profitability (Corstjens and Lal, 2000). For example, in Britain and USA, store brands have helped retailers have profit margins close to 8 and 1-2 percent of sales respectively (Richardson et al., 1994).

Turkey concerning retailing is a very attractive market. Growth rate of retailing is stated to reach 18%. The more the market’s growth rate, the more is the competition among the retailers. In this tough economic condition, the critical element of success for the retailer is their store image and store brands. Retailers who manage their image effectively can influence consumers’ store patronage decisions and improve their competitive position (Grewal et al., 1998). Although it is not that much early to adapt store brands in Turkey as in the US or other European countries, according to Retailing Institute growth rate of store brands in Turkey is 69%, 39%, 34% respectively in 2002, 2003 and 2004 (Bas, 2007: 53).

In this context, evaluating the transferability of a positive store image to the store brands can be useful for managers since store brands represent a crucial source of differentiation among retailers. Store image composed of many dimensions and knowing which dimensions of store image contribute positively to the perceived quality of store brands can provide retailers strategic advantage. By investing in those specific dimensions, they can gain the advantage of store image on the one hand and on the other hand transfer this positive image to the perceived quality of their store brands, which are generally perceived as low quality compared to the national brands (Omar, 1996; Richardson et. al. 1996). A

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1 This paper is a revised form that was published in the proceedings of 7th International Congress Marketing Trends by Gültekin and Özer (2008).
store brand can be successful in one category whereas not in other category. This may be because of the variances in promotional activities, design of package, the perceived quality of store brands in different product categories and/or may be the store image. In the marketing literature store image and its dimensions are identified and studied by many researchers. However, store image’s influence on consumers’ store brand purchasing with its effect on perceived quality is rarely studied. Therefore, the purpose of this study is to examine the influence of a set of dimensions of store image on customers’ perceptions about the quality of store brands in the specific context of Turkey. In different product categories such as food and non-food are the other findings of this research. Hence, the objectives of the study are three fold (1) to determine if the hypermarket’s store image affects the perceived quality of store brands (2) if it is the case, on which dimensions of store image they play to generate a maximum of benefits for the perceived quality of store brands (3) to determine whether store brands’ quality affects store brand purchasing behavior and (4) to identify whether the store image dimensions affects store brand purchasing behavior.

Our research provides retailers with preliminary answers to those questions and contributes to literature in retailing since there is a limited number of empirical studies (Collins-Dodd and Lindley, 2003; Semeijn et. al. 2004) especially in Turkey investigating the links between store image dimensions and perceived quality of store brands.

This study starts with a brief review of literature about store image, its dimensions and store brands’ perceived quality that leads to the development of hypotheses. The research methodology is then presented, followed by the results drawn from the sample. Finally, the most important contributions, managerial implications and limitations of our research are presented.

2. Store Image and Store Image Dimensions

Martineau (1958, p. 47) defined the store image as “the way in which the store is defined in the shopper’s mind, partly by its functional qualities and partly by an aura of psychological attributes.” For James et al. (1976) store image is “a set of attitudes based upon evaluation of those store attributes deemed important by consumers.” Parallel to this view, Engel and Blackwell (Mazursky and Jacoby, 1986) defined store image as “one type of attitude, measured across a number of dimensions hopefully reflecting salient attributes.” Bloemer and Ruyter (1998, p. 501) defined store image as “the complex of a consumer’s perceptions of a store on different (salient) attributes.” There are some little differences among authors with respect to dimensions of store image. The store image attributes applied in this study is adapted from the related literature (Baker et. al. 1992; Bloemer and Ruyter 1998; Chowdhury et. al. 1998; Cudmore 2000; Mazursky and Jacoby 1986; Richardson et. al. 1994; Samli et. al. 1998; Semeijn et. al. 2004; Collins-Dodd and Lindley 2003). Store image dimensions commonly mentioned by those studies are product variety, products’ quality, prices, store atmosphere, employee service and location/convenience.

3. Effect of Store Image Dimensions on Perceived Quality

Store image can be a determinant of product quality (Collins-Dodd and Lindley 2003; Wheatley and Chiu 1977). Consumers use store image dimensions to form an overall evaluation that will not only affect their attitude toward the store as a whole but also their attitude towards the store brands. Moreover, as consumers think positively toward a store, their evaluations for its store brands will be more positive (Semeijn et al., 2004). Collins-Dodd and Lindley (2003) also found the effect of products’ quality that the store offers to its customers on the attitude toward the store brands. It has been shown that merchandise (quality and assortment) influences positively consumers’ attitude towards the store brand (Semeijn et al. 2004). So, it was hypothesized that:

**H1.** Consumers’ perceptions about merchandise variety positively affect the perceived quality of store brands.

**H2.** Consumers’ perceptions about merchandise quality positively affect the perceived quality of store brands.

With respect to the price dimension of store image, Collins-Dodd and Lindley (2003) reported that low prices in the supermarkets do not have any impact on consumers’ attitudes towards store brands. It may be because of the product specific nature of price’s effects on quality perceptions (Wheatley and Chiu, 1977). Product’s price solely is an indicator of perceived quality (Richardson et al. 1994) whereas price level in the store is not. That is why it is not hypothesized to have an effect of price dimension of store image on perceived store brands quality.

Semeijn et al. (2004) showed that service (knowledgeable, courteous and helpful employees, no problems when returning items, convenient opening hours) could influence consumers’ attitude towards store brands. Consumers may believe that a store offering services of good quality (essentially, by the intermediary of its salespeople) is likely to stock and recommend products of quality (Jacoby and Mazursky, 1984; Sweeney et al. 1999).

**H3.** Consumers’ perceptions about the service positively affect the perceived quality of store brands.
According to environmental psychology, environmental factors such as interior design, store layout, lighting, color, music, overall cleanliness of the store, etc. influence the customer response (Richardson et al. 1996). The shopper may believe that the store brands of a positively featured store may have good quality (Richardson et al. 1996). Collins-Dodd and Lindley (2003) found store atmosphere have a positive influence on store brands’ quality. In addition, Richardson et al. (1996) showed that store brand quality was perceived as higher in an aesthetically attractive store than in an aesthetically unattractive one. Aesthetically attractive store were described as stores with wide aisles, creative layout, bright colors, modern fixtures, and a clean retail environment.

**H4.** Consumers’ perceptions about the store atmosphere positively affect the perceived quality of store brands.

**H5.** Consumers’ perceptions about the store layout positively affect the perceived quality of store brands.

As store brands are becoming more popular nowadays, the reason for this was stated as the quality of store brands (Miquel et al. 2002). This may be related to the consumer buying habits. Consumers’ perception about a store may be like whatever was purchased from that store is the very best product that money can buy (Fitzell, 1992: 192). Netemeyer et al. (2003) also reported that perceived quality and perceived value for cost affects not only brand purchase but also the willingness to pay a price premium. Non-buyers and rarely buyers of store brands may be more cautious or biased against the quality of store brands compared to frequent users. The reason for not/rarely buying store brands may be because of perceiving the quality of those products lower. They may perceive store brands as lower quality products than frequent buyers. So, it is hypothesized that:

**H6.** The perceived quality of store brands positively affects store brand purchasing.

Buckley (Grewal et. al. 1998) found a link between store image and intention to purchase a product. Purchase intentions are used in the literature as a predictor of subsequent purchase behavior (Grewal et. al. 1998). Omar (Omar 1996) also suggested that consumers while shopping for groceries are influenced by store image. That’s why it is hypothesized that:

**H7.** Store image positively affects customers’ store brand purchasing.

Marketing literature has revealed that very little is known about the differences in factors affecting consumers’ food choice and non-food choice for store brands. In this study, store image’s effect on store branded products’ perceived quality and consumers purchasing are also investigated in the context of food and non-food categories.

### 4. Methodology

#### 4.1. Questionnaire Design

The measuring tool for store image was a self-administered questionnaire containing 19 items. The measuring scale used was a 5-point Likert scale as 1 strongly disagree and 5 strongly agree. The items considered evaluate the following factors: merchandise variety (4 items), merchandise quality (2 items), store atmosphere (9 items), store layout (2 items), service (4 items). Those items were adapted from previous store image studies (Baker et. al. 1992; Bloemer and Ruyter 1998; Chowdhury et. al. 1998; Cudmore 2000; Mazursky and Jacoby 1986; Richardson et. al. 1994; Samli et. al. 1998; Semeijn et. al. 2004). A five-point Likert scale utilized to measure store image, using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). The questionnaire considered additional questions concerning perceived quality of store brands (Compared to other brands of (product), (brand name) is of very high quality (Netemeyer, 2003)), store brand purchasing behavior (how often -never, rarely, sometimes, often, and always- do you buy this hypermarket’s store branded products (Dick et. al. 1995)) and product category (food, non-food), as well as socio-demographic information (age, gender, education, income).

#### 4.2. Sampling

The questionnaire has been administered by face-to-face on a sample of 378 Turkish consumers. Nowadays in Turkey there are an increasing number of stores esp. hypermarkets and the competition among them has never been so strong. As a result, it becomes harder for retailers to attract consumers and to differentiate their store image from the others which in turn may affect their store brands’ perceived quality. The survey was conducted after the customers had finished their shopping in the hypermarket. Most of the respondents accepted to participate are average income earner and university graduates, 61 % of them are women. Table 1 provides the demographic profile of the sample in detail. Distribution of the consumers according to the usage rate of store brands is as follows: 22 % of respondents are non-buyers, 26 % rarely buyers, 36% sometimes buyers, 15 % often buyers and 0.8% of the participants always buy store brands. In addition, 27% of participants’ who buy store brands preference of the store brands is food category (milk,
pulses, delicatessen, sugar, yoghurt etc.), whereas 54% of them prefer non-food (detergents, cleaning materials etc.) category.

Table 1. Demographic Profile of the Sample

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographic variables</th>
<th>Frequency (n)</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>232</td>
<td>61.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>146</td>
<td>38.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20-29</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>13.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30-39</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>40.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40-49</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>27.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50 +</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>18.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Income Level</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>6.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>307</td>
<td>81.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>12.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education Level</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High School</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>30.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Undergraduate</td>
<td>152</td>
<td>40.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Graduate</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>28.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5. Analysis and Findings

Stepwise principal component factor analysis was applied to identify factors (KMO: 0.816; 2271.701, df. 171, sig.000). The factors identified as store atmosphere, merchandise variety, service, layout, merchandise quality. Three items are excluded from the analysis based on low communality values (<0.50). Their factor loadings and cronbach alpha coefficients showing their reliability are given in Table 2.

The reliability of the store image factors were found to be acceptable as given in Table 2.

Table 2. Store Image Factor Loadings

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Store Image Variables</th>
<th>Merchandise Atmosphere (α = 0.71)</th>
<th>Merchandise Variety (α = 0.78)</th>
<th>Service (α = 0.73)</th>
<th>Layout (α = 0.71)</th>
<th>Merchandise Quality (α = 0.65)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>This store smells nice.</td>
<td>0.763</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Air conditioner is adapted according to weather.</td>
<td>0.667</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I like the music played in the store</td>
<td>0.653</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I like colors used in this hypermarket.</td>
<td>0.602</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I can find everything I need in this hypermarket</td>
<td>0.828</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I can find everything that I am looking for.</td>
<td>0.765</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I can’t find the items I’m trying to find (R)</td>
<td>0.695</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This hypermarket has a variety of products.</td>
<td>0.691</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employees are helpful</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.738</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When I have a problem employees are trying to solve sympathically</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.714</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No problems when returning items</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.702</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sales promotions are attractive</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.634</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This hypermarket’s is a nice place to shop</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.638</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I like this hypermarket’s layout.</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.588</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Products are fresh</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.814</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am satisfied with the products I bought</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.790</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In order to get a profile of the data, correlation matrix is given in Table 3. Most of the variables are significantly correlated, stating that the store image variables, which hypothesized to affect the perceived quality of store brands and store brand purchasing behavior, are related.

### Table 3. Correlation Matrices

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>8</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SB purchasing behavior</td>
<td>2.47</td>
<td>1.02</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SB perceived quality</td>
<td>3.30</td>
<td>1.09</td>
<td>0.496**</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Merchandise variety</td>
<td>4.35</td>
<td>0.68</td>
<td>-0.027</td>
<td>0.115*</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Merchandise quality</td>
<td>4.21</td>
<td>0.87</td>
<td>0.018</td>
<td>0.131*</td>
<td>0.251**</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Service</td>
<td>4.02</td>
<td>0.76</td>
<td>0.121*</td>
<td>0.150**</td>
<td>0.261**</td>
<td>0.229**</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Store atmosphere</td>
<td>3.69</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td>0.115*</td>
<td>0.235**</td>
<td>0.331**</td>
<td>0.266**</td>
<td>0.428**</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Layout</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td>0.122*</td>
<td>0.198**</td>
<td>0.333**</td>
<td>0.335**</td>
<td>0.368**</td>
<td>0.504**</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

** p<0.01  
* p<0.05

Multiple regression analysis was conducted to test the hypotheses. Perceived quality of store brands was regressed on the store image factors such as merchandise variety, merchandise quality, price, service, store atmosphere and layout as given in Table 4. Regression parameters revealed that store atmosphere (β = 0.227; t = 2.541) affected the perceived quality of store brands (p<0.05; R²= 0.068) where as merchandise variety, merchandise quality, price, service, and layout were not (p>0.05). The more highly a consumer thinks of a store atmosphere the more positively she/he will evaluate store brands. According to the results given H4 supported. On the other hand, merchandise variety, merchandise quality, service, and layout were not found to influence perceived quality of store brands (p>0.05); H1, H2, H3, and H5 are therefore not supported by the data.

To investigate the effect of perceived quality of store brands and store image on store brand purchasing behavior regression analysis was performed. It was found that perceived quality of store brands (β = 0.505; t= 10.787; p<0.001) affected store brand purchasing behavior positively (R²=0.253). As the quality of store brands increases, consumers store brand purchasing behavior also increases. Hence, consumers store brand quality perceptions about the store brands influence consumers store brands purchasing behavior in a positive sense and H5 is supported. In addition, to test the effect of store image on the consumers store brand purchasing behavior of consumers, regression analysis was performed. The effect of store image (B = 0.113; t= 2.18) on store brand purchasing was found to be significant (R² = 0.013; p<0.05) supporting H6.

Other findings of this study are about the consumers’ perceptions about the category variances based on the regression analysis results. In non-food category, store atmosphere (β= 0.340; p<0.001) dimension of store image affected perceived quality of store brands positively (R² =0.094). On the other hand, in food category, the effect of store image on the perceived quality of store brands is found to be statistically non-significant. In addition, in food (β= 0.236; p<0.01; R² =0.082) and non- food (β= 0.251; p<0.001; R² =0.100;) categories, perceived quality of store brands had an influence of store brand purchasing.

### 6. Discussion

This study contributes to the literature by illustrating that store image is a major strategic tool in the highly competitive retailing environment (Reardon and Miller, 1995). Indeed this research shows that the store image – and more particularly the store atmosphere influences perceived quality of store brands. The more positively the customers’ perceptions of store atmosphere the more positively the store brands will be perceived. These findings are consistent with the literature (Richardson et. al., 1996; Michon et. al., 2004; Semeijn et. al., 2004).
This study also extends Richardson et. al. (1996)’s as paying attention on the potential variances in the quality perception in different product categories (food, non-food). Consumers are influenced by the store atmosphere in assessing non-food category of store brands. In the contrary, in the food category, store image does not affect perceived quality.

Moreover, consumers’ perception about the quality of store brands is found to have an influence on their store brand purchasing. As consumers perceive store brands of quality, they purchase those products more frequently. In addition to these findings, store image does not affect store brands perceived quality and perceived quality of store brands affects purchasing behavior in food category. In non-food category store brands perceived quality is affected by store atmosphere and perceived quality affects store brand purchasing. Store image is influential for non-food whereas for food is not. This variance according to category may be because of different perceptions of risks devoted to those categories. Hence, consumers may be more open to external cues for non-food but may perceive food category more risky (i.e. performance risk) and pay more attention on its product specific cues instead of store image dimensions. Hence, store image dimensions may not overcome these risks in the food category. To reduce risks consumers most possibly will prefer national brands to store brands as quality variance increase within a product category (Semeijn et. al. 2004).

From a managerial point of view, this research has specific implications in terms of resource allocation for improvement programs of consumers’ quality perceptions about store brands. This study shows the relevance of the implementation of strategies oriented to store image improvements. On our sample, it was shown that investments in store atmosphere could have a positive impact on consumers’ perceptions about store brands quality. Furthermore, it was found that retailers should focus their efforts especially on store atmosphere for non-food category. Moreover, store image has a statistically significant, but a little impact on store brand purchasing. Retailers should therefore implement other marketing decisions than store image to attract new buyers of store brands, such as if possible “trial of store brands in the store” which was found to benefit the perceived quality of store brands positively (Sprott and Shimp, 2004).

7. Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research

A key limitation of this research is the measurement of perceived quality of store brands with only one item. Intrinsic (i.e. product performance, taste, smell) and extrinsic cues (package, price, brand name) could have been measured. In addition to intrinsic and extrinsic cues, other important store image dimensions that may affect perceived quality such as the store’s attractiveness, involvement of the store in community programs, customer profile, and customers’ general attitude towards the store could be evaluated. Participants’ income and education level was mostly medium and university graduates respectively. This study can be replicated in a larger sample to generate other levels of demographic variables. In this study hypermarkets’ store image was measured, future research can overcome the mentioned limitations and replicate the study by a cross cultural research or/and in other types of stores such as convenience stores, specialty stores, supermarkets. Moderating role of perceived quality of store brands on the relationship between store image and store brand purchasing may be evaluated for future research.

References


From Dictatorship to Democracy in Portugal:
The use of Communication as a Political Strategy

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Abstract: Like in every Fascist Regime, with its wide range of limited freedom, in Portugal, the New State forbade the freedom of speech and started controlling the Media, by using them to promote the Regime. The political speeches by António de Oliveira Salazar with the old political ideas of "God", Homeland and "Family" of the authoritarian Regimes became state dogmas from the thirties of the 20th century on. As Salazar stated, “Only what we know that exists truly exists”. According to this thought a great propaganda strategy of absolute certainties was created. The State even created a Secretariat for the National Propaganda which aimed to frame the social everyday life into the spirit of the Regime. From the forties on, due to international happenings there is a decrease of the ideological propaganda speech of the Government, since the main aim was the political survival. The fall of Dictatorship, in April 1974, made the freedom of speech possible. However there wasn’t a State impartiality regarding the Media. The revolution strategists immediately used the radio and the newspapers to spread news pro the political rebellion and the television to present themselves to the country. It is obvious that with the abolition of censorship there was a radical change in the system of political communication. But a long time of Democracy was necessary for the Media not to suffer political and governmental pressure.

Keywords: Portugal, dictatorship, democracy, propaganda, political, media

Introduction

The Dictatorship which was settled in Portugal with the State attack that took place on the 28th May 1926, had its apogee with António de Oliveira Salazar’s Regime, known as the New State.

Salazar was in favour of a policy that refused the parliamentary and liberal past, since, according to him, only a change in the political, administrative, economic, social and cultural conditions could allow the rebirth of the Portuguese Nation (Salazar, 1928-33, p.141). Therefore he established the corporate nationalism, the social and economic intervention to develop a strong State.

From then on the ideals of Salazar’s Dictatorship are confused with the ones of the other European Dictatorships, in spite of the Portuguese singularities. In fact, as Braga da Cruz points out, the New State wasn’t theoretically totalitarian or, at least the doctrine didn’t assume that way (Cruz, 1988, p.52).

Salazar ruled for forty years, despite the obstacles he had to face. For him the most important concepts, the ones he took for granted were “God”, “Homeland”, “Authority”, “Family”, “Work”. These were enduring values that couldn’t be discussed by the Press or by any other sector of the public life. In the last years of the New State the resistance to this Dictatorship started to arise.

When Marcelo Caetano was chosen to be the Prime Minister after António de Oliveira Salazar, in 1968, he followed a policy of “evolution in the continuation”, hence destroying the expectations of a change in the Regime. In fact, Marcelo Caetano followed Salazar’s ideas, trying to make them seem more modern. But the strong authoritarian ideas against the existence of different political parties still existed, as well as the colonial war¹. And the colonial war was in fact the reason why there was a military revolution on the 25th April, 1974. This revolution led to a Democratic Regime in Portugal.

1- The Political propaganda in the New State

The political communication in the New State was essentially based on the propaganda. Although this propaganda followed Salazar’s ideas, this dictator wasn’t directly responsible for it. A journalist, António Ferro, started being in charge

¹ At this time Portugal was facing the war of its overseas colonies that wanted to become independent
of this propaganda in 1933. Salazar rarely used the Press, the radio and later on the television to communicate directly with the Portuguese people, in a written or oral way.

Maybe his shy personality, against Media exposure, explained it. Besides that he wasn’t very good at talking in public (Medina, 1978, p.160). Therefore he studied his speeches very carefully and never talked or wrote anything spontaneously. His friends considered that he should become more popular, get closer to people, turn his cold and distant image into a more human one. Salazar stated that he didn’t feel comfortable in front of crowds and that the search of popularity was pointless (Nogueira, 1977, p.176). However it was in 1932 that he gave several political interviews to the journalist António Ferro for Diário de Notícias, a Portuguese newspaper.

When we analyse Salazar’s speeches (Salazar, 1961) we notice that the ones he made in different situations were rarely published in the Press afterwards or written with that aim. That just happened on very special occasions for the country or for the Regime. As examples we may refer what he wrote for Jornal de Notícias, another Portuguese newspaper, on the 28th May 1933 about the official presentation of the “Portuguese Youth”, the unofficial notes he sent to the newspapers when the Second World War started, to explain the neutrality of Portugal, as he had done about what had happened in Spain. In 1943 he also made use of the Press to explain some military measures that had been taken and in 1944 this means of communication was also used to inform that the Portuguese Government had forbidden the export of wolfram according to the request of the British Royal Highness.

As far as the radio is concerned the situation wasn’t very different. Usually Salazar’s radio speeches took place before the elections, to explain the advantages of some internal policy and mainly of the foreign policies. But these speeches were rare during his Government.

As a matter of fact, even Salazar admitted in a speech for the National Radio in the end of an election campaign for a new Assembly, “I don’t know anything that I can add to the propaganda which has already been done” (Salazar, III, p.103-104).

António de Oliveira Salazar thought carefully about every single word he said and, in the same way, he considered that each word released by the Press should be analysed with much criterion. Therefore he instituted the previous censorship, since the Media could be extremely dangerous if they weren’t controlled. So, the freedom of speech was regulated by the Decree Law no. 22469, from the 11th April 1933, so that it could be possible to “prevent the perversion of the public opinion in its function of social strength that should be used so as to protect the public opinion from all things that could be against the truth, justice, moral, good administration and common welfare and to prevent the main principles of the organization of society from being attacked.” This was referred in the 3rd article of the above-mentioned Law. As a result of this policy of the control of information, only the people who had the political trust of the Government could be the directors of newspapers. Consequently the directors of newspapers weren’t the ones who had the right skills but the ones chosen by the Government (Correia e Baptista, 2006, p.28).

There are authors who state that Salazar’s censorship policy was the most efficient upholder of his Regime above all repression mechanisms that were used (Cádima, 1995, p.319).

Salazar, who was initially doubtful towards a propaganda policy, gradually became aware of its importance2, which led him to create the National Propaganda Secretariat (SPN) in October, 1933, to be a “governing instrument and not an instrument of the Government” (Salazar, 1928-34, p.262). He designated António Ferro to be the headman of SPN. António Ferro was already the official journalist of the New State and the two men admired each other (Veríssimo, 2003, p.19). SPN was strictly under Salazar’s supervision and had its apogee between the thirties and the forties. The aim of the National Propaganda Secretariat was to let people know what happened in the “life of a nation as a whole”, since “politically the only things that exist are the ones the public is aware of.” 3 This means that everything which was advertised had the purpose of creating in people a feeling of belonging to a nation, so that those people could understand that the nation had a much wider sense than just “our house, our street, our land, our road, our school”4 Therefore this Secretariat had the obligation to “broaden people’s spirit” (Nogueira, 1997, II, p.242), building a new mentality based on the ideological certainties of the Regime, so that the Portuguese wouldn’t remain ignorant about their nation. These great “certainties” were transmitted to people through a simple and objective speech, with clear and unquestionable ideas on which all people agreed, since there was nothing to be discussed. As Salazar said, “We tried to give back the comfort of

2 Although Salazar felt the need to clarify that the Propaganda in Portugal wasn’t similar to the one that existed in Italy or Germany, full of “theatrical effects” (Salazar, volume I: 262).

the great certainties to the minds torn by doubt and negative feelings. We don’t discuss God and Virtue; we don’t discuss Fatherland and its history; we don’t discuss Authority and its prestige; we don’t discuss Family and its ethics, neither do we discuss the glory in work and its duty” (Salazar, II, p.130).

These were unmistakable truths, since according to Salazar those truths were the solid bases for the development of peace, order, the union among the Portuguese, the strong State, the prestigious authority, the honest administration, the strengthening of economy, the patriotic feeling, the corporate organization, the overseas empire” (Salazar, II, p.136).

However, the conviction about these strong principles wasn’t enough. So it was necessary to instil those principles into the Portuguese minds all the time. With this purpose the Government created organisms connected to all sections of the everyday life, which were monitored by the State and had their own propaganda directed to the target public: organizing social and political meetings, congresses, journeys, masses and parades (Rosas, 1994, p.292).

The national propaganda was an adjunct of the sections propaganda and was directed to culture, education, great political gatherings, such as the election campaigns, great celebrations, big support demonstrations to Carmona or Salazar organized with the only existing political party.

The cultural shows also had the purpose of a political promotion. Examples of these were the painting exhibitions, the literary prizes, the colonial exhibitions, the show rooms in international exhibitions, the Great Exhibition of the Portuguese World. The National Propaganda Secretariat (SPN) was also in charge of the settings for the opening sessions of hospitals, river dams, national neighbourhoods and stadiums, showing the historic greatness, rediscovered after the “obscurity of Liberalism” (Rosas, 1994, p.293). And all this was possible thanks to the true nationalism of the New State. There wasn’t a single public action, either cultural, military or religious, which wasn’t framed inside the ideological paradigms of the system.

In 1957 appeared another Media: the television. However, Salazar didn’t value it properly and rarely used it, not only because of his shy personality, but also because he was unable to see how far this new means of communication could go5, differently from Marcelo Caetano, who was the Minister of the Presidency at that time.

António de Oliveira Salazar was rarely seen on television. He appeared on the reception to Queen Elizabeth II, in February 1957, at the airport in the farewell to Craveiro Lopes, in June of the same year, in the meeting with Franco in Ciudad Rodrigo in Spain and not in many other occasions.

Although his misanthropy didn’t allow him to promote himself, it didn’t prevent him from controlling this new Media – Television – and use it to emphasize the importance of the Regime.

The television information was almost an agenda of the Government, with an unofficial speech that followed the protocol rules. The news received from the foreign countries were carefully analysed and often refused by the censorship. From 1959 on Salazar appeared on TV a bit more often. However, he was still against the exposition to the Media and television remained an instrument of the State. In the sixties he didn’t mention the crisis the Regime was going through: the escape of Henrique Galvão and Álvaro Cunhal from jail, the exile of the Bishop of Porto city, the big manifestations of the 1st May.

Marcelo Caetano was the one who appeared on Television more frequently representing the Government when he was the Minister of the Presidency, while Salazar remained in the shadow. What is extremely curious about this character is that in spite of his lack of Media exposition, he managed to maintain a Regime created according to his image for such a long time.

2. The political importance of the means of communication for Marcelo Caetano

Marcelo Caetano soon realized that the means of communication were important for politics, especially the television. So from the very first regular broadcasts, since March 1957, he appeared frequently on the screen talking to the Portuguese. He stated, “I was the first member of the Government to talk to the country about matters that interested everyone, in June 1957. I don’t deny that I followed the first steps of the Portuguese television with a strong interest and even with enthusiasm. I didn’t imagine that some years later, as the chief of the Government, television would be so useful to establish the communication between myself and the Portuguese people. However, I knew from the very beginning that it was the ideal tool for a Government to become popular...if it deserved to be”(Caetano, 1977, p.472).

5 In the interview to Figaro, on the 2nd and 3rd September 1958, with regular broadcasts on the Portuguese television (RTP), Salazar still privileged the Press and considered the other media inferior.
Shortly after the birth of television in Portugal, Caetano was replaced in his political post and only returned to the Government on the 23rd September 1968, after Salazar had been considered incapable of governing. Caetano was chosen by Américo Tomás (the President of the Republic) to be the Council President. Four days later he presented his first message through the Media in which he told the Portuguese people that he was enthusiastic and needed their support. “I have enough enthusiasm to face the huge obstacles that I foresee. But I wouldn’t be able to succeed without the support of the country.”

Aware of the power that the television could have, especially in a period in which the New State was fragile and going through big social changes, Caetano prepared the admittance of Ramiro Valadão to the Presidency of the Portuguese Television. He had a close relationship with this man and by doing so he started a new communication strategy, centered on the Council President. Caetano is the image of the Regime and therefore he is the one who establishes a direct communication with the Portuguese through a TV program created by Valadão, named Family talks. The first broadcast of this program was on the 8th January 1969 and was followed by fifteen more, the last of which was broadcasted on the 28th March, 1974. This last transmission had a bitter tone due to the rebellion in Caldas, as if anticipating the future.

From 1969 on the television set up another big propaganda strategy for the National Assembly elections. The campaign started two months before the elections with a series of daily editorials trying to demonstrate that “only a policy is possible.”, in a desperate attempt to legitimate the evolution in the continuity.

The television manipulation was clear, even without election campaigns. The broadcast of an official protocol was always more important than any other major event, even than the one with such a great importance for mankind as the arrival of man at the moon.

Marcelo Caetano became the Prime Minister in 1969, after António de Oliveira Salazar. Although he represented an expectation of change for the Portuguese society, by talking about a political transformation as well as by allowing the Bishop from Porto city and Mário Soares (opponents to the Regime) to return from their exile, he didn’t intend to establish a Democracy. He just wanted to update the Dictatorship. As a consequence, and as far as the Media are concerned he didn’t immediately abolish the 3rd article of the Law Decree from the 11th April 1933. He just abolished it in 1972. Meanwhile the censorship still existed (Carvalho, 1999, p.45).

However the country had changed in economic, social and cultural aspects (Loff, 2007, p.153-154). The international situation had also changed. The Americans no longer supported Dictatorship, neither did they agree with our colonial politics. The European Economic Community (EEC) was also against that politics. So the informative tolerance increased. It was a period during which the Press started using lots of metaphors and the caricature to talk about matters that were impossible even to mention before that time, especially the political ones (Carvalho, 1999, p.58-59).

Caetano’s governing demonstrated, in a certain way, a kind of “opening” of communication, by allowing more news from abroad and by publishing the exiled people’s opinion against the Government. But what this Government actually showed was a deeper knowledge of the means of communication and a greater skill to use them to serve its political purposes.

We shouldn’t forget that in 1973 it was still common to start the TV news with the personal comments of César Moreira Baptista, the State Secretary for Information and Tourism. The news was the most important TV programme due to its political role. Ramiro Valadão, in a meeting of the Programme Council, in 1971, stated that, “...due to its exceptional diffusion the news can enable the Government of the Nation to achieve its aims.”

Marcelo’s control over the Media, especially over television, was evident and he often told his friend Valadão, “...nowadays television is a tool of political action and we can’t hesitate on its use.”

3- The role of the Media in the establishment of Democracy

The Revolution that led Portugal to Democracy started with the appropriation of the means of communication: the Portuguese Radio Clube, the National Radio and the National Television by the military forces (MFA). The rebellion started when the announcer João Paulo Dinis, according to the instructions received from Captain Otelo Saraiva de Carvalho, played the song “E depois do adeus”, by Paulo de Carvalho, five minutes before eleven o’clock p.m. (Ferreira,
1993, p.24). It was the signal for the troops to set forth and they did that very quickly. The Captain Salgueiro Maia, responsible for the School of Cavalry in Santarém, arrived in Lisbon in a record time: two hours (Ferreira, 1993: 32). Twenty-five minutes after midnight Renascença Radio played the song, Grândola Vila Morena, by Zeca Afonso. It was the confirmation that everything was happening as it had been planned.

At around three o’clock in the morning all other means of communication were already controlled by the troops. Those means of communication were always advising people to stay calmly at home, waiting for the news about the revolution that had been started by the military forces to put an end to the Regime.

The Government only reacted to the appropriation of the Radio on the following morning, by ordering the cut of the electric energy and of the telephones of Radio Clube (Ferreira, 1993, p.33). The rebellions quickly solved the problem and their communication went on the radio and later on television. Actually the strategy used by the leaders of the operation “Regime-ending” of transmitting constant communications to the population was perfect, since they convinced the population who came out to the streets to support the military forces.

We can say that the fall of the Regime happened mainly due to the control of the Media. Once the revolution happened, the National Rendering Group that took control of the power used the television again to present the new President, General Spinola, the members of his Commission and their programme to the country.

It was only after reading their programme on television that the text was handed out to be published in the newspapers.

A country which lived under a political authoritarianism for almost half a century was lacking in political forces. Therefore it remained under the military control for some time and these military forces still used the Media for their political propaganda.

The following years were complicated and the freedom brought the social and political turmoil. There were some temporary governments and all political events were transmitted by the Media, especially by television, which was used as an information vehicle between the governments and the people, not only to broadcast dismissals but also the start of new governments. Everything happened on the National Television.

As the military forces were organising themselves, the means of communication were getting more and more importance, because not only the government but also their opponents used the Media to convey their messages. Meanwhile the freedom of speech made the appearing of other publications with different themes possible. However a long path in Democracy had to be followed before people could say that there was freedom of the Media towards the political power, mainly in what concerned the National Television which was the only Portuguese channel till the nineties and was controlled by the State.

Conclusion

Whenever it was possible the political power tried to control the means of communication. Therefore their use with a political purpose wasn’t a special feature exclusive of the New State. Practically this happened since the discovery of the Press and its use was improved as the society was evolving.

With the establishment of Democracy and the freedom associated with it, the freedom of speech became an incontestable truth.

Nevertheless this didn’t mean that the political power, Government or opponents didn’t try to use and manipulate the Media, since the existence of Democracy doesn’t necessarily imply the resource to Democratic methods.

In our country, after the Media help in the fall of a Regime, almost without violence nobody would have doubts about their importance that increased up to the present.

No wonder that the Media are considered the 4th power.

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The Greek-Orthodox Family Structure in the Late Nineteenth Century Sanjak of Kayseri

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Abstract: This study explicates the Greek-Orthodox millet community’s family formation in the Sanjak of Kayseri in the 1870’s from the aspects of especially extended family, polygamy, endogamy, average age of marriage, inheritance rights and ratio of children. By revealing heterogeneous tendencies among the Greek-Orthodox communities of different parts of the Ottoman imperial lands, it partly going to be a comparative study. In the same way, while evaluating the Greek-Orthodox family structure, Kayserî’s other sedentary communities’ family formations –Muslim and Armenian ones- will be also taken into consideration. Certainly we cannot talk about one type of family structure, which was assumed as a model and implemented by the Greek-Orthodox inhabitants residing in different parts of the Ottoman domain. In different places, regional factors and local customs seem to play a crucial role in shaping the Greek-Orthodox families. Like everywhere else in Kayserî too, in addition to these, various socio-economic reasons gave shape to family formation. Comprehension of this subject therefore requires a short examination of such determinant elements. Briefly speaking, in reference to Frederic Le Play’s categorization, the 1870’s Kayserî’s Greek-Orthodox families –as well as Muslim and Armenian ones- were formed as “stem family”. In the meantime, from the perspective of inheritance rights, they can be defined as a “conjugal” family. Likewise, endogamy was also a common feature both in the Muslim and non-Muslim families. Apart from these, we can say that in the vicinity of Kayserî, females and males were prone to marry at early ages.

The population of Kayserî in the late nineteenth century mainly consisted of the inhabitants from the Muslim, Armenian and Greek-Orthodox millets (Sâlnâmâ-i Vilâyet-i Ankara, 1878). Hence, along with the Greek-Orthodox one, the current paper, which aspires after revealing Kayserî’s Greek-Orthodox’ family structure, is going to partially bring up the Muslim and Armenian families. For our analysis here, the main sources being resorted to are the testimonies of the Greek-Orthodox inhabitants of the late-nineteenth early twentieth century Kayserî and its vicinity, the sharia court registers of the early 1870’s and the American Protestant missionary letters. Being related with the subject, before analyzing more closely the family formations, it is necessary to dwell a little bit on the socio-economic conditions of the last decades of the nineteenth century Sanjak of Kayserî. This will definitely facilitate our understanding of the Greek-Orthodox family structures in the region, since such factors had tremendous effects on the families of the native people as a whole.

First of all, Kayserî and its immediate vicinity was not only populated by the sedentary townsfolk. In addition to the native settlers, this sanjak came to fore as a settlement place of various nomadic tribes. Like some members of the sedentary population of Kayserî, the members of these tribes used to move seasonally to other places –around Erciyes Mountain or out of Kayserî such as Adana and Urfa. However, due to the disturbances that the nomadic tribes caused, especially in the pre-nineteenth century, many inhabitants had to leave their hometowns and migrate to safer places for a long period of time. In the Hamidian period (1876-1909), by launching the tribal settlement policy, the negative impact of these tribes was partly eliminated (Ubicini, 1856; Hasluck, 1921; Hülâgü, 2000; Sansar, 2003; Kapoli, 2004; Türkay, 2005; Çelik, 2008).

Despite this, in the years to follow, the migration process in the vicinity did not come to an end because, towards the mid 1870’s both in the Anatolian and in the Balkan lands of the Ottoman realm famines came out as a reason, deteriorating a great deal the living standards of people. Many relevant historical documents recorded at that time touched upon the severity of these famines. As the American missionaries who sojourned in Kayserî mentioned, it was even possible to see some local inhabitants who were throwing themselves into the river to die, because they could not cope with this situation (Barrows, 1874a; Barrows, 1874b; Farnsworth, 1875a; Farnsworth, 1875b; Farnsworth, 1877; Farnsworth, 1879; Papadopoulos, 1953; Chatziiosif, 2005). Consequently, migration appeared as a reasonable solution for the native denizens especially for the Greek-Orthodox inhabitants (ΚΠ 45; ΚΠ 55; ΚΠ 126; ΚΠ 138; Rizos, 2007). Without digression we should underline the existence of long-term circulatory movements in which the migration phenomenon took years, next to the seasonable migrations, lasted for few months (Bartlett, 1876; ΚΠ 55 Καστάρεια; ΚΠ 124 Τορχιαν-Ταξάρχης-Καστάρεια; Sarioglou, 1959).

Within the radius of demographic mobility it is useful to underscore that, due to its geographic location –situated in the centre of Anatólia-, the nineteenth century Kayserî was one of the places where the exiled people were sent by the central authority. Among the exiles many people, from Muslim to non-Muslim or foreigners, from ordinary people to the
significant state officials like, secretaries and even pashas can be seen (Kayseri Şer’iyye Sicili 197: 1831-1833; Arpee, 1936).

All these ongoing demographic mobilities in the nineteenth century Kayseri and its vicinity did not mean the deficiency of stable social life. On the contrary, parallel to the entire imperial lands (Horton, 1854; Oskanyan, 1857), the family life and values were of great significance in Kayseri. When we look at more closely to Kayseri’s families, we see that there was more than one sort of family formations. To begin with, according to Frederic le Play’s categorization, the family structures of all sedentary communities --Greek-Orthodox, Muslim and Armenian- in the Sanjak of Kayseri can be to a degree regarded as a “stem family”, which is in between the “joint” (patrilachal) and “conjugal” (also, nuclear or unstable --married couple and their unmarried children-) families. Some families in Kayseri were formed by the married sons’ joining their fathers’ households. Hinging upon the economic circumstances, the bridegrooms could join his spouse’s family too. In the meantime, nuclear families also existed (ΚΠ 53 Κασιάρσια; Flandrin, 1979; Duben, 1990; Burke, 1992; Renieri, 1999).

In the nineteenth century Ottoman Empire, analogous family formations could be observed in separate regions under various names. The urban mansion families (konak aile), formed through married sons’ and other married relatives’ joining into the same family, for example were one of them. Like most of the traditional Ottoman families, the mansion families were also patriarchal and paterfamilias was accepted and respected by all. The basic reasons behind the emergence of these mansion-families were the deteriorated economic conditions and inequalities in the income distribution. However, they did not spread to whole imperial lands in the same degree. In the nineteenth century Istanbul for instance, the nuclear families still had the quantitative superiority (Duben and Behar, 1991; Erdoğan, 1999; Ortaylı, 2006).

From this aspect, the nineteenth century Syrrako (Συρράκο in Epirus) and Kayseri can be comparable. The Greek-Orthodox communities of both regions lived along with other ethnic and religious groups. The nineteenth century Syrrako was inhabited by semi-nomadic population and by migrating stock-raiser or agriculturalist Greek-Orthodox inhabitants. Hence, while comparing Kayseri’s and Syrrako’s Greek-Orthodox communities’ family formations, the structural characteristics of the communities must be reckoned with. In the nineteenth century Syrrako, numerically, the nuclear families -thirty-five percent- were followed by the combined families (συνήθες δομές). In the extended families of Syrrako, next to the parents and children, other relatives, married children and their spouses were also found (Kaftantzoglou, 1997). At this point it should be noted that in the Sanjak of Kayseri, the extended families were not peculiar to the agriculturalist Greek-Orthodox population, there were also numerous extended merchant families (ΚΠ 48 Κασιάρσια). Perhaps they preferred to form extended families, because by dint of this, their business relations and activities could be strengthened.

In the eighteenth and nineteenth century Balkans too, the extended family formations were prevalent among the Orthodox communities. Zadruga types of family formations were seen in Herzegovina, Serbia, Croatia, Montenegro and some parts of Bosnia. There was however, no uniformity in the zadrugas of different regions. The Croatian zadrugas (also known as “skup-chinas”) for instance, were regarded as “communal households”, which were not necessarily in the form of family, because their members were not at all times composed of kins (Hammel, 1978; Trouton, 2002; Cockburn, 2003; Rithman-Augústín, 2003).

The zadruga style families of Serbia on the other hand, were categorized as paternal and fraternal. Whereas the former one consisted of the father and married sons, the fraternal zadrugas were formed through the married sons living in the same household. In these types of Serbian extended families, most of whom had six children, even the fourth generation could be found in the same house. Hence, the average number of children in the Serbian families was above the average number of children in the eighteenth and nineteenth century Europe, -where the number of individuals per household varied between 4.95-5.85 (Halpem, 1978; Flandrin, 1979).

In comparison with the Serbian families, the child ratio of Kayseri as a whole also seemed to be rather lower. According to the eighteenth century sharia registers of Kayseri (1738-1749), the average number of children for Muslims was 5.12 and for non-Muslims it was 3.16. From the late nineteenth century registers of Kayseri (1871-1873) the child ratio for the Greek-Orthodox and Armenians can be inferred better, because the millet names of the non-Muslims were revealed more precisely: 3.56 for the Greek-Orthodox, 3.73 for Armenians and 3.69 for Muslims (Kayseri Şer’iyye Sicili 224, 1871-1873; Aktan, 1998).

The sharia court registers of 1871-1873 contains two hundred and two registers from which the quantitative data on children was ascertained. In total, hundred and eighteen Muslim, thirty-nine Greek-Orthodox and forty-five Armenian families were figured out from the mentioned records. Among the registers, the child number of four Armenian, three Muslim and three Greek-Orthodox families were not indicated. Besides, in four entries --two for Muslims, one for Greek-Orthodox and one for Armenian- children's numbers are elusive. From the context of these registers, it is inferred
that only some children of these families were mentioned. For the obtainment of more precise results therefore, the children of such families were ignored and only the named-children were taken into account. Likewise, the numbers of the children in the repeated law suits were not included to our calculation. As a consequence seven hundred and fifty-seven children, out of which three hundred and fifty-eight of them were females and three hundred and ninety-two were males, were attained. In two registers, one Armenian and two Muslim pregnant women were identified with their unborn children as "a wife of X, who has baby (load) in her womb" (zevcesi ... batında müstebin haml-i mevkufun), "محتاجة حامل... متمستين..." (Kayseri Şer'iyye Sicili 224, 1871-1873, pp. 35, 64, 74). Such unborn children were included in our calculation and they were assumed as male children. Because from their inheritance shares in the tereke registers it is clearly understood that these children –who were denoted as "the tied load" (haml-i mevkufe), "همل موقوفه" (Kayseri Şer'iyye Sicili 224, 1871-1873, p. 35) - were regarded as male offspring.

According to these documents, the inhabitants had a tendency to have less than six or seven children. Only few families had more than seven children: three Muslim and one Armenian families had eight, one Armenian and two Muslim families had nine children. Besides, two Muslim and one Armenian families had eleven and one Muslim family had twelve children. These Muslim families, with eleven and twelve children, were formed through polygamy (Kayseri Şer'iyye Sicili 224, 1871-1873).

Table 1: The number of children in the Greek-Orthodox families and other communities of Kayseri in 1871-1873 (Kayseri Şer'iyye Sicili 224, 1871-1873).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of children per-family</th>
<th>Number of Greek-Orthodox families</th>
<th>Number of Armenian families</th>
<th>Number of Muslim families</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 child</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 children</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 children</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 children</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 children</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 children</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 children</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 children</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 children</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 children</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 children</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12 children</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total number of children</td>
<td>141 (70 girls, 71 boys)</td>
<td>179 (68 girls, 104 boys)</td>
<td>437 (220 girls, 217 boys)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Apart from these, the aforementioned child ratios –of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries- hint at a quantitative decrease in the number of Muslim children. In the time span we probed, it appears that polygamy type of marriages did not have a great impact on this numerical decrease. The reason for the sharp decrease in Muslim children could be germane to the indigent conditions of the Muslim community. In every period of world history, the poor tend to have more children than people who have average or better economic standards. So, the Muslim community of the nineteenth century Kayseri had in fact, more children than their non-Muslim counterparts. The death ratio of the Muslim children however, was higher than their birth ratio, which was the outcome of low living standards.

The Malthusian theory supports the idea of a general decrease in the population rate of Kayseri. This theory assumes that in the non-existence of any extraordinary occurrence, the population rate of the society suppose to increase two folds in less than twenty-five years (Malthus, 1798). Considering this, whereas the population of Kayseri was about 37,000 in 1831, forty years later it had to increase 3.2 folds and reached at least 118,000, but it remained around 66,000. In this regard we cannot talk about the effectiveness of the preventive checks, like birth control or abortion. It seemed that
the positive checks in the area –like the mentioned famines or some epidemic diseases- deeply affected the inhabitants (Boissier, 1897; Erkiletlioğlu, 2000; Güler, 2000).

Although it partly enlightens us about the decrease or increase in the Greek-Orthodox population, -since we do not have information on the “average rate of death” for the Greek-Orthodox community-, for a more detailed quantitative information on the birth rate of Greek-Orthodox children, this community’s baptism and birth registers can be examined (see Table 2). In these documents, basically two types of phrases were used: “βαπτίστης εττή” or “βαπτίστης εγκεκριμένη” (vaftiz etti or vaftiz eyledi, baptized) and “κουτσαγινά αλτή” (kucağına aldi, held in the arms) (Κώδικας 217, 1834-1894, pp. 60-79; Κώδικας 218, 1834-1869, pp. 210-235). It must be noted that in the Greek-Orthodox culture, a child might be baptized few months or one year after the baby’s birth. So, the babies, who were recorded as “baptized” might be born a year earlier.

Table 2: The baptized and newborn Greek-Orthodox children. (Κώδικας 217, 1834-1894; Κώδικας 218, 1834-1869).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Greek-Orthodox children in Κώδικας 217</th>
<th>Greek-Orthodox children in Κώδικας 218</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1870</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1871</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1872</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1873</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1874</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1875</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1876</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1877</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1878</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1879</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1880</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The endogamy on the local level:
As we have mentioned, the families of Kayseri were formed through various ways. Endogamy was one of these ways. According to the Encyclopaedia of Social Sciences,

“the rule of endogamy exists where the field of possible spouses is limited to persons within an individual’s territory and/or social group. The scope is enlarged by researchers such as Bromlei who claims that endogamy “is custom forbidding marriage outside a given group” and adds that it should be understood as “preferential marriage with one’s own community” (Ginat, 1982, p. 133).

This definition can be only in part applicable for Kayseri, because no specific and explicit rule or custom which proscribed outside marriages existed. In fact, it is true that there is no clear-cut definition of endogamy. Literally endogamy means “marriage within”. So, the marriage within can be within a locale or a group of kinsfolk (Cox, 2011). The endogamy here in this paper is used for intra-village marriages, and does not necessarily refer to lineage.

In Kayseri, despite the existence of mass migration phenomenon endogamy type of marriage was trend both within the Muslim and non-Muslim communities. The migrant inhabitants could choose their spouses from the places they migrated to, however, such exogamies were few in number. The Greek-Orthodox of Endürlük village for example had marriage ties with other villages of Kayseri, such as Ağırnas, Taşlık, Rumkavak, Çukur and so on. To some extent, this prevailing tendency also reflected the inhabitants’ consideration of their economic activities. So as to say, some of these marriages were arranged for the continuation of their business transactions (ΚΠ 52 Καισάρεια; ΚΠ 137 Καισάρεια; Renieri, 1993). Thus, from one respect it is true that endogamies do not only bound husband and wife, but pertained to other relatives. Such marriage alliances were seen within the scope of marriage strategies. In the Greek society of the former times too,
“The thought taken to form a marriage alliance considered many factors. It is clear from the marriage strategies that marriages thought of over several generations. One gather that not only the immediate family was involved in the transaction but consideration of the extended kin also came into play. It was this communal concern therefore that put pressure on the husband and wife to make a marriage work. Marriage then was a way of uniting families but also a way of making things run smoothly”... (Cox, 2011, p. 243).

In fact, similar economic motives could also be valid for the extended family formations of Kayseri. Especially for the gathering of the immovable properties, probably the formation of the extended families—which is another thing than endogamy- was seen as a helpful solution.

The average age of marriage:
The general tendency of endogamy among the Greek-Orthodox of Kayseri was not the only custom that they inherited from their ancestors. Having regarded as the basic component of social life, from many aspects, the Greek-Orthodox family institution in the Ottoman period reflected the continuation of Byzantine family traditions. Relatively, the Byzantine family structures were more stable than that of the Roman and Medieval Western families. During the Byzantine period, for the regulation of relationships between married couples, some Christian teachings were taken as basis (Kazdan, 1989). In this respect, “μπορούμε να πούμε ότι στο Βυζάντιο οι εκκλησιαστικοί κανόνες είχαν με την πάροδο του χρόνου νόμοι του κράτους, μετασχηματίζοντας το νομικό πλαίσιο του γάμου, αυτό που κληρονόμησε από τη ρωμαϊκή ή πρωτοβυζαντινή εποχή” (Kioussopoulou and Benveniste, 1991, p. 259).

In the nineteenth century, the implementation or remembrance of these customs can be followed in the formation of Greek-Orthodox families. According to the Greek-Orthodox Church of Kayseri for instance, the women had to submit themselves to their husbands. Indeed, this suggestion must be for the reminiscence of the Byzantine tradition. Especially on account of the absentee of the migrant male population, the position of the female figure in the nineteenth century Greek-Orthodox community of Kayseri was fairly essential. The demeanour of certain community corpses towards the female figure in the community and the role assigned to women by such organs could be different from the realities and needs of the society. In the prologue of baptism and birth registers of the period of 1834-1894, which were recorded by the Greek-Orthodox clergy of Kayseri, it was also underlined that for the marriages, the male spouses had to be older than the female spouses. The suggested ages for both females and males however, seemed to be very young: it was thirteen for females and above sixteen for males. (Note that according to Εξάβιβλος a person, who is going to be engaged must be at least at the age of seven, and must be aware of his/her engagement). Citing specific statistics on the average marriage age for the Greek-Orthodox community of the late nineteenth century Kayseri is difficult, but examples of this can be traced in different parts of the sanjak. In Tavlusun for instance, the females married between the ages of thirteen-sixteen and the males between the ages of twenty and twenty-five (Κώδικας 217, 1834-1895; ΚΠ 48 Καισάρεια; ΚΠ 121 Ταβλούσου-Καισάρεια; Emmanouilidis, 1949; Armenopoulos, 1971; Kasdagli, 1991).

The marriage age for marriage varied in other Greek-Orthodox communities of the Empire. Compared with the Greek-Orthodox populations of other regions we know, the Greek-Orthodox of Kayseri tended to marry earlier. As Panagiotis Savorianakis stresses, in Rhodes Island, in the mid-nineteenth century for instance, the girls usually married at the age of twelve. In Syrakos on the other hand, the average age of males for marriage was thirty. In Ermoupolis (Ερμούπολη), which became a Greek land by 1832, it was twenty-five for males and eighteen for females. The same trend was also prevalent among the Muslims and Armenians of Kayseri –and other regions. In this period the females of the Western societies had an inclination to marry at an older age. Even in the seventeenth century France, usually the females married around twenty-four (Carlisle, 1855; Oskanyan, 1857; Flandin, 1979; Bafounis, 1984; Kaftantzoglou, 1997; Savorianakis, 2000; Malanima, 2009).

Perhaps, postulating the formation of the aforementioned extended families as one of the outcomes of the marriages at early ages in Kayseri and Cappadocia region, as well as in other parts of the Ottoman domain, will not be wrong. Despite their ages, both brides and bridegrooms were entrusted with various responsibilities (Pouqueville, 1820; Schneider, 1846). Naturally, at the age of puberty, they could not form a proper family. The young couples needed their parents or elders, who could advise and teach their knowledge or skills acquired by life experiences, around them.

* “We can say that during the Byzantine period the ecclesiastical rules became laws of state, converting the legal frame of marriage, which was inherited by the Roman or the early Byzantine period”.
The dowry, mihr and inheritance practices of the native communities of Kayseri:

Lastly, for this study it will be useful to dwell on the issues of dowry, mihr and inheritance practices of the Greek-Orthodox and partly other inhabitants of Kayseri. Since, such customs give us essential clues about the current subject. Habitually through dowry (ποικαί), both Greek-Orthodox males and females received their inheritance shares from their parents. Depending on the economic conditions of the families, dowries could maintain different sorts of chattels, landed-property or live-stock. In Kayseri, the wealthier girls were obliged to bring more chattels as dowry. When they married, even the poorest Greek-Orthodox girls carried their own belongings like dresses, furs, socks, shoes, and some gold money. During the weddings of the poor Greek-Orthodox girls, usually an economic assistance was provided by the wealthy members of the society or the ἐφοπλ. This kind of financial aid, however, was not supplied in all Greek-Orthodox communities of the Empire. In Naxos Island (Νάξος) for instance, instead of getting married, girls, whose economic conditions were not good enough, migrated to other places.

During the Ottoman period, for the family formation or the legal systems concerning the family, the Greek-Orthodox of different regions were influenced from different traditions. In the Cycladic Islands (Κυκλάδες), along with the Byzantine and Greek-Orthodox Church, the Western Europe also left its imprint behind. So inevitably, situated in the centre of Anatolia, there must be Islamic influence on the marriage traditions of Kayseri’s Greek-Orthodox. The archival sources, for instance, clearly indicate the adaptation of the “bride-price” (in Greek: χρήματα γάλακτος, in Turkish: süt parası) tradition, which was a quantity of goods or sum of money given to a bride’s family by that of the groom or his family, by the Greek-Orthodox inhabitants (Fhosteris, 1953; Elvanoglou, 1959; Karakaş, 2005; Kasdagli, 1991; Yilmaz, 2005; Çetindağ, 2007).

When we take also other regions of the imperial lands into consideration, another marriage tradition which was implemented by Muslims and occasionally by non-Muslims was mihr (سهر) (Sak and Aköz, 2004; Araz, 2008). Mihr-i müeccel (موجر) was a pre-arranged monetary marriage settlement, designed to be given to female side in case of divorce or death. Mihr-i muaccel (موجل) on the other hand, was a property or money traditionally given from husband to his wife by an agreement. So, in the Islamic law, it was a property—or belonging—right of women in matrimones. The sharia court registers point out that, the practiced mihr tradition in Kayseri was tried to be legally regulated by the central government Despite these arrangements, in Kayseri still in the 1870’s, the amount of mihrs of the Muslims could not be regulated affectively (Kayseri Şer’iyye Sicili 125, 1730-1731; Kayseri Şer’iyye Sicili 197, 1831-1833; Kayseri Şer’iyye Sicili 210, 1853-1854; Kayseri Şer’iyye Sicili 224, 1871-1873; Calvert, 1767; Cin, 1988; Altindal, 1994; Arikan, 1994; Imber, 2000; Göçek and Baer, 2000; Gürler, 2001; Öksüz, 2004).

Under the Islamic law, “One becomes entitled to inherit from another person on two grounds: biological, linear, genealogical relation (nasab, cognate relatives) and the non-biological, non-genealogical relationship (lateral, sabab)” (Ja’far al-Tusi, 2008, p. 424). Basically, these relatives were: mother (ümüm, ام), grandmother (cedd-i salih, صلحة), father, grandfather (cedd-i salih, صلحة), brother or sister (ahlium, علیه) and children (also unborn children). The non-biological are the spouses: wife (zevec, زوجہ) and husband (zevec, زوجہ), –as well as freed slaves (wala’) in the former times. In case of polygamy, the second wife and her children also had right to receive title by descent. The shares of male and female children however, were not identical. The male children usually received more share—or at least equal share—than the females (Kayseri Şer’iyye Sicili 210, 1853-1854; Kayseri Şer’iyye Sicili 224, 1871-1873; Ja’far al-Tusi, 2008).

Although the non-Muslim population could apply to the community courts (πισκοτικά δικαστήρια), as can be seen through the nineteenth century sharia court registers, a significant number of Greek-Orthodox had preferred these courts for their inheritance matters. At the sharia courts, the Greek-Orthodox were subjected to the abovementioned Islamic law (Anastasopoulos and Gara, 1999). So, the same inheritance principals and rights—applied to their Muslim counterparts—were also valid for them. The terekes of the Greek-Orthodox of the early 1870’s presage that in most cases both parents were proned to leave bigger inheritance shares to their sons—especially to their elder sons. In only one case—among thirty-two Greek-Orthodox inheritances—, all female children received bigger shares than their younger and older brothers. Apart from these, in most of the inheritance registers, the Greek-Orthodox wives received lesser shares than the children. Again there were some exception: in one entry, the wife was granted bigger portion than other heirs and heiresses in the family and, in other seven entries the female spouse either received an equal or bigger share than her daughters. In the same period, resembling inheritance distributions also observed in the Armenian and Muslim families (Kayseri Şer’iyye Sicili 224, 1871-1873). Note that from this perspective, the Greek-Orthodox and Armenian, as well as Muslim families can be put into the “conjugal” category of Frederic le Play’s family classification, since unlike in the stem family formation, almost all the children of the same gender received equal portions (Flandrin, 1979).
Table 3: Examples for the inheritance shares in the Greek-Orthodox families of Kayseri. (Kayseri Şer’iyye Sicili 224, 1871-1873)∗.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Spouse</th>
<th>1st Child</th>
<th>2nd Child</th>
<th>3rd Child</th>
<th>4th Child</th>
<th>5th Child</th>
<th>6th Child</th>
<th>7th Child</th>
<th>Other</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Wife</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Wife 639</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>447</td>
<td>447</td>
<td>893</td>
<td>893</td>
<td>893</td>
<td>893</td>
<td>893</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wife</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Mother 426</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>194</td>
<td>1290</td>
<td>804</td>
<td>804</td>
<td>804</td>
<td>1608</td>
<td>1608</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wife</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Mother 2232</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1032</td>
<td>948</td>
<td>948</td>
<td>948</td>
<td>948</td>
<td>1897</td>
<td>1897</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wife</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Male</td>
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<td>Male</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Wife 1803</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1674</td>
<td>2524</td>
<td>5049</td>
<td>5049</td>
<td>5049</td>
<td>5049</td>
<td>5049</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Finally, to see different implementations in inheritance traditions by the Greek-Orthodox communities of different regions, the seventeenth century Naxos example can be of use. Certainly, Naxos and Kayseri had different surroundings and a historical past. Because of their geographic locations, whereas the former one –situated at the core of the Cyclades Islands-, was in constant contact with the Western societies, the latter one was under Islamic influence. A two-century difference between the time span that this paper covers and the seventeenth century Naxos should be also born in mind. In defiance of this, it is an eminent example. Since, in the seventeenth century legal system of Naxos, in which the Byzantine law and the Orthodox Church regulations were dominant, some components of the Western European laws could be traced.

In the seventeenth century Naxos, in most of the cases the maternal (cognatio) and paternal (agnatio) ties were taken as basis for the inheritance distributions within the families. Most often, the mothers left their inheritances to their female offsprings, whereas sons inherited from their fathers. Occasionally, the male and female offsprings could be granted inheritance shares from both sides. This was clearly a sign of a dissimilar inheritance practice between the Greek-Orthodox of different regions. In the case of Kayseri we cannot make generalization because there was no standard inheritance practice. It appears that depending on the wills of their parents, both male and female offsprings held their titles by descent. Apart from these, in the Byzantine inheritance law, the step children and the relatives (even the seventh degree relatives) could claim from inheritance shares. In Naxos, the examples of this sort of inheritance practice could be observed. In the inheritance registers of Kayseri that we have examined however, we could not pin down such examples (Armenopoulos, 1971; Kasdagli, 1991; Kasdagli, 1999).

Conclusion

To sum up, with this comparative study we have seen that from religious to demographic or economic, various issues played role in shaping family structures, and the Greek-Orthodox family formation in different parts of the Ottoman Empire constitutes one of the eminent examples of this situation. Culture and “shared meanings” are essential for people. However, here for analysis, along with the cultural heritage, the socio-economic needs of the given period were thought over as determined factors (Bianchi and Casper, 2005). In their localities as a consequence of symbiotic living, the Greek-Orthodox inhabitants of Kayseri seem to be influenced by other millet groups’ –Muslims’ and Armenians’- family traditions. Certainly the reverse was also true. Muslims and Armenians were affected by the family customs and values of their Greek-Orthodox neighbours.

∗ For the calculation of this table, as a monetary unit only kuruş (piaster) was counted. The monetary amounts less than piaster were not taken into account.
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Incidence and Related Factors of Depression in Adolescents with Cancer

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Abstract. This study aimed to investigate the prevalence of depression among adolescents with cancer. A sample of 174 adolescents diagnosed with cancer along with one of their parents, respectively completed Beck Depression Inventory for Primary Care (BDI-PC) and Beck Depression Inventory (BDI) as well as a demographic questionnaire. Results revealed that 29.9% of adolescent participants were diagnosed with depression disorder. Furthermore, there were positive correlations between adolescent depression with parents’ depression, cancer relapse, and number of children in the family. However no significant correlation was indicated between adolescent depression with adolescents’ age, gender, the age when diagnosis was made, duration of illness, amount and kind of treatment methods, intensity of disease, and family income.

Keywords: depression, adolescents, cancer.

Introduction

Cancer in adolescents is uncommon yet more of a stressful phenomenon stemming from some specific and unique changes which occur for the patient and her or his family [1, 2]. The threatening nature of cancer and its aggressive treatment methods may lead to substantial emotional stresses [3] which in turn could disturb the family environment and ultimately have the adolescent’s internalizing problems ensued. Beside the cancer related medical issues, the adolescents may experience multiple stressors that may stem from both the illness and the adolescence proper normal developmental tasks [4]. There is evidence indicating that adolescent with cancer, more likely experience significant psychological maladjustment [5, 6, 7]. On the other hand, some studies suggest that adolescents with cancer were no more anxious or depressed than the normal adolescents [8, 9]. Furthermore, among co-morbid psychological issues and various problems with pediatric cancer, depression is known as the most common psychiatric disorder [10, 11, 12]. The prevalence of depression, co-morbid with cancer, varies between 8% and 36% depending on the site of cancer, diagnostic criteria based on the rating scales used [13, 14]; other risk factors for depression include being female, a family history of depression particularly in a parent [15], and disease severity [16]. Depression is a risk factor for delayed diagnosis of cancer as well as a significant agent for rejection of medicine by the patients [17, 18, 19]. It has negative effects on individual functioning, quality of life, duration of hospitalization, and efficiency of medical treatment [20]. Lowering the function of immunity system, depression could predict cancer progression and mortality [16]. In general, in its co-occurrence with cancer, depression has several miserable effects in deferent areas of individual and social life, physical and psychological health, and treatment or Progression of illness. Hence, prevention, diagnosis and early intervention for depression in cancer patient adolescents are vital. The present study was designed and conducted with the purpose of investigating prevalence of depression and its related factors in adolescents afflicted with cancer.

Methods

Subjects

174 adolescent cancer patients (77 female and 97 male) and one of their parents were selected through convenient sampling from a number of cancer treatment centers and hospitals in three cities (Tehran, Isfahan, and Shiraz) of Iran.

Instrument

Beck Depression Inventory for Primary Care (BDI-PC): This questionnaire has been used as a screening instrument in depression for patients with medical problems and is a 7-item questionnaire. These items include symptoms of sadness,
past failure, self dislike, loss of pleasure, self criticalness, pessimism, and suicidal thoughts and wishes. These items are according to the criteria for major depressive disorder (MDD) in the 4th edition of Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (DSM-IV) [21]. Winters et al. have reported high internal consistency and Cronbach's alpha coefficient in adolescent sample. They found that a BDI-PC cutoff score of 4 and above had both 91% sensitivity and specificity rates respectively for identifying adolescents with and without MDD [22].

Beck Depression Inventory (BDI): This questionnaire is one of the best depression diagnostic tests and more customarily used in researches and clinical situations. It has 21 items with answers for each item scoring in 4 point likert scale. In a meta-analysis study on the BDI, it was discovered that its internal consistency estimate yielded a mean coefficient alpha of 0.86 and 0.81 respectively for the psychiatric patients and non psychiatric subjects [23].

Demographic Questionnaire: A researcher designed questionnaire was used to collect information regarding the patients’ demographic and treatment data such as age and gender of adolescent, age at which diagnosis was made, illness duration, quantity and kind of treatment methods, intensity of disease, type of cancer, cancer relapse, family income, and the number of family children.

Data Analysis

After completing the questionnaires by the participants, data were coded and entered into the SPSS16.0 software. Descriptive statistics, correlation coefficient, and independent samples T-test were used for statistical analysis.

Results

Results revealed that 29.9% of adolescent participants were diagnosed with depression disorder. There were significant positive correlations between adolescent depression with both parent depression (0/155, P< 0.05) and the number of children in the family (0/152, P< 0.05). However no significant relations were indicated between adolescent depression with adolescents’ age and gender, the age when diagnosis was made, duration of illness, amount and kind of treatment methods, intensity of disease, and family income. Incidentally adolescents with cancer relapse were significantly more depressed (P< 0.3) than adolescents without cancer relapses.

| Table 1. frequency and percent frequency of depressed and non depressed adolescents. |
|---------------------------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| Depression position            | Frequency       | Percent frequency |
| Depressed adolescent           | 52              | 29/9            |
| Non depressed adolescent       | 122             | 70/1            |

| Table 2. mean discrepancy adolescent depression score in relapsed and non relapsed groups. |
|---------------------------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| Relapse position                | Frequency       | Mean            | Standard diversion | t               | Significant level (p) |
| With relapse                    | 53             | 5/01            | 5/47             | -2/18           | 0/03              |
| With out relapse                | 121            | 3/52            | 3/43             |                 |                   |

Discussion

The correlation of the number of children in the family and the parent depression with adolescent's depression may suggest that family and parental factors have a significant role in the mental health of adolescents with cancer. Contrary to typical expectations, girl adolescent participants were not more depressed than the boys [9]; indeed there was no difference in depression between sexes. This could be due to the type of instrument that was used for assessment of depression (BDI-PC) in this research which excluded the somatic symptoms more frequently seen in the female sample. Perhaps lack of significant correlation between the prevalence of depression in adolescent with cancer and illness related factors may be related to the array of cancers and their proper treatment methods in subjects. Future studies with more homogeneity in the samples may bind different results.

Concurrence of depression disorder with cancer has several and miserable effects in different areas in individual and social life, psychological and physical health, treatment and illness advancing of adolescents. Considering the incidence
of depression among adolescents with cancer (equal 1/3), diagnose and treatment of this psychological disorder at its outset is important and indispensible. Arriving at this vital objective entails compiling and executing preventive measures such as family-focused interventions, informing parents and medical staff on the symptoms and their effects, and application of psychological tools related to depression.

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References

Psychological and Social Factors in Rheumatic Diseases

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Abstract: Rheumatic diseases are major causes of different degrees of pain, disability and deformity. They have strong impact in patient's lives, especially in psychological and social dimensions, as a result of their healthcare needs. The present study has a qualitative nature and is based on the evaluation of the impact of changes related to the progression of rheumatic diseases and on how the disease affects patients, namely at psychological, professional and social level. We conducted a focus-group to understand how illness could limit the daily life of these adult patients, women and men, with rheumatic diseases. Along the analysis and discussion of the results, we found out that the patients with rheumatic diseases have a health condition extremely complex, particularly in a psychological and emotional dimension. They have suffered severe changes, associated to emotional disturbances, related with demotivation, anxiety, nervousness, and physical limitations of multiple sorts, which lead to frustration or dissatisfaction. The rheumatic diseases can strongly affect the profession and social activity of the patients, but the family and friends support was proven to have a positive impact in the individuals, softening some negative effects of the illness. Our study emphasizes that it is recommended that nurse practitioners participate in the evaluation of these patients, in order to provide the adequate healthcare that they require, and aiming to promote their wellbeing.

Keywords: rheumatic diseases, health, illness, social dimension, psychological dimension, nursing

1. Introduction

In our western societies, the major cause of morbidity is the rheumatic diseases, which reflect the overall impact of musculoskeletal illnesses. It is estimated that approximately 10% of the general population suffers from these chronic diseases (Cardiel, 2011; Cardiel & Rojas-Serrano, 2002; Lucas & Monjardino, 2010). There are about one hundred rheumatic diseases that produce varying degrees of pain, disability and deformity.

In general, these diseases do not increase short-term mortality and therefore, are not taken into account as health priorities. However, their influence on the deterioration of the quality of life is increasingly recognized. Rheumatic diseases can be defined as functional alterations of musculoskeletal system without traumatic source (Queirós, 2002). These are chronic and degenerative diseases, that impose major challenges on life and health of the patients, their families and even, in a larger extent, on the health systems, so, these reality needs all attention because it implies an enormous cost on healthcare systems (Woolf, 2003; Silva, 2000). Among these diseases, the most common are, first of all, osteoarthritis (OA) and rheumatoid arthritis (RA).

Their causes are frequently unidentified, but it is well-known that they are progressive, with an uncertain prognosis. Almost all rheumatic disorders have treatment that in a certain extent can be controllable, though they are incurable and a major cause of disability (Queirós, 2002). The osteoarthritis, in particular, has a prevalence that increases steeply with age (Faustino, 2003). Nowadays, about 12% of people over the age of twenty five years old are affected; and 60% of people over the age of sixty five years old have at least one joint with a moderate to severe deformation.

In fact, 38% of the Portuguese population (circa 2.7 millions) suffer from some form of these illnesses (approximately 1.7 million men and 970 thousand women) (LPCDR, 2004).

A rheumatic disease restricts people’s ability to perform some tasks, social and occupational roles. It is the single greatest cause of disability in the elderly. More than 53% of adults over the age of 65 years complain from this health problem (Pimm & Weinman, 1998). Moreover, the aging of the Portuguese population, associated to the increase of...
rheumatic diseases, triggers profound implications, especially in plans caring for older people with rheumatic problems (Lucas & Monjardino, 2010).

The chronic degenerative diseases develop gradually, affecting health and welfare, provoking pain, disabilities and constraints in all kind of activity. These diseases inflict undoubtedly, a limitation to the autonomy and independence of persons, compromising their wellbeing in every sense (Hill, 1999).

In face of the strong psychosocial impact of rheumatic diseases, the World Health Organization dedicated the years from 2000 to 2010 as the 'Bone and Joint Decade', created by an initiative of the United Nations. The main objective is to highlight the importance of musculoskeletal diseases, and their impact in all areas of human life, in different regions of the world (MS, 2004). Another objective is to invert the increasing tendency of rheumatic illnesses and this demands a comprehensive and global approach, by the health services, to reduce the risk of contracting this disease and promote their adequate treatment and rehabilitation, all over the world, including in Portugal (DGS, 2007).

All rheumatic diseases may play important roles in shaping the cognitive, emotional and behavioural processes, underlying the each person's symptoms and subsequent adaptations. Patients with rheumatologic problems, whether they are mild or severe, will be affected emotionally, physically, psychologically, sexually and financially. Some may have to give up work and become dependent on their companion; the chronic pain can cause problems in relationships, several activities, and even the simple things may become too difficult. As a result the ill person can feel isolated, lonely, depressed and even guilty (O'Donovan, 2004).

Pain is the predominant complaint of those who live with a rheumatic condition. We usually associate pain with some kind of injury, but the rheumatic chronic pain challenges these beliefs, and patients and physicians find it hard to understand how it can arise from apparently nowhere. In the rheumatic diseases, pain and joint stiffness are the first symptoms to appear, first of all in the hands.

As the disease progresses, other joints such as the shoulders, elbows, wrists, hips, knees and ankles, are affected (Olivier, 2004; O'Donovan, 2004). This kind of pain is almost permanent, in day and night, and sometimes changes to patients' sleep pattern. It is often brought about by a combination of pain, fear and anxiety about their disease and their future (Hill & Hale, 2004; Bourguignon, Labyak & Taibi, 2003). Sometimes, the loss of the normal range of movements results in loss of independence and mobility, causing a negative impact on psychosocial status of the individual.

The chronic symptoms of rheumatic disease can cause psychological impact. The variability of good and bad days makes it difficult to plan any event, and younger patients report this as their greatest difficulty in dealing with the symptoms of arthritis (Straughair, 1992; Hill & Hale, 2004). These uncertainties can contribute to depression and patients' anxiety. In fact, pain and fatigue are major factors that contribute to depression and these may become complex to evaluate. Fatigue and feelings like anger, fear, and worthlessness are common between these patients, who often also have to deal with anxieties about their dependence upon the others.

Rheumatic diseases are also responsible for the degradation of joints and for profound changes in the physical appearance, so the patients may feel that they are no longer attractive with their 'new body'. The truth is that alterations to body image pose a problem to which young people are particularly vulnerable, because they truly worry about their image, associating it to the difficulties to have meaningful relationships. Sometimes, as the patients become too much centred on people's perception about their (physical) image, they also may become socially isolated (Ryan & Olivier, 2002; Boyington et al, 2008). At physical and psychological levels, the sexual problems can occur, as sexual intercourses may become painful and functionally difficult. This can place a strain even on lasting relationships (Hill, 2004; Hill & Hale, 2004).

On the social domain, the rheumatic disease affects the patient on his work and social activity. Patients are less likely to be employed or be as well paid as their healthy peers, and this is another factor of anxiety (Packham, 2004; Hill & Hale, 2004). Of course the disease also affects the family and is responsible for some alterations and financial changes. In spite of everything, patients with chronic diseases are sometimes little aware of the social and psychological consequences of their disease, or about their subsequent needs.

There are methodological problems to evaluate the impact of rheumatic diseases. There is information about some aspects such as the impact of quality of life like pain, suffering, progressive deformity and inability to perform activities of daily living. It is also important to understand other variables such as social and psychological problems, undesirable changes at work or in life plans.

The traditional ways of providing healthcare is almost exclusively based on the medical model of diagnosis, and sometimes fail to recognise common issues that affect individuals with a chronic disease. There are several factors that may lead the individual to experience a loss of self-esteem and, ultimately, a feeling of disempowerment in negotiating their healthcare needs (Olivier, 2004).
Without an understanding of the internal and profound implications of the rheumatic diseases, the healthcare professionals could hardly achieve a real perspective of the situation, in order to identify what are the repercussions of this illness. The perceptions of the patients suffering from this illness are essential to understand what they feel and what they have to face, daily, in every domain of their lives.

In this sense, the **main objective** of the present study is to understand how rheumatic diseases can limit the life of patients, namely at psychological, family and social dimensions.

2. **Methodology**

2.1. **Population**

Our sample consisted of 10 participants, patients with rheumatic diseases, six (6) women and four (4) men, from 30 to 60 years old.

2.2. **Instrument of Measure and Procedure**

We conducted a focus-group with all the participants. They were asked about:
- How rheumatic disease can limit your activities?
- What implications the disease has brought to your social life and to your relationships with your family and friends?
- How do you usually feel?

This last question is related with another: ‘In what extent can pain limit your daily activities, at a social, professional and psychological level?’

We let the participants talk and discuss about these topics. We also collected some socio-demographic data about the participants (e.g. gender, age, marital status, etc.), as well as some other indicators about less relevant issues.

All the data was collected at the Portuguese League against Rheumatic Disease (LPCDR, 2004) and was analysed through content analyses (Bardin, 1977).

2.3. **Ethical Considerations**

The patients were informed that their participation in the study was anonymous and voluntary. Accordingly, we obtained a written consent from each participant. The permission to record the interviews and the group discussion, as well as the confidentiality and anonymity, were assured by us.

3. **Findings**

When we asked the participants to talk about ‘How rheumatic disease can limit your activities?’ all of them said that the main problem is the pain, many times severe and incessant, provoking suffering, disability and several restrictions. Participants reported that pain essentially commits their ability to walk and, above all, they have difficulty climbing up and go down stairs (cf. Table 1).

Women, in most of the day, have difficulty in carrying out household tasks such as shopping, to treat clothes and preparing food for cooking. Men denote more difficulty to drive the car, work, practice their favourite sports, and in addition they complain that the pain affects their social relationships. Most participants consider the pain they feel as moderate or intense. Considering the gender, women say they suffer from an intense pain in the joints, while men argue that the pain is moderate and really affects several joints, throughout all the day and by night, it may even imply difficulty falling asleep, or sleeping disorders.

**Table 1.** Activities, feelings and social limitations related with rheumatic disease (by descending order of importance/frequency)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity limitations</th>
<th>Social limitations</th>
<th>Feelings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mobility in community</td>
<td>Working</td>
<td>Anxiety</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mobility at home</td>
<td>Hobbies</td>
<td>Constant worry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Climbing up and go down stairs</td>
<td>Changes in the social life</td>
<td>Depression</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Household tasks</td>
<td>Visiting family or friends</td>
<td>Tension</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shopping</td>
<td></td>
<td>Restlessness</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Cooking  
Treat clothing  
Working  
Hobbies  
Difficult to sleep, or  
Rest deprivation (and Fatigue)

Nervousness  
Sadness  
Lack of courage  
Unselfishness  
Discouragement  
Hopelessness  
Low self-esteem  
Uncertainty regarding future

To the question ‘What implications the disease has brought to your social life and to your relationships with your family and friends?’, the responses of both, men and women, suggest that their social life is compromised in consequence of the disease.

It was observed that the disease has brought important restrictions in several common daily activities, such as leisure activities, work or hobbies, and in go out home, even to do some shopping or to visit family or friends (cf. Table 1).

The participants reported that the support given by family and friends is essential. They often say that most of the times the family ‘would be present if they needed help’, because family ‘shows an interest in their problems’ and they are aware of their ‘personal needs’, and that is why they are ‘sensitive to the effects caused by arthritis’.

As we already mentioned, the social life of the patients is compromised by illness, so, leaving home for leisure activities or hobbies sometimes becomes particularly difficult, and relatives or friends are also very affected for this situation. They often maintain regular contact with family by telephone, using it most days. And this is a way to feel somehow accompanied or close to someone, and not isolated or in loneliness.

The male participants still have a paid job and are professionally active. The women, in general, are housewife; among women, the most affected by illness and with more than 50 years old, are now retired. Some of the men reveal that when they feel especially tired or uncomfortable it becomes difficult to concentrate and to do their job. Some also refer that in some days they need to reduce the working hours, because of the pain and fatigue they feel.

In reply to another question, ‘How do you usually feel?’, participants said they rarely feel calm or relaxed. In fact, they point out that they frequently feel nervous, sad or depressed. They also mentioned that they do not appreciate many of the things they have to do and they do not habitually feel much enthusiastic. But, in general, they also reported that even when they feel very sad, and despite their limitations, they like to live (and do not have a wish to die), despite their usual pain and suffering.

4. Discussion

According to what we found, many authors highlight the impact caused by rheumatic diseases on the life of the patients, affecting them at different levels, in the way they usually feel and on their daily activities (e.g. Carr & Higginson, 2001). In this context, the physical limitations due to changes in any joint function and some kind of functional disability, may gradually lead to loss of independence of the individual in particular in the common activities of daily living (Hill, 1999). In this respect, Melanson & Downe-Womboldt (2003) reported that mobility in general, whether at home, in the community, in travels on foot or by transport, in care of personal hygiene and in the household tasks, may be seriously affected.

In a study that addressed the impact of rheumatic disease in women in relation to their domestic life, when compared with others (considered healthy), were found significant changes in this activity for those women, for example in what concerns to cooking, cleaning and ironing, among others (Rebelo, 1996).

As we verified, a rheumatic disease can strongly contribute to important impairments at a physical and psychological dimensions of a patient, and this can be noted in some symptoms as fatigue, morning stiffness, inability to activities of daily living (like doing some actions, eating, dressing, and hygiene habits, among others) (Melanson & Downe-Womboldt, 2003). Our study also showed that there are some components affected, in particular movements involving flexion and extension of joints, both in terms of the lower limbs (such as walking, climbing and descending stairs) or of the upper level (as the movements associated to hands, fingers and arms).

In summary, the rheumatic diseases are recognized as a health problem that mostly affects women. Along time, there is a progressive evolution to severe disability. And this is reflected on the difficulty to perform the activities of daily life and the tasks that are culturally more associated with women.

The pain is a major cause that affects the lives of individuals with rheumatic diseases, and this is a very complex issue, both for patients as for health professionals. In fact, most patients with a rheumatic disease, especially with
rheumatic arthritis, have pain in almost all joints, ranging from moderate to very strong (Davis, 2003). In the population
that we studied the majority of the patients evidenced this pattern.

There is also a relationship between pain intensity and some sleep disturbances. The rheumatic pain may interfere
with sleep and affects the performance of many activities and tasks, such as those that are related with hygiene, dressing
up and undressing, household chores, the shopping or the writing. Thus, we can say that the capacities of people with
rheumatic disease are usually reduced in many ways, limiting their quality of life.

It is evident that the family is very important for the respondents. However, nowadays the families have more
difficulty than in the past to give direct support to any member that may be sick for long periods - including personal care,
household tasks, basic needs, etc.

It is therefore normal that other resources may be used to contact someone or to maintain a good relationship, which
is really valued by our subjects, but this does not overcome the social isolation felt by the patients. Frequently, in addition
to a strictly biological disorder, emerges a certain social isolation. This was evidenced by our participants with the
decreasing of their social contacts, either in visits to family and friends, or in carrying out recreational activities and
hobbies.

Rheumatic diseases have a huge social importance. They also have a great impact in work. The progressive
increase in disability linked to rheumatic diseases, is the main cause of early retirement. Our participants described some
changes that affected their work rate (decrease in the number of hours of work). Women, in particular, perform the
domestic tasks but, in both sexes, it is necessary an adaptation to accomplish even the more simple actions, learning to
live with severe physical limitations.

Regarding the emotional aspects, we should remember that a chronic disease triggers of anxiety and depressive
reactions, varying from person to person. Any healthcare professional that takes care of these patients, should consider
that each person is unique as has a own way to experience the illness and the way how it changed his life, family and
social interactions.

Our participants revealed tension, restlessness, nervousness, changes of humour, and a certain degree of negativity
to face the day-to-day activities, reinforced by some sadness, lack of courage, unselfishness, discouragement and
hopelessness - as predictors of a low self-esteem.

In a study with a population of 137 patients with rheumatoid arthritis, 42% was depressed, and chronic pain was
considered the main cause (Nicasio & Wallston, 1992). In this regard, Teixeira (2002) states that depression is often
associated with rheumatic diseases in general.

Another aspect that could lead to the onset of depression is the change of body image, resulting from physical
deformities caused by the disease, and this implies constraints on the work and in social life.

5. Conclusion

We can say that pain becomes really meaningful, as a form of suffering, when it is continuously present, even if its
intensity varies over time. This is what happens in rheumatic diseases, as chronic illnesses. The pain and the suffering
affect the individual, in all his areas of action.

In particular, the psychological repercussions of the rheumatic diseases are considered very negative by most
authors, and it is natural that, with increasing age, its effects become more serious (e.g. Jackobsson & Hallberg, 2002;
Hyunsoo & Whasook, 2003). There are several aspects that can contribute to it. The pain and functional disability often
cause anxiety, insecurity and depression.

If we take into account the isolation, so usual, of the older people in our societies, then it becomes more obvious the
importance of the psychological condition in the case of the older people, so often retired or away from their family (e.g.

Pain can really have a tremendous impact and limit the daily activities of anyone with a rheumatic disease. This is
why it was so valued in our study. It can be viewed as a multidimensional phenomenon that affects the person at different
levels, namely behavioural, emotional, psychological and social, implying a great personal suffering, with heavy costs to
the individual and family, and having inevitable social and professional consequences.

The physical and functional effects of the disease may be more or less severe, and it is known that there is a
tendency for their increase with disease progression, and the increase of age.

The 'physical illness' has clear implications in affective, family and social interaction, contributing to emotional
disturbances related to a high level of tension, fear, insecurity, physical limitations, and this situation leads to a profound
dissatisfaction or frustration, in different areas of personal life. It should be noted however, that the social support, and
especially family and friends, it turned out to have a positive impact on the subject, decreasing in part, some of the negative effects of the disease in these dimensions.

The decrease and even the loss of some capacity or functionality, has a negative influence on the individual performance, particularly at a professional domain, implying important limitations on any activity.

Knowing the physical, functional and emotional difficulties and the limitations of the patients, health professionals may have a better understanding of patients’ priorities and improve their strategies to deal with them, providing the adequate care to help them facing the everyday life, contributing as much as possible for their wellbeing.

In this sense, this study may contribute to understand how it is to live with rheumatic disease, and how can we help someone suffering from this chronic disease, to face the day-by-day positively and with more hope.

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The Control of Children's Crimes in Romania

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Abstract: The aim of this paper is to provide a general presentation regarding the way how children’s crimes control is made in a Romanian community. Starting with a general presentation of the children’s in conflict with penal law, the vulnerability of the children in front of some factors that may orient them to commit offences, the Romanian legal framework and the tendency of this phenomena in the last years, I tried to address the following questions: What is used in our days in order to control the children’s crimes? Which are the institutions and the actors involved in this control process? In which programs are the juvenile offenders involved and why? Do the numbers say that we really deal with an increase of this phenomenon? Can we say that Romania has a well defined strategy for controlling children’s crimes? In order to find an answer to these questions I used as a research method the semi-structured interviews and a focus-group in which were involved specialists that are working directly with the juvenile offenders. Their opinions as professionals and practitioners are important for constructing the image of the Romanian strategy used in a micro-community for controlling children’s crimes. According to recent research in this field I consider the debate of this issue a very important one in order to highlight the necessity to improve the actual strategies used in controlling juvenile crimes. The conclusions of this paper stress that until now Romania does not have a well defined strategy used for controlling the crimes committed by juveniles.

Keywords: controlling children’s crimes, strategy, professionals.

1. Introduction

The modern societies have to face juvenile delinquency. Times have changed and phenomena like violence or crimes committed by children are not rare or new.

The children’s crime control is important at least from two sides: on the one hand for the reduction of criminality rate, and on the other hand a child rehabilitated today is a non-offender of tomorrow. The importance of controlling crimes committed by children is relayed also by the effects of the crime because crime is not just a violation of law; it produces also harm on the others (…). The damages are at different levels experienced by victims, communities and even offenders (Ness, 2002, p. 4).

The juvenile offenders don’t have a cognitive maturity and can be very affected by the effects of their offences because “Latest research has been emphasizing that fundamental changes in brain development occur much later than had been recognized – continuing long after puberty is over. Children’s capacities for adolescence, as do their problem-solving skills and capacity to understand the long-term consequences, of their behaviour – these capacities are far from fully developed as puberty is reached. As a consequence, many young people today reach sexual maturity by the time they are 12 or 13, on average, yet cognitive maturity does not come until their early 20s” (Beatty & Chalk, 2006, p. 7).

In these conditions, societies have to adapt and find efficient strategies for controlling children’s crime. In terms of strategies for crime control, David Garland studied this issue, characterizing these strategies as adaptations to the current predicament of crime control (Garland, 1996, p. 446).

In other words, not only the societies are changing but also the paths of children in committing crimes. These paths are changes that require more attention and an adaptation of the measures used in order to control juvenile delinquency.

The vulnerability of children in front of some factors that might orient them to commit crimes should be taken into consideration when a strategy is designed. In fact, the entire intervention made on a juvenile offender has to be oriented on the reduction of risk factors. These factors are the main accelerators of juvenile delinquency and their control is required.

Although the strategies should be the same in the entire country their implementation will be influenced by the traditional and cultural aspects of each community because these are aspects that differ from one location to another.

The purpose of this paper is to point out how children’s crimes control is made in Romania. The system for minors used in this country is regulated as a subsystem of the wider adult criminal justice system, been characterized as a “softer” adult system structured around the “philosophy” of correction through rehabilitation, social reintegration and of the raising awareness and responsibility of the child regarding the effects of his/her wrongdoings (Balahur, 2008, p. 34). This subsystem deserves attention because the fate of the child offender depends on it.
2. Research Method

The children’s crime control in Romania is one of the issues that require a special attention when it’s about the methodology used in order to identify the way in which is this made. The main purpose of this study was to identify the institutions, measures, practices as parts of a strategy designed for controlling children’s crime. I wanted to reach my goal by giving a voice to the professionals working in the juvenile justice system in expressing their beliefs regarding their work and the practices they have to use with juvenile offender that is why my option was to use Action research as a research method.

Action research is an interactive inquiry process that balances problem solving actions implemented in a collaborative context with data-driven collaborative analysis or research to understand underlying causes enabling predictors about personal and organizational change (Reason & Bradbury, 2001). My option for Action research is motivated also by the fact that I wanted to have a personal contact with professionals working in the system in order to obtain an accurate perception about what is done in Romania for controlling juvenile delinquency.

My contact with some of the professionals involved in this study was relatively easy established because I did previous voluntary work in the institutions where they are working. The contact with the other professionals was made by following the official steps: first I made an application for the manager of each institution in which I was requiring the permission to make interviews with some of the professionals working there, second I expect an approval from the manager and third the manager mediated the relation with his subordinates and introduced me and my reason for been there to them.

The objectives of this study were: the identification of the practices and programs used for children in conflict with penal law, the new paths in children’s delinquency, the roles and partnerships of the institutions responsible in children’s crime control and most important if the Romanian juvenile justice has a strategy design for controlling juvenile delinquency.

The process of collecting data was reached by combining qualitative research methods (namely interviews, focus group and participatory observation) with analysis of the documents provided by the professionals interviewed.

It worth mention that this study is part of a larger research made for the doctoral thesis “Controlling children’s crimes and violence through micro-communitarian strategies. Compared analysis Romania-Spain”.

In order to reach the objective above mentioned I used a combination between four methods, namely: documentation - which is a distinct customer rating method and a process that takes place throughout the period of handling the case (World Vision Organization Manual for good practices in social care, Ia i, 2003, p. 10), interview technique – which is essentially and should only be conducted flexibly and intelligently according to concrete circumstances and persons (Ilu, 1997, p. 92), focus group technique – which is a planned discussion organized to obtain perceptions about a narrower area of interest, held in a permissive environment, the discussion is relaxed and often enjoyable for the participants who share their ideas and perceptions; group members influence each other, responding to ideas and comments (Kreuger, 1994, pp. 55-56) and participatory observation - which means to study the inside of a community, by participating in a longer period of time to work them without a default scheme by category or specific hypotheses, it will be developed during the investigation or at the end, aiming towards more complex descriptions and explanations and full (Ilu, 1997, p. 77).

My purpose was to obtain as much information as possible regarding the control of children’s crimes in Romania and the interviews were not enough for that. However, the interviews completed by participatory observation and analysis of documents provided by professionals can be considered a good method of obtaining more complete data.

The documentation was used in order to relay the Romanian legal framework used in the case of juvenile offenders and the institutions involved in the process of children’s crime control.

The interviews were semi-structured and have behind a guide of interview which I designed and tested before starting the research. I constructed the guide of interview with the intention of exploring the following subjects: the programs applied to juvenile offenders, programs for preventing juvenile delinquency, partners of the programs and the role they have, the new paths/tendencies in juvenile delinquency, changes appeared in the last three years that improved the system of children’s crime control and new perspective of system’s development. The interviews were completed by the participatory observation which was using an observation guide. This method was used during the interviews and intended to explore the following: what institution has the main responsibility for controlling children’s crimes; what practices are the best for juvenile offenders; what are the main factors that influence in a negative way the process of children’s crime control; what should be changed for having an efficient juvenile justice system.

The focus – group intended to explore the following areas: best practices for the rehabilitation of juvenile offenders; new paths noticed in the last two years in the delinquent behaviour of the child; measures needed for a more efficient
juvenile justice system; institutions involved/that should be involved in controlling children’s crimes and the way how the partnership should work in order to obtain better results and a uniform intervention.

The sample for this study was formed by sixteen professionals divided in two categories: eight interviews’ participants (two probation officers, a psychologist, a social worker and an educator working in a penitentiary, two police officers working in the field of preventing juvenile delinquency and a social worker from a rehabilitative centre) and eight focus group’s participants (three social workers coming from penitentiary and rehabilitative centre; two police officers working in different police services; two probation officers also coming from different probation services and a judge working in the juvenile court).

3. Results and discussions

The discussion regarding the results obtained in this study should start with a general presentation of the legal framework used in the case of juvenile offenders and the institutions involved in the process of children’s crime control. According to the document analysis made, I can relay the following:

**The Romanian legal framework used for juvenile offenders**

In Romania, the age of criminal responsibility is fourteen. The legal regime of the juvenile aged 14-18 years old is regulated by the Penal Code. According to article 99 from the Romanian Penal Code there are some limitations of criminal responsibility because the children aged between 14 and 16 years old are criminally responsible – can be trialed, charged and sentenced unless they had discernment in the moment of committing the crime. The children aged 16-18 years old are fully criminal responsibility for their actions.

The Romanian Penal Code stipulates in the article 100 that against juvenile who is criminally responsible can be taken an educational measure or a punishment. According to the article 101 from the Penal Code, the educational measures which can be applied to the minors who have committed an offence are:

a. warnings;
b. the supervised freedom;
c. custody in a re-education center;
d. hospitalization in a medical institute.

The article 103 par. 3 stipulates that the warnings and supervised freedom can be accompanied by:

a. unpaid work for community in a public institution fixed by the court (between 50-200 hours, max 3 hours/day after school, in weekends and during holidays);
b. to attend school/a program for professional education, medical treatment etc.
c. curfews as not going in established locations, not entering in contact with established persons can also be imposed.

After the year 2000, Romanian juvenile justice system, joined the reform of the child welfare system and of the justice system as a different approach on juvenile justice. It consisted in a multidimensional strategy aiming at: avoiding or limiting juveniles’ contact with the formal system of criminal law; limiting and keeping under a strict control the custody of juvenile offenders; deprivation of liberty only as a “last resort measure” and for the shortest time possible; providing rehabilitative measures aiming at the social reintegration of the juvenile offenders; strengthening the role of the family and school in juvenile delinquency prevention etc (Balahur, 2010, p. 194).

The decisions regarding the measures applied to juvenile offenders are taken by the judges from the juvenile courts. In their decisions, the court will take into consideration the personal circumstances (primary offender, health, moral and intellectual development, the support of the family etc) of the offender and also the nature of offence and of its social dangerousness (Balahur, 2008, p. 41).

An instrument of risk used by the court for evaluating the situation of the juvenile offender is the Pre-sentence Report made by the probation officer. This report is made obligatory for the juvenile offenders and has a main role in pointed out the situation of minor regarding social, educational aspects and also risk factors that might determinate the minor’s recidivism. In adopting a decision judges should also take into consideration the Pre-sentence Report. The competence for minor’s surveillance in the community belongs to the Probation services. It worth mention that if the juvenile offender fails to respect the conditions imposed by the court or commit another offence, the court will remove the probation and give him custodial measures (custody in a rehabilitation centre or penitentiary for minors and youth).

Romanian has ratified some international documents that were used in developing the legal framework applied to minors in conflict with penal law: UN Convention on the Rights of the Child, Beijing, Tokyo and Riyadh Rules and
European Commission Recommendation such as R (2003) 20 and R (87) 20. These instruments had a main role in designing, development and implementation of the practices used in the Romanian juvenile justice system.

**Institutions and actors involved in children’s crime control**

In Romania the control of juvenile criminality is complex process of which responsibility is placed on some institutions and professionals mentioned in the international and national legislative documents.

The Romanian legislation was adapted to art. 40 from the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child, through law no. 304 regarding judicial organization, which stipulate that trial of cases involving minors, will be made by specialized courts, in front of which judges are appointed according to law (art. 41).

The juvenile courts are the main Romanian institutions involved in children’s crime control that have a crucial role in deciding the fate of the child in conflict with penal law. Although some of the children are committing offences which generate their contact with juvenile courts, they are still *fragile creatures of God who need to be safeguarded and reformed* (Aries, 1996).

A review of the main Romanian institutions involved in children’s crime control should include the following:

- **Police services** – have the responsibility of investigating and catching the juvenile offenders and also in preventing juvenile delinquency through the programs they implement;
- **Probation services** – have the main role in applying a non-custodial measures imposed by the courts;
- **Rehabilitative centers** – have main role in psychosocial recovery of the juvenile offenders that are serving a custodial educational measure;
- **Penitentiaries for minors and youth** – have a role in psychosocial recovery and reintegration of the juvenile that are serving a custodial measure;
- **Drug centers** – have a main role in recovery of those juvenile offenders that have an addiction to drugs or other forbidden substances;

These institutions are trying to control the juvenile delinquency through their actions/attributes but many times there is a real need for a partnership with other institutions and actors. Other institutions that are many times involved as partners are: General Direction of Social Assistance and Child Protection present in every county; School Inspectorate; Hall from each county, Mental Health Centre (only for the minors with mental health problems), NGOs and foundations.

The effectiveness of children's crime control is not depending only of these institutions there are also other actors that should be involved but many times they don't want or don't know how to involve. One of the probation officers interviewed telling that the first cause of juvenile delinquency is "lack of parents' involvement". Although there are children in conflict with penal law who have "parents who are interested, make efforts, make him responsible, make a program for their child, tell their child at what time should be home, never to meet with some persons, all this for avoiding the commission of another offence" (probation officer’s opinion). Family can be one of the most important resources used in rehabilitation of the child offender because it can offer support, supervision and pro-social models.

From my point of view, the identification of the strategy used in a Romanian community for controlling children's crimes is a complex process that requires a big capacity of correlating the data.

According to the analysis of data collected for this study there are some observations/results that should be pointed out:

- **The children's vulnerability in front of some factors may orient them to commit offences.** The professionals interviewed were saying that “Majority motivate their offences through the influence of the company they have, but what we observe as professionals is the family environment because many of them there are unsupervised by their parents”, “many of the children are watching TV programs which are not for their age and because of them they become aggressive”, “school dropout is the second cause of becoming juvenile offender because the children don't have a constructive way for spending their free time. The main factors invoked by the professionals were: lack of family involvement, company influence, the school dropout and even the TV programs.

- **The contact of delinquent minor with the custodial measures and environment where they are applied is sustained by all the professionals working in the system.** The professionals working in institutions like probation services try to make a good intervention for obtaining the rehabilitation of the juvenile offender because they consider penitentiaries and rehabilitative centres are “schools of criminals”. Some of the children who end in rehabilitative centres or penitentiaries become irretrievable.

- **The closed environments like penitentiaries and rehabilitative centres are leaving deep marks on the development of the child because he ‘should adapt to this environment and for handle it the minor becomes
more and more aggressive. And when he will come into community, he won't adapt again and the risk for committing new offences is increased" (opinion of a psychologist working in a penitentiary);  

d. The professionals are trying to design and implement an individual intervention according to the legislative provisions but many times the collaboration with other institutions and professionals is fundamental for this intervention and “to no end I'm trying to make the child understand that he should adapt a pro-social behaviour and to avoid involving in crimes if his family and police officers from the community where he lives do not supervise him or involve in this process” (opinion of a probation officer).  

e. In Romania there is no difference between professionals that are working with juvenile or adult offenders because there are no legislative measures applied in order to make a category of workers that will be specialized to work only with the minors in conflict with penal law. A probation officer said: "we have to make activities as juvenile offender' surveillance, Pre-sentence Report for a minor or major person, to work in a program with a minor, all in the same day. It is difficult because you don't have continuity in your activity and you might become confused".  

f. The partnerships between the institutions involved in children’ crime control are many time “working only on the paper” because there are situations in which “the proximity police should go at juvenile offender’ home and discuss with his family about its supervision and the necessity of their involvement or even to go only for check out if the child did not committed other offences, but when I talk with the proximity police he tells me “what we can do?”” (opinion of a probation officer).  

4. Conclusions

The control of children’s crimes in a Romanian community is made under a not well defined strategy because the professionals working in this domain are having a partnership “only on the paper” and many times they do not collaborate properly for obtaining a successful rehabilitation of the juvenile offenders. An efficient process of controlling children’s crimes should be based on a real collaboration between professionals working in the institutions of the juvenile justice system because in this way there will be a uniform intervention on the delinquent child.

There is a real need for a new legislation or an improving of the one implemented now for underlying clear strategies and directions of actions in the field of juvenile delinquency.

Note

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References

World Vision Organization Manual for good practices in social care. (2003), Iași
Abstract The main purpose of this study is to examine the effects of perceived-workload and work-family conflict (WFC) on learned helplessness. While examining the role of the aforementioned variables, the effect of supervisor support was taken into account because support given by supervisors is believed to alleviate the adverse impact of workload and WFC. A total of 155 people working in a private bank in Turkey filled out the questionnaire. Participants rated the items that measure perceived workload, WFC, supervisor support and helplessness. Moderated mediation analysis was conducted to reveal the direct and moderating effects. In general, the results were found to be as expected. As employees experience high workload and WFC, their propensity to feel helplessness seems to increase. However, as perceived supervisor support increases, the adverse effect of WFC and workload on helplessness seems to diminish. However, it is noteworthy to say that the alleviating effect of support is effective up to some point. At high levels of workload and WFC, helplessness felt by employees increases substantially.

Key Words: Learned helplessness, supervisor support, work-family conflict, workload

1. Introduction

There is a growing interest for understanding employees’ reactions to adverse work conditions probably because these reactions manifest themselves as decreased employee productivity, job satisfaction and increased turnover intentions. Learned helplessness, which is one of the most cited reactions to prolonged stress, could affect organizational performance and employee well-being. Given the importance of enhancing quality of work-life, it seems necessary to address the issue of learned helplessness in organizational context by pinpointing its possible antecedents and correlates.

Learned helplessness could be defined as the notion of becoming passive after confronting with stressors like repeated punishment, failure, adverse conditions and remaining passive even after environmental changes that makes success possible (Güler, 2006). Believing that responding is futile and things cannot be controlled is considered to be the characteristics of learned helplessness and this belief could make people indifferent and passive. Applied to organizational context, employees being exposed to work stressors and aversive conditions for a long time are believed to become apathetic and passive even though they could change these adverse conditions. So far, scant number of studies has been conducted to investigate the antecedents and consequences of helplessness in organizational context; of those studies none of them has examined the joint effects of workload, WFC and lack of supervisor support that are argued to be prominent stressors in work life. The aim of this study is to address the gap in the literature by testing the main and moderating effects of work-family conflict, workload and supervisor support on learned helplessness.

2. The Effect of Workload, WFC and Supervisor Support on Learned Helplessness

Work family conflict has been defined as “a form of inter-role conflict in which the role pressures from the work and family domains are mutually incompatible so that participation in one role is made more difficult by the participation in another role” (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985, p.77). Although WFC is double-sided, many researchers have focused on the negative impact of work on family life (i.e., work to family interference), given the higher frequency of observing work-to-family interference as opposed to family to work interference (see Frone, Russell & Cooper, 1992) and the strong impact of work to family interference on work outcomes (e.g., Instrand et al, 2008; Kinnunen et al, 2006; Netemeyer, McMurrian & Boles, 1996) While acknowledging the fact that family life could influence work life and two spheres of life could have positive effects on each other, this study preferred to focus on the negative effects of work on family life. It is assumed that the responsibilities at work may interfere with the responsibilities at home, which could increase stress and conflict felt by individuals.
Previous research found work family conflict (WFC) associated with various individual and organizational outcomes such as absenteeism (e.g., Barling, MacEwen, Kelloway, & Higginbottom, 1994; Goff, Mount & Jamison, 1990; Hepburn & Barling, 1996; Kossek & Nichol, 1992; MacEwen & Barling, 1994; Thomas & Ganster, 1995), turnover intention (e.g., Burke, 1988) and work-life dissatisfaction (e.g., Bedian et al., 1988; Boles, Johnston, & Hair, 1997; Carlson & Perrewé, 1999; Higgins, Duxbury, & Irving, 1992; Kossek & Ozeki, 1998; Thomas & Ganster, 1995). “Scarcity Hypothesis” and “Conservation of Resources Theory” could be used to explain the effect of WFC on these aforementioned organizational and individual-level outcomes.

Scarcity hypothesis, as its name implies, rests on the assumption that resources like time, energy and attention are limited (Goode, 1960). People might feel stress and helplessness if these scarce resources are depleted because of the responsibilities assumed at work or family life. Responsibilities at work could make time, energy and attention scarce, which in turn could increase the prevalence of stress and stress-related reactions (i.e., burnout, turnover etc). According to Conservation of Resources Theory (COR), people strive to protect the resources and means necessary for achieving desired outcomes (Hobfoll & Freedy, 1993). People become stressed when these resources are (1) threatened, (2) lost or (3) when individuals invest in these resources, yet could not get anticipated return (Hobfoll, 1989 cited in Innstrand et al, 2008). According to COR theory, time and energy are two prominent resources that are needed to fulfill responsibilities at work and home. If work reduces time and energy that would be devoted to family life, this creates “feeling of loss”, which could result in stress and conflict between work and family lives. Though not directly, previous studies supported the claims of Scarcity hypothesis and Conservation of Resources Theory by showing the effects of WFC on burnout and other stress-related symptoms (e.g., Ádám, Győrrffy, & Susánzszyk, 2008; Linzer et al, 2001). To our knowledge, there is no study that assesses the linkages between helplessness and WFC. Yet considering the association of helplessness with other stress-related outcomes such as burnout (e.g., McMullen & Krantz, 1988; Lee & Ashforth, 1993) and depression, one would expect WFC to play a role in the development of helplessness.

**Hypothesis 1**: Work family conflict is expected to increase learned helplessness felt by employees.

In addition to the effect of WFC, the effect of workload on helplessness is examined in this study. Workload could be conceptualized either quantitatively (i.e., the number of hours worked) or qualitatively (i.e., the perceptions of employees regarding the difficulty and volume of the tasks). Since perceptions are thought to affect employee’s wellbeing and reactions to adverse conditions, the workload is conceptualized qualitatively in this study. Workload is assumed to be high when an individual feels that the tasks are difficult and more than s/he can accomplish. Considerable number of studies has been conducted to understand the effects of perceived workload on employees. In those studies, workload was found to increase emotional exhaustion, cynicism (e.g., Leiter & Maslach; 2009, Leiter, Gascón & Jarreta, 2010), depression and anxiety (e.g., Jex, Beehr & Roberts, 1992). Being responsible for the tasks that are difficult or more than that could be handled could increase uncertainty regarding the completion of the tasks or possibility of failure. Uncertainties and fear of failure could create pressure on employees and result in helplessness. In this study, workload is assumed to affect helplessness both directly and indirectly. Firstly, high workload is expected to lessen the time that could be devoted to family life thereby result in higher work-family conflict. In addition to affecting helplessness through its effects on WFC, workload is expected to increase helplessness by creating uncertainty and fear of failure, thereby putting more pressure on employees.

**Hypothesis 2**: Workload is expected to increase learned helplessness.

**Hypothesis 3**: Workload is expected to increase work family conflict felt by participants.

Apart from workload and WFC, this study investigates the impact of supervisor support on learned helplessness. Like workload, supervisor support could be defined differently. In one definition (Burke, Borucki & Hurley, 1992), perceptions regarding the concern shown by the supervisors or managers constitute supervisory support. According to another definition (Sarason & Duck, 2001; cited in Marin & Garcia-Ramirez, 2005), which could be adapted for supervisor support, support is “a mesh of social relationships and transactions whose function is to provide resources to allow adaptive coping to people in need of help”. As seen from these definitions, supervisor support could include both functional (i.e., providing necessary resources, backing up the subordinates if necessary; listening and solving work-related problems) and emotional support (i.e., showing concern and listening non-work related problems). In this study, physicians are asked to evaluate their supervisors in terms of the functional support (i.e., support given about work-related matters) they provided.

Considerable number of studies has been conducted to determine the impact of supervisor support on well-being of employees. In those studies, supervisor support was found to decrease perceived stress, depression (Marin & Ramírez, 2005) and emotional exhaustion (Steinhardt, Dolbier, Gottlieb & McCalister, 2003). Apart from its direct effect, supervisor
support was found to affect employee’s wellbeing by alleviating the effects of work stressors on employees. In a number of studies, supervisor support was found to alleviate the affect of job stressors (i.e. workload and role conflict) on cynicism and emotional strain (e.g., Himle, Jayaratne & Thyness, 1989, Koeske & Koeske, 1989). The impact of supervisor support could be explained using the propositions of “Need Theories”. According to these theories (i.e., Maslow’s Need Hierarchy and Alderfer’s ERG Theories), every people has a need to be loved, to be respected, to be appreciated and to be a member of a group. This need makes the support of supervisors invaluable for employees. Though not being studied before, considering the premises of need theories, one can expect supervisor support to decrease helplessness and alleviate the adverse effects of WFC on employees.

Hypothesis 4: Supervisor support is expected to decrease helplessness.
Hypothesis 5: Supervisor support alleviates the effect of WFC on helplessness

In sum, this study examines the main and moderating effects of workload, WFC and supervisor support on helplessness. Depicted in Figure 1, perceived workload is assumed to increase WFC, which in turn increases helplessness felt by employees. However, this mediation is expected to be moderated by supervisor support such that support reduces the negative impact of WFC. In addition to moderated mediation, both supervisor support and workload is expected to influence helplessness directly.

Figure 1: Proposed Model of Learned Helplessness.

3. Method

3.1. Research Design

Cross-sectional survey design was used in this study. After taking the permission of human resource manager and informed consent of participants, data were collected over a three-month period from May, 2011 to July 2011. In the data collection process, convenience sampling was utilized, meaning that only employees being at the branch during data collection joined the study. Before collecting data, informed consent was taken and participants were ensured about the confidentiality of their responses.

3.1.1. Participants

A total of 250 questionnaires were distributed to white-collar employees working at a small size private bank operating in Turkey. One hundred fifty five questionnaires were returned by the respondents, constituting a 62 % response rate. Of the participants, 56 % were female. The average age of the participants was 32.28 years with a standard deviation of 6.49 years. The participants were highly educated such that approximately 72% of them had a university degree. The average tenure of the employees at the present company was 6.56 years, with a standard deviation of 5.96 years.

3.1.2. Instrumentation & Scoring Procedure

The questionnaire package used in this study had three sections. The first section included questions about demographic measures such as sex, age and education, and questions about employment status, namely, position tenure at the position and the total tenure. The second section composed of items that measure three work-related factors: supervisor
support, workload and work-family conflict. The last section included items related to learned helplessness. All the items were scored on a 5-point scale, ranging from “Strongly Disagree” to “Strongly Agree”.

Supervisor support was assessed with four items written for this study. The items measured participant’s perceptions regarding the support given by their supervisors about work-related matters (e.g., *When making job-related decision, I cannot get necessary support from my supervisor*). Participants having higher scores in this scale were assumed to be satisfied with the support provided by their immediate supervisors. The reliability of the support items was found to be satisfactory with alpha of .76.

Workload was measured with five items selected from the scale developed by Peterson et al (1993). Participants having higher scores were assumed to perceive their roles and responsibilities more than they could handle (e.g., “I feel overburdened in my role”). The scale has already been translated into Turkish by Derya (2008), so no changes were made. Internal consistency of items was found to be satisfactory (Cronbach Alpha = .85).

Work-family conflict was measured with five items developed by Netemeyer, Boles and McMurrain (1996). Items were intended to assess whether participants felt the responsibilities in their work lives interfere with the responsibilities of their family lives (e.g., “Demands of my family life interfere with my family life”). The higher scores in this scale indicated the higher degree of work-family interference and conflict. The reliability of the scale turned out to be high with alpha of 0.93.

Learned helplessness was assessed with twenty-four items written for this study. Participants having higher scores in this scale were assumed to feel that responding is futile, thereby show apathy and passive behavior in response to work-related matters (e.g., “I do not show extra effort to correct my mistakes because I know that I cannot do that”). Before used in this study, the validity and reliability of the scale was assessed with two pilot studies conducted with bank employees and a study conducted with medical doctors. With these studies, convergent and divergent validity was established. In this study, reliability of the scale was found to be satisfactory (α = .85).

3.1.3. Analysis

Different analyses were used to test the hypotheses. Yet, before that, confirmatory factor analyses (CFA) were conducted to determine whether items measured the variables as intended. Based on the findings of CFA, factor scores were obtained and these scores were used to test the hypotheses. Moderated mediation analysis was carried out for testing the hypotheses. Significance of direct and interaction effects were assessed by looking at t values. After that, results were summarized in a graph.

4. Results

Before testing the hypotheses cited above, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted to see whether the items were able to measure the constructs, as intended. Measurement model included all the items in the questionnaire package and assumed that each item was related to only one construct (namely workload, WFC, supervisor support). AMOS 17 (Arbuckle, 2008) was used to carry out CFA. The fit indices of the measurement model indicated that the existence of acceptable fit, which means the item and construct relations turned out to be as expected. In addition to that, all items loaded satisfactorily on their respective factors. Based on the results of CFA, workload, WFC and supervisor support were judged to be different factors, each of which could be measured with items in the questionnaire package. After CFA, mean scores of the items were calculated for workload, WFC, supervisor support, and helplessness and these scores were used for further analysis. The means, standard deviations, and correlations among the variables are provided in Table 1. As seen from Table 1, workload and WFC are positively, while supervisor support is negatively related to helplessness. Except for support-marital status relations, the correlations between demographic and main variables of interest (i.e., workload, WFC, support & helplessness) on turned out to be insignificant.

Table 1: Correlations, Standard Deviations and Means

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<th>SD</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Workload</td>
<td>2.94</td>
<td>.78</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>2. WFC</td>
<td>3.13</td>
<td>1.09</td>
<td>.52**</td>
<td>1</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>3. S. Support</td>
<td>4.10</td>
<td>.83</td>
<td>-.10</td>
<td>-.22**</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>4. LH</td>
<td>2.68</td>
<td>.53</td>
<td>.50**</td>
<td>.29**</td>
<td>-.43**</td>
<td>1</td>
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<tr>
<td>5. Gender</td>
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<td>.14*</td>
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<td>-.06</td>
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232
As indicated before, WFC is assumed to mediate the relationship between workload and helplessness and perceived supervisor support is assumed to moderate the relationship between WFC and helplessness in this study. The moderated mediation model offered in this study fits the third model detailed by Preacher, Rucker and Hayes (2007). Therefore moderated mediation analysis was conducted following the algorithm written by these researchers. According to the results of this analysis (see Table 1), WFC predicted learned helplessness positively; meaning that employees experiencing conflict between their work and family lives tend to feel themselves more helpless \((B = .34; t (155) = 2.05; p < .05)\). This finding supported Hypothesis 1. Like WFC, the effect of perceived workload on helplessness was found to be small but significant \((B = .14; t (155) = 2.59; p < .05)\). Employees perceiving their workload more than they could handle regarded themselves more helpless; rendering hypothesis 2 supported.

Table 2: Results of Moderated Mediation Analyses

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<th>B</th>
<th>SE</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Workload</td>
<td>.14</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td>2.59</td>
<td>.01*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WFC</td>
<td>.34</td>
<td>.17</td>
<td>2.05</td>
<td>.04*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S. Support</td>
<td>-.54</td>
<td>.15</td>
<td>-3.69</td>
<td>.001**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WFC* S.Support</td>
<td>.13</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>2.97</td>
<td>.003**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Besides predicting the level of helplessness, workload predicted WFC as well. High workload substantially increased the conflict between work and family lives \((B = .72; t (155) = 7.40; p<.01)\). Looking at these results, workload perceptions seem to affect the perceptions about WFC, which in turn affect learned helplessness felt by employees. Since perceived workload affects helplessness both directly and indirectly, mediation through WFC is said to be partial.

According to the results, while workload and WFC were found to increase learned helplessness; supervisor support decreased helplessness felt by participants \((B = -.54; t (155) = -.3.68; p<.01)\). Since the interaction between WFC and supervisor support turned out to be significant, supervisor support is judged to alleviate the effect of WFC on helplessness in line with hypothesis 5. Overall, the results indicate that the effect of work-load on learned helplessness is partially mediated by WFC, yet this mediation is moderated by perceived supervisor support. When this moderation is graphed, the relationship among WFC, support and helplessness become more explanatory. As seen from figure 1, employees receiving support from their supervisors feel themselves less helpless, despite increasing level of WFC. Yet buffering effect of supervisor support seems to be effective up to certain level of WFC. Even though employees receive support from their supervisors, they tend to feel themselves helpless if they experience high level of work-family conflict.

Figure 2: Effect of WFC and supervisor support on learned helplessness
Discussion

This study shows that employees feel themselves helpless if they perceive their workload high and experience conflict between work and family lives. The effect of workload on helplessness was found to be quite strong because workload affected helplessness both directly and indirectly. Participants have a tendency to experience work-family conflict if they perceive their workload more than they could handle. This conflict seems to increase helplessness by changing their perceptions regarding the controllability of work outcomes. Participants start to feel that responding is futile and show apathy in response to adverse work conditions like high work-family conflict and workload.

The effect of workload on WFC and helplessness could be explained with Scarcity Hypothesis. If participants believe that their workload is high, they start to feel time pressure. The time allocated at work lessens the time that could be spent with family and this time pressure seems to increase helplessness. Considering the strong effect of workload on helplessness and WFC, it is reasonable to conclude that workload is one of the most important stressors in work life.

In addition to workload and work-family conflict, this study revealed the impact of supervisor support on learned helplessness. Participants believing that their supervisors do not give adequate support in work matters tend to feel more helplessness. Besides its direct effect, supervisor support seems to shape the perceptions regarding workload and WFC. Participants perceiving their supervisors unsupportive tend to experience more conflict between work and family lives. By solving work-related problems or at least by acknowledging their complaints, supervisors seem to alleviate the pressure on employees arising from adverse work conditions (i.e., workload and WFC). The direct and indirect effect of supervisor support on learned helplessness once again demonstrates the importance of interpersonal relations in work place. Yet one should remember that even the existence of high supervisory support cannot eliminate the adverse effects of job stressors. Conflict between work and family life, uncertainties and fear of failure resulting from workload seem to be detrimental to employee’s wellbeing.

5.1. Limitations

The limitations of this study should be acknowledged while interpreting the findings and setting direction for future research. The limitations are related to the measurement of the variables, which may affect the generalizability and applicability of the results. The first limitation is about the way the data was obtained. The data of this research relied on self reports of the employees. This method was chosen because no other source could provide the detailed information about perceived workload, WFC and helplessness. However, the use of purely self-report methodology to obtain information is questionable because the ability of participants to evaluate their feelings and current situation in the work place can be biased by variety of factors such as social desirability and optimism. Therefore it is suggested to compare the results of this study with the results of studies collecting data from other sources such as supervisor or peers.

This study revealed the mediating effect of WFC on workload and learned helplessness relationships. Yet, there are other factors that may affect helplessness but not considered in this study. For example, negative affectivity or neuroticism may change the magnitude of relationship between work conditions helplessness by making people sensitive to adverse conditions. In fact, previous studies (e.g., Maslach, Schaufeli & Leiter, 2001) clearly demonstrated the confounding effect of neuroticism and negative affectivity such that these variables increased the vulnerability of people to feel themselves burned-out and stressed in response to adverse work conditions. Therefore researchers are suggested to take into account individual characteristics and other job stressors that could affect employee’s wellbeing.

5.2. Conclusions and recommendations.

This study revealed the adverse effect of workload and WFC on employee well-being. However it also revealed importance of good supervisor-subordinate relations for reducing the negative effect of job stressors. The findings of this study suggest interesting implications for research and practice. This study hopefully filled the gap in the literature by addressing seemingly under explored area, which is “learned helplessness in organizational context”. By examining the direct and indirect effect of workload, WFC and supervisor support, it provides an idea about the possible antecedents of helplessness. Yet, we acknowledge the fact that there could be other work stressors, which could induce helplessness. We suggest researchers to investigate the impact of bureaucracy, lack of autonomy and perceived injustice on helplessness given the fact these factors have been shown to affect employees’ well-being both directly and indirectly.

Besides theory, the findings of this study suggest interesting implications for practice. Given the progressive nature of learned helplessness and its effects on absenteeism, turnover, and job dissatisfaction, planned interventions should be designed for the long term. Given the bureaucratic nature of banking industry, taking precautions to eliminate red tape
and paper work could reduce perceived workload substantially. Supervisors could redefine the work- responsibilities or implement rotation system to prevent employees from doing same repetitive and boring paper work. Besides, they could provide child care facilities and flexible work arrangements considering their responsibilities at home or at least permit employees to have a say in their work schedule in order to reduce work-family conflict. Moreover, being more considerate toward employees and providing them necessary resources, supervisors could lessen the impact of job stressors, if not eliminate.

References


The Improvement of Albanian Language Textbooks in the Primary School

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Abstract: This study aims to analyze and evaluate the fulfillment of the basic criteria and the complementary ones of the Albanian language textbook 2 in Primary School and to show how it reflect the development and the demands of nowadays teaching science. For the realization of this study, are used a combination of research methods, including the analysis of text based on the normative criteria of formulation and evaluation of textbooks, interviews with language specialist and education inspector, the questionnaire with teachers and parents, focus groups with teachers. The results showed that the text of the Albanian language 2 is a good text, where scientific criteria and contemporary didactics of teaching the mother-tongue at school are applied. As well, this new conception of text helps in going on integrated culture to the pupils considering language as a universal communication mean, prompt in itself and in relation to other subjects. The conclusions practically suggest the ways in which we can improve some aspects which have not been realized properly in order to make better texts.

Keywords: Albanian language curriculum, textbook, conception, integration, basic criterion, perfection criterion, didactic criterion, scientific criterion, pedagogic device, linguistic readability, typographic readability.

1. Introduction

In the twentieth century, school textbook has played a key role for the education of future generations. It has been the basic of the curriculum. In fact, the text has been the curriculum itself. Ask teachers and the public what is the curriculum in a school year or in a certain field and they will show a textbook. (Ornstein & Hankins, 2003). As the textbook plays the dominant role in the curriculum, textbook makers have the responsibility to design textbook in order to serve students and respond to the modern developments. For this reason, the evaluation of the text is a task of great importance, as it constitutes the main curriculum evaluation.

Considering that: The language is the key to learning. The mother tongue is the main content of school documentation and the basic of intellectual, emotional and social development for pupils (ISP, 2002). Albanian language is more than a subject. It’s soil that grows all the knowledge of other school subjects. (Llampiri, 2004). The Albanian language, like any national literary language of civilized people, is the clearest view of the nation and its common culture. (Shkurtaj, 2002). It is the biography of nations, because with the language better than in any document or material is preserved their intellectual, social and moral history (Qosja, 1983). Starting from these important considerations and the lack of such research in the field of curriculum, I rise to make this study, in which I tend to assess the Albanian language textbook 2 (Petro, Gjokutaj, 2007) of the primary school in view of the implementation of new principles and requirements of contemporary applications. The aims of the research were:

1. to analyze all criteria used (basic and perfection) of the Albanian language textbook 2 (AL 2) in Primary School in view of new didactic requirements for learning native language.
2. to demonstrate how and how much this new conception of AL 2 helps to the integration of knowledge.
3. to identify strengths and weaknesses of this text.
4. to present recommendations for improving some deficiencies noted in this text.

Besides the teachers thought, I have taken the opinion of the parents of pupils in second grade, firstly, to know their attitude from a new perspective that we are not accustomed to see. Secondly, the importance of parent involvement by today’s pedagogy: “The role of parents is the most powerful mean for achieving educational improvement (Fullan, 2001, f. 295).

2. Literature review

Contributions in the field of Albanian language curriculum and didactic and scientific construction of these textbooks, hold the name of many researchers, professor and Albanian linguists. Their goal was to continuously improve programs and textbooks, the definition of philosophical based where the AL curriculum will based, improving didactic criteria, principles of teaching to native linguistic and realization of subject integration, etc. New texts of AL, one of which is the AL 2, that we

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are analyzing, have their foundation in the integration of the AL with literary reading (LR). Until 2005, these subjects were taught as separate subjects, with particular programs and texts. But I will focus only on those ideas that were given to the integration of language with literacy reading and with other subjects.

Since 1950, we find this integration effort. Merkuri (2001) writes: In the magazine “Popular education” (No. 2, 1952) it was highlighted that “… grammar teaching should be related to fiction methodically”, while in the middle of the 80-s, Lafe suggests ways to join the grammatical material with the language of artistic works, because, according to him, grammar is formally taught as a theory detached, as an aim in itself (p. 47-48). Even Koci (1987) like Lafe suggested … in the class of AL, LR should serve as concretize material, affected specific words for linguistic analysis. Beci (1993, p. 102) gave a great contribution because he practically introduced the functional styles of Albanian language (as artistic, scientific, administrative and publicity style), which have each a separate system of linguistic tools with special values. According to him, pupils need to learn how to use linguistic tools, when they speak in a particular circumstance, when writing to someone, when describing something, when making a claim, when showing something. Shashai (2000) set the problems to be solved not only by structural rubrics, but by the content and implement their practical realization in texts.

The National Conference of December 2002 consolidated all the efforts of researchers to find new ways to conceptualize programs and Albanian language textbooks. New didactics materials of world education had entered in our country. Thus, Gjokutaj & Mato (2003) launched ideas about expected curricular changes in the Albanian language teaching. The integration AL-LR and beyond, will be extended to: integration objectives, structure, content, practice, teaching, between subjects, etc., as well as the idea for teaching ecology in the use of interactive methods. Towards unification of these subjects is also Limani (2003), who proposes that instead of developing of two parallel lines that duplicate each other (AL and LR) should be established to develop them as a single subject that complement each other. Kadiu (2003) presented clear views: the way of the conception of the texts AL-LR integration, tasks on the right conception of pedagogical apparatus, criticizes the view that LR should only be a function of the presentation of linguistic concepts; he brought the Italian experience to compile language texts, expressed his opinion on usage and adaption of foreign experience in this regard.

While about the integration of language with other subjects, Xhanari (2001/1) talks about the ecological education which is realized in the case of mother tongue. Zenelaj (2001/1) shows the idea that health education concepts can be introduced in separate chapters in all elementary subjects. Taipi (2002) requires the introduction of education for human rights. Markja and others (2004) provide several instruction models of AL & LR that can be developed according to global education activities, without the development of these themes, a curriculum would be out of date (Çarka 2005). For consistency of objectives for global education with curriculum objectives of AL, mathematics, etc., for gender education to pupils and their for health education, realised at (IKS, 2005).

3. Research methodology

A combination of research methods is used to realize this study: There are conducted two individual structured interviews. The first is made with the language specialist Professor Dr. Tomor Osmani to get a professional evaluation of the realization of scientific and didactic aspects of the AL 2. While the second interview is made with the inspector of education Mrs. A. Baci, in order to verify the conformity of the content of textbook with the national program of the Albanian language. Focus groups include the conversations and thematic discussions with primary school teachers to get their opinions on the issues of study. And finally, the full analysis of all aspects of the text, based on the books: Compilation and evaluation of textbooks (ISP, 2003) and General pedagogy (Mialiaret, Tirana, 1995).

3.1. Population and Sample

159 people, respectively, 94 teachers of classes II in primary schools and 65 parents of children in second grade participated in this study. Distribution of the questionnaires was conducted in two cities: Shkoder and Tirana. Durations: three months.

3.2. Research Instruments

The instruments used in this study are two questionnaires, the compilation of which is made by grating the evaluation of textbooks for primary school, Bordeaux – October 1992 (ISP, 2003).

The first: The questionnaire used for teachers titled “Assessment form for the Albanian language textbooks to primary school”. It contains 55 questions divided into six sections. The first section contains 10 questions for the
realization of the scientific content of the texts; the second section contains 8 questions about the ideological content; the third section consist of 13 questions about methodology used; the fourth section contains 8 question for the integration of language with reading and other subjects; the fifth part contains 13 question about readability linguistic & esthetics; the six part contains 3 open questions that assess the strength, weaknesses and aspects for improvement. The second: The questionnaire used for parents has the same title with the teacher questionnaire and contains 24 questions. Questions in both questionnaires have different alternatives by type of question: alternatives with 2 answers (yes/no); with 3 answers (very good/enough/not good); with 4 answer (none/little/on average/completely). Results from questionnaires are collected and analyzed as a percentage. Table 1 shows the distribution of questionnaires.

Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>AL 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teachers surveyed</td>
<td>94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parents surveyed</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In this article I will analize the most important questions that are related with the realization of the basic and perfection criteria.

4. Results and discussion

4.1. Scientific aspects of the Albanian language texts

Tables 2 & 3 present the results to the scientific aspects of the AL 2 text. Two questions on the table 2 and the first question on the table 3 determine the extent of implementation of basic criteria.

Table 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Questions</th>
<th>Yes %</th>
<th>No %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Does the content of the text fulfill the national education objectives?</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Are the knowledge in the text in accordance with contemporary scientific concepts?</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The majority of teachers (96%), reported that the text have fulfilled the national objectives of education, knowledge in the text are in accordance with contemporary scientific concepts (82%). Even from structured interview that I have made with the specialist in this field, professor of language in the USH, Ms. Tomor Osmani, holder of the title “Grand Master”, I took this assessment: “The compilation of the AL textbook 2, has been a task with the responsibility of the authors. I think that textbook is in a good pedagogical and scientific level. Linguistic concepts presented in texts, consistent with contemporary linguistic concepts”.

Table 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Questions</th>
<th>None %</th>
<th>Little %</th>
<th>Average %</th>
<th>Completely %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The content of the text fulfills with subject’s program</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The content of the text fulfills with pupil’s level of development</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The content of the text is exact</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The definitions are easily learned by pupils</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The definitions are accompanied by examples that help understanding</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the table 3, teachers gave larger percentages in the category average and completely. The content of the text fulfills “Completely” with subject’s program for (57%) and “Average” (43%) of teachers. Besides the teacher’s opinion, for that matter, I interviewed the inspector for Primary schools Mrs. A. Baci, who confirmed: “The text of the Albanian language 2 is in accordance with curriculum and include all its issues”. The content of the text fulfills with pupil’s level of development “Little” (4%), “Average” (72%) and “Completely” (24%). The accuracy of the content was estimated “Average” (58%) and “Completely” (42%). Linguistic concepts, according to the teachers, are explained clearly and simply. So, for example, the
conjugation of the verb is given in a more appropriate form, according to the concepts that pupils have of the time: before, now, after.

Teachers responded that the definitions of the text learned average and completely by students. Question “Does your child have difficulties in understanding the definitions and explanations of the text?” the parents answered “Sometimes” (87%) & “Never” (12%). Accompaniment of the definitions with examples that help understanding is assessed “Completely” (55%) & ‘Average’ (35%). The category “Few” got smaller percentage.

While the perfection’s criterion for scientific content of the texts is the application of formal coherence, which includes: 1) Usage of the same term with the same meaning throughout the text, even in the series of books. 2) Adhering to the entire text the same symbol column and model presentation. 3) Beginning of each book is easier (or as easy) as the end of previous book (ISP, 2003, p. 359-360). From the analysis of the text for all three issues and from the teacher’s opinions in the focus groups, deduce that the issues 1, 2 & 3 are very well implemented in the AL 2, but not always the same linguistic terms are used to define the same part of speech in the series of the books. Thus, in the AL 2 is used the term “subject- verb”, in AL 3 & 4 is used the term “subject-predicate”. In the AL 2 p. 222 are used the terms “main words and complementary words of the sentence”, while in the AL 3 & 4 are used the terms “main parts and complimentary parts of the sentence”.

Very positive is the ranking of linguistic terms in the order to suit the child’s language production. This trial supports Goga (1997, p. 149): “The language production process follows the path of linguistic lexical selection, so the child learns firstly the names, adjectives, verbs, adverbs, and then they called “closed classes” like prepositions, conjunctions”. In conclusion we say that scientific content values are satisfactorily implemented to the 3 basic criteria and 1 perfection criterion.

4.2. Socio-cultural values

Table 4

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Questions</th>
<th>Yes %</th>
<th>No %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Are given in the text situations given from pupil’s scholar life?</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Are given in the text usage of knowledge in everyday life?</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Are knowledges presented in the context that is closer to the pupils?</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Are given in the text equal reports from the city life and the country side?</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Are presented in the text in a balanced way relationships between boys and girls?</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The first three questions (table 4) constitute the basic criteria of the socio-cultural values. As we notice, most teachers responded positively with higher % for all three questions.

Questions 4 & 5 constitute the two perfection’s criteria: first, the respect of cultural equilibrium between urban and rural life, and, second, balancing gender roles. The first criterion is not applied properly. Teachers expressed “No” for equal reports between city life and country side (51%) and this percentage of parents surveyed (23%). Question “Which situations dominate?”, situations in the city were dominant (65%) for AL 2. Gender criterion in AL 2, was treated at a relatively balanced manner and teachers indicated that these reports have been preserved with (56%). To the question “Which is the dominant figure?” teachers reported that the boy is dominant with (6%). Regarding gender roles, the model presented in this text, is coherent and fully complies with the reality of today’s albanian society. Wife is given away from the schemes presented until now in our textbooks, just as mother and housewife at home, or the daughter that is prepared for matrimony and domestic work. Gender roles are very close to the reality that the child lives: the girls with dolls, the boys with cars, the girls doing make-up, the boys who want to shave the beard, the girl on the internet, etc.

Table 5

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>None %</th>
<th>Little %</th>
<th>Average %</th>
<th>Completely %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Are included in the text parts with patriotic character?</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Patriotic character parts constitute the fourth basic criterion (table 5). This criterion is applied “Averages” with (57%) in the AL 2. In conclusion we say that for the social and cultural values are applied well the 4 basic criteria and the 1 perfection criterion.

4.3. Pedagogic aspects

Basic criteria of pedagogical methods are methods of work proposed in the text and the maintainance of pedagogical equilibrium between the benefit of knowledge, cognitive and affective skills (Table 6).

Table 6

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Questions</th>
<th>None %</th>
<th>Little %</th>
<th>Average %</th>
<th>Completely %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>In the text are presented methods for solving problems</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In the text are presented group working methods</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In the text are presented methods for individual work</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Are implementing sufficient exercises to absorb new knowledge?</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do the pupils have the opportunity to choose between different forms of work?</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From table 6, methods for individual work and methods for solving the exercises, took greater percentages to the category “Average” & “Completely”. For methods of group work, more than half of the teachers reported that they take place “Average” for AL 2. Categories “No” and “Little” altogether took significant percentage (41%). These opinions of the teachers are also supported from the results that I got from the analysis of the activities that will be conducted by the pupils. Thus, I found 2 cases of group work and 3 cases of reading in roles in AL 2; So, methods of group work are not sufficient. For the question “Are implementing sufficient exercises to absorb new knowledge?” (table 6) the large percentages took the category “Average” (53%) and “Completely” (43%). But from the teacher’s opinions in the focus groups, they point out that for some knowledge of grammar, pupils have very few exercises in disposal to practice and to fix new knowledge. Especially to the division of the sentence in functional groups, to the displacement of the mobile groups in sentence, exercises are not sufficient.

To answer the questions (which is not in the table 6): “Are the proposed working forms included in the taxonomy of the various activities as knowledge, cognitive skills, psychomotor skills, affective skills, creative skills?, “What is their raport?”, I analyzed all the exercises from the text and from the working notebook of the class 2, by defining for each activity and exercise, which area that belongs to [list of action verbs used to formulate operational objectives, is taken from the book Compilation and evaluation of textbooks (ISP, 2003, p. 312)]. The following results, I presented in Table 7.

Table 7

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Text</th>
<th>Exercises</th>
<th>For repetition</th>
<th>For cognitive skills</th>
<th>Psychomotor skills</th>
<th>Affective skills</th>
<th>In total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AL 2/ No. (%)</td>
<td>180</td>
<td>22, 2 %</td>
<td>162</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>713</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>31, 1 %</td>
<td>54, 1 %</td>
<td>22, 8 %</td>
<td>5, 7 %</td>
<td>6 %</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

By analyzing data, I conclude that the development of cognitive skills has the highest percentage of all exercises and activities provided in the texts and working notebook (63,1%) compared with all other skills which make (33,9%). Percentages of cognitive skills are considerable and this fact is very positive estimated by the compilers of the texts. So, this basic criterion is implemented very well.

Perfection criterion:
1) Possibility of pupils to choose between different forms of work;
2) Pedagogic supporters.

For the first criterion (Table 6), the teachers said “Little” (31%) and “Average” (65%). From the survey to the question (i
“In which of the language rubrics the exercises are not sufficient?”, teachers thought that the classes of “orthography and punctuation” are not sufficient with (54%); classes of grammar are not sufficient with (38%) and insufficiency of classes of lexicology with (12%).

The second criterion of perfection is pedagogic supporter. As such, it is the teacher’s book, which holds the methodological guidelines for the development of the subject.

### Table 8

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Very good %</th>
<th>Sufficient %</th>
<th>Not good %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teacher’s book of the AL is a pedagogic supporter:</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to table 8, the teacher’s book is very good and sufficient with the percentages. Even from focus group conversations, teachers thought that AL teacher’s book 2, are methodological, but not science books. Teacher’s book contains the program of AL 2, its analytical program defining the hours of the tests, dictations, repetitions, specific objectives for the six areas of the text, the manner of assessment of pupils, list of teaching materials for learning, etc. In this book there is presented a large variety of modern methods for teaching, which are a big help especially for new teachers and those with little experience in teaching. So, for pedagogic aspects, in the text is applied 2 basic and 2 perfection criteria.

### 4.4. Integration

Integration has to do with connecting all kinds of knowledge and experience in the curriculum plan. Integration enables the individual ...to better understand knowledge as unified rather than fragmented (Orstein & Hunkins, 2003, p. 357).

Integration is a perfection criterion. In the AL 2 there are conducted two types of integration:

**Horizontal integration**, which is realized:
- a) Between fields of study, that includes: Knowledge in the fields of morphology, word-formation, syntax, vocabulary, spelling and punctuation are melted and are mixed given since the second grade when is started with sentence (Çeliku, 1997, f. 69).
- b) Integration between objectives: for repetitive, cognitive, psychomotor, affective and creative skills. These objectives are clearly given in each lesson (see Table 6).
- c) Integration with other subjects, which is realized in two ways: integration by the cross curriculum topics and when a reading part has scientific content. In albanien school programs there are not cross-curricular topic - planning. In our school practicing, these topics are planned only by the teacher. And this, the teacher realizes based on knowledge taken over the various qualifications, also based in the publications that contain elements of integrated curricula. This method has many advantages: Having realized cross-curricula connection, the pupils sees the full knowledge, as a whole. It brings development in specific subjects, and coherence between them (Pollard, 1997, f. 185).

From the analysis of the text in study, integration with other subjects is performed by the scientific content of the reading parts. So, in the AL 2, the pupils receives the first knowledge about the vegetable nutrition, health knowledge, personal hygiene, scientific information for nature, birds and insects reproduction, for galaxy and underwater world. As well, the rubric “Talk” in case of AL, gives the opportunity to integrate and relate knowledge to science, to social education, biology, environment, geography, drawing, ... (Vadahi, 2001, p. 71).

**Vertical integration** involves knowledge which expand the first class in the fields of language and the difficulty in the literary texts. Concentric nature of the language teaching in the grade II-IV to the primary school is the basic criterion of their construction (Hoxha and others, 1987). Language skills are treated by linear alignment and by their intuitive-practical character (Shashai, 2001). The two types of integration are very well - realized in the text of AL 2. Now let’s see the opinion of the teachers for the other aspects of the integration. (Table 9).

### Table 9

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Questions</th>
<th>Yes %</th>
<th>No %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Is the integration of language with literary reading realized?</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Does this new conception helps in forming the culture of integration to the pupils?</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Are there any advantages for the cultural of integrating the new AL book versus the old one?</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Integration of language with literary reading is very well done (97%). This integration brings advantages to the new texts of AL versus old ones (91%). Teachers reported that new text have integration with others subjects to the extent (83%). To the question "Which subjects is this integration realized with?", teachers answers for these subjects: with Social Education (77%); with Visual Education (52%); with Mathematics (30%); with History (6%); with Technological Capability (27%), while integration with other subjects got very small percentages.

Two other perfection criteria are: 1. Giving multidimensional information. 2. Development of pupils' independence (Table 9). Teachers claimed that multidimensional information provided on “Average” in raports (59%), whereas the independence of pupils very well developed (91%). So, a total of 3 perfection criteria about the integration, are applied in the text.

4.5. Language & Typographical readability

As a basic linguistic criterion, the adoption of language of the text with student’s ages is assessed. As perfection criterion it is the new word position in the text.

Table 10

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Questions</th>
<th>None %</th>
<th>Little %</th>
<th>Average %</th>
<th>Completely %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Does the language of the text fit the pupil’s ages?</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Are the sentences well-structured?</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the table 10, teachers reported that language fits the pupil’s age and the sentences are structured “Average” and “Completely”. Scientific language that is used for linguistic concepts is generally simple and understandable. For example, the definition of adjective in Al 2, p. 137, is given in this way: “The adjectives shows how names, animals, objects, places, are”. New words in the text are easily identified (Table 11). To see which is the raport of new words in the text and does this raport complies with the pupils age, I counted all the new words used in the 79 literary parts of the AL 2. There were 107 new words and the text had 235 pages. So the average number of new words for each page is 0.5. Referring to the criteria for the child 6-9 years, the average number of new words is a new word in a page. Thus, the raport of new words in the Al 2 is maintained.

Table 11

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Questions</th>
<th>Yes %</th>
<th>No %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Are well noticed new words?</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Are the illustrations exact?</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Are the illustrations qualitative versus their content?</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A basic typographic criterion is the fulfillment of the writing size with pupil’s age and accuracy of illustrations. As perfection criterion it is presented the quality of illustrations. The writing size for AL 2 is (14-16). This writing size fulfills with pupil’s age. The illustration are accurate with (92%), and qualitative versus their content (94%). In the texts of AL 2 are applied the 3 basic criteria and 2 perfection criteria for language and typographical readability. As a conclusion, there are in total implemented 12 basic and 9 perfection criteria. The application of these criteria shows that the Albanian language textbook 2 is contemporary, relying entirely on the latest developments of the global didactic.

Recommendations

Despite the strengths of the AL textbook 2 of the Primary school, it also contains some weak points that require improvement. So: In the Al 2 should be treated fewer new grammatical concepts, because too much knowledge is an
overload for the young child’s age. To review the distribution of the teaching load, because many topics are overloaded, while others are not, especially when there are included the exercises of working notebook. The conjugation of the verb should be more gradually given. Grammar classes should be numerous especially for understanding the main and the complementary words of the sentence, for the division of the sentence in functional groups, for the displacement of the mobile groups in sentence. To improve the rubric “Talk”, to give more activities for group work. In the AL 2 should be given more importance to training pupil’s skills. Besides contemporary parts, in the texts should be more educative parts in order to make it easier to pupils find the massages. In the text should be treated more topics from the village life, in order to ensure a social balance.

References

New Data on Threatened Lepidopterofauna of North-Eastern Albania

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Abstract: Butterflies represent an interesting group of insects with a high diversity. Preserving the value of this diversity requires continuous monitoring, especially of endangered and threatened species. In this paper I am going to present some North-Eastern Albania Lepidoptera species that are endangered in their habitats and have their threatened categories at the national level based on the Red List of IUCN (International Union for the Protection of Nature). There are exactly 28 butterfly species with their risked categories, from different regions of North-Eastern Albania, that belong respectively to IUCN categories: DD (4 species), EN (2 species), LR (1 species), CR (2 species), VU (19 species). For each type are given for the venue, habitat, chorology, and also are given ideas about the causes of risk and protective measures.

Key words: endangered species, Red List of Lepidoptera, North-Eastern Albania, threatened categories

Introduction

Butterflies are distinguished among all other insects, by the features of their construction. During the spring they fly in different plants of which suck nectar, helping absorb their pollination. Thus, the butterflies play an important role as indicators of biodiversity. Their types belong to different zoogeographic groups and ecological groups and populate different height above sea level.

Lepidoptera are the group of insects with a high diversity. For this reason it requires more attention and constant monitoring in particular those perilous species in different levels. This high diversity of Lepidoptera species, is favored by variety forms of relief forms (mountains, valleys, fields, hills, lakes, etc).

Lack of authentic studies for threatened and risked species, except of Red Books, where are included insects of North-East of Albania, and the same time our modest help through monitoring and evaluating Lepidoptera situation, knowing threat factors and risk factors possibility of suggesting conservation measures, represent stimulus for this study.

The publication of these data helps in assessing the biodiversity of butterflies’ situation in North-East of Albania.

The importance of this study is great, especially at this time, when in North-East of Albania as elsewhere in the world landscapes has been changed as a result of:

- different urbanized areas
- climatic change
- human interventions
- use of different insecticides and pesticides

Therefore is necessary keeping under control the habitats and prohibition of their demolition.

Aims and Objectives

This study contributes in a further knowledge of Entemophauna of North-East of Albania Region, focusing also in preservation and conservation of endangered species and their respective habitats, especially warm field-hilly regions, warm lower grass areas, rich vegetation areas and water heated areas.

The study intends to help and assist to all decision makers and academic/scientific workers on the observation of North-East of Albanian Lepidopteroaphauna.
Materials and Methods

The materials were collected during the period March-September 2004-2009 at several localities of North-East of Albania: following Shkodra, Puka, Kukës, Peshkopi, Mirditë . (Fig.1). The collection of day butterflies is made with entomological grids of cheesecloth material (as addressed in Misja 1997, 2005). After catch, the material is stored in paper envelopes, where is written the meeting place, time, habitat’s description.

The collected material, when not processed during the day, can be held in the collection envelopes, or arranged in entomological mattresses. In any entomological mattress are included butterflies collected in a certain environment, associated by a label, where is written meeting place, habitat’s description, date and the collector’s name.

It is good that the processed material be collected immediately after capture. Otherwise the dry material should be mitigated with excilator. For setting up the butterflies, we used entomological needles, being careful that body and wings are not harmed.

The collection of night butterflies, meanwhile, is made by exploiting the fact that they are attracted the best from light bulbs, with different wavelengths. Therefore, light traps are used with different constructions. As a smothersy subject is used ethylc ether or ethyl acetate. The butterflies are attracted from the light and remain on the entomological grids.

Another light trap is that of Pennsylvania type. After catch, storage and processing, then is determined it’s risk status. The estimation of the present status and threatened level of some North-Eastern Albania Lepidopterophauna species, were done based on IUCN categories, mentioned by Sutherland (2006) in the Conservation Handbook (Research, Management and Policy).

![Map of North-East Albania](image)

**Fig.1** Map of Albania Localities for each of 28 Lepidoptera species collected.

Results and Discussion

Below are 28 endangered species meet in different regions of North-East Albania, which belong to different families: Lepidopteras belong to different families ,as we can see on Fig 4. Families with the greatest number of endangered species are: Nymphalidae (29 species), Lycanidae (18 species), Hesperidae (10 species), Pieridae (10 species).

Number of species according to chorology as represented on Fig 5. Regarding Corology we can say that the greatest number of species respectively have: Mediterranean (29 species), Eurosiberian (24 species), Euroasiatic (12 species).

Lepidopteras are in different stages of threatment as represented on Fig. 3

- there are 21 species or 75 % , VU (Vulnerable)
- there are 2 species or 7,14 % , EN (Endangered) category
- there are 2 species or 7,14 % , DD (Data Deficient) category
there are 2 species or 7.14%, CR (Critically Endangered) category

there is 1 specie or 3.57%, LR (Near threatened) category

1. Erynnis tages, (F. Hesperiidae)
Status: VU Habitat: grass kalkare encountered in environments up to 1800m. Chorology: Type Eurosiberian. Meet in: Kukës, Shkodra.

2. Carcharodus alceae. (F. Hesperiidae)
Status: VU Habitat: The area without moisture, heated by the sun, the vegetation. Chorology: Type Palearktik. Meet in: Shkodra

3. Carcharodus flocciferus (F.Hesperiidae).

4. Pyrgus armoricanus (F.Hesperiidae)
Status: EN Chorology: Mediterranean
Habitat: The area heated by the sun and good without moisture, the valleys of mountains page up to 1500m.
Meet in: Peshkopi

5. Thymelicus acteon (F.Hesperiidae)
Status: VU Chorology: Mediterranean
Habitat: well heated area of dense vegetation, up to 1500m. Meet in : Kukës (kulla e Lumës)

6. Hesperia comma (F. Hesperiidae)
Status: VU Habitat: environment plants, meadows.
Chorology: Eurasian. Meet in: Lurë, Tetojë

7. Spialia phlomidis (F. Hesperiidae)

8. Parnassius apollo, (F.Papilionidae)

9. Parnassius mnemosyne (F.Papilionidae)
Status: VU Habitat: plain, meadows, mountain slopes of the page to about 1800m. Chorology: Type Eurosiberian. Meet in: Kukës, Malësi e Madhe.

10. Zerynthia cerisyi, (F.Papilionidae)
Status: VU Chorology: Balkan type.
Habitat: areas heated by the sun well up to about 1200m. Meet in: Peshkopi, Shkodër, Kukës

11. Zerynthia polyxena (F .Papilionidae)

12 Pieris krueperi (F. Pieridae)
Status: VU Chorology: Eurasian. Habitat: The area warm up to 2000m. Meet in Bajram Curri

13. Pontia chloridice (F.Pieridae)
Status: LR Chorology: Eurosiberian
Habitat: warm areas without moisture up to about 1500m. Meet in Mirdita

14. Euchloe penia , (F. Pieridae)
Status: VU. Chorology: Mediterranean
Habitat: Dry meadows and pastures, forests çeltira up to 1500m. Meet in: Bishop
Fig. 2 Here are maps with places where we meet each of 3 species (Maps for each of 28 species of butterflies presented are done)

15. *Thecla betulae* (F. Lycaenidae)
   Status: VU  
   Chorology: palearktik  
   Habitat: forest of thin, brushy areas, up to about 1000m. Meet in: Great Malesia, Bishop

16. *Neozephyrus quercus*, (F. Lycaenidae)
   Status: VU  
   Habitat: in the forests of oak, runs up to 1500m. Chorology: euromesdhetar  
   Meet in: South Albania, Kukes.

17. *Satyrium W - album*, (F. Lycaenidae)
   Status: VU  
   Habitat: deciduous forest and areas with thin forests. Chorology: Eurasian. Meet in: Kukes

18. *Thermolycaena dispers* (F. Lycaenidae)
   Status: VU  

19. *Cupido minimus* (F. Lycaenidae)
   Status: VU  
   Chorology: Eurosiberian  
   Habitat: Meet in pastures, meadows, wasteland from the coast up to about 2000m.  
   Meet in: Kukës.

20. *Glaucopsyche alexis*, (F. Lycaenidae)
   Status: VU  
   Chorology: Eurosiberian  
   Habitats: forested areas, flat valley near the woods, up to 2000m.  
   Meet in: Kukës, Shkodër.

   Status: VU, the European level. Habitat: wet meadows, up to 100m altitude  
   Chorology: Eurosiberian  
   Meet in: Peshkopi, B.Curr, Kukës

22. *Maculinea arion*, (F. Lycaenidae)
   Status: EN, in rare specimens in dry areas with dense vegetation, up to 2000m altitude. Chorology: Type eurosiberian.  
   Meet in: M.e Madhe, B.Curr, Kukës

23. *Iolana iolas*, (F. Lycaenidae)
   Status: VU  
   Chorology: holomesdhetar  
   Habitat: in particular specimens in flat, thin areas with shrubs up to about 1000m.  
   Meet in: Kukes, Shkodra.

24. *Polyommatus eroides*, (F. Lycaenidae)
   Status: CR  
   Habitat: in mountain ravine up to 2000m.
Chorology: eurosiberian  
Meet in: Peshkopi, B.Curri.

25. Erebia aethiops, (F. Nymphalidae)
Status: VU habitat: areas near the forest, up to about 2000m. Chorology: Eurosiberian. Meet in: Tropoje, Kukës, Malësi e Madhe.

26. Erebia pronoe (F. Nymphalidae)
Status: DD Habitat: forest area of mountain meadows  
Chorology: European  
Meet in: Korab Mountain Area

27. Minois dryas (F.Nymphalidae)
Status: VU Chorology: Eurasian. Habitat: moist meadows, forests of thin, valleys up to 1500m. 
Meet in: Kukës

28. Chazara briseis, (F.Nymphalidae)
Status: VU Chorology: Mediterranean  
Habitat: The area no moisture, rënore - rock goes up to about 1500m. Meet in: M.e Madhe, Dibër.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>categories</th>
<th>number of species</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>VU</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LR</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CR</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EN</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DD</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Tab.1 Number of species according to categories

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>families</th>
<th>number of species</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hesperidae</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Papilionidae</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pieridae</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lycanidae</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nymphalidae</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Tab.2 Number of species according to families

Conclusions

Being sensitive to environmental change, butterflies play an important role as bio-indicators of ecosystem. Preserving the values of the ecosystem requires a continuous monitoring of endangered species and their habitats for not allowing their destruction and fragmentation.
Through this study we put in lime 28 types of Lepidopteras found in different areas of North-Eastern Albania as it was mentioned above, they are endangered in different levels. We think that there are lots of causes of their peril, but the most important to be highlighted are the destruction of their habitats, the collection before egg emplacement, chemical—organic contamination of waters (for water insects) etc. To prevent these risks we should take measures for the protection and preservation of the habitats, to elude commercial collections. Meanwhile, we should investigate thoroughly on ecological research and should monitor endangered species and their habitats.

References

Agricultural Market Stability in the Future Common Agricultural Policy

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Abstract: Market stability represents one of the general objectives of the Common Agricultural Policy (CAP), reconfirmed by the Lisbon Treaty. The purpose of this paper is to study the impact of market stability in the context of price volatility for the post-2013 CAP. The political and economical context in Europe highlights the need for a new approach to cope with market volatility in order to create a stable business environment. The research method is the analysis of data with a view to express a personal opinion in this regard. Price volatility depends on several determinants like: balance between supply and demand, interlink between food and energy markets, trade liberalization, environment and climate change. The negative effects generated by instability in the agricultural markets can be reduced through the development of the existing instruments, the use of new mechanisms to stabilize supply, price and income, market transparency and cooperation. Farmers should adjust their business to market conditions and have to be protected against extreme volatility, innovation, education and training being important in this way. A special attention should be given to the interaction between the objectives of Agenda 2020 and the CAP. The results of the research point out that market stability is important for the CAP post-2013 and can be promoted using a combination of instruments like: modern technologies to stabilize yields, contracts, hedging, insurance systems.

Keywords: market stability, price volatility, agricultural market management, safety net, Common Agricultural Policy

1. Introduction

Fifty years after it was set up in 1962, the general objectives of the Common Agricultural Policy (CAP), - increasing productivity by promoting technical progress and ensuring the optimum use of the factors of production, in particularly labor, ensuring a fair standard of living for the agricultural community, stabilizing markets, securing availability of supplies, providing consumers with food at reasonable prices - were reconfirmed by the Lisbon Treaty. These objectives were implemented gradually during 1958-1968. First products were subject to Common Market regulations in 1962 and common prices have been applied since 1968. The means of achieving these objectives have evolved taking into consideration the new demands. Even if CAP has evolved in more than half of century, further changes are still necessary in the context of globalization growth and rising price volatility in order to respond to new challenges, mainly: European and global food security, market orientation, competitiveness, environmental sustainability, climate and environmental change, diversity of EU farm structures and production systems, landscape conservation, biodiversity, viability of rural areas, support of CAP for member states and active farmers. There are reasons to explain why market instability has become such a hot topic in the agricultural debate on the CAP post-2013.

2. Literature Review

Being an important objective for the CAP, agriculture market stability has been a subject deeply debated in different international publications, seminars, conferences as well as by international organizations.

Von Witzke, Noleppa and Schwarz (2009) emphasized the determinants of food supply and demand growth as well as international agricultural markets in a further period of time. Vrolijk et al. (2009) analyzed the reasons and development of incomes’ volatility in EU agriculture. International Food Policy Research Institute - IFPRI (2009) made some proposals in order to prevent damaging price-spikes and the lack of confidence in the international grain market.

Council of the EU (2010) in the notes or papers issued from the Belgian and Spanish presidency, highlighted that the providing of safety nets can compensate price changes faced by farmers and emphasized the importance of market management in the single common market organization. In its Communication regarding CAP towards 2020, European Commission (2010) underlined that a ‘risk management toolkit’ should be included to deal better with income uncertainties and market volatility that hamper the possibility of agricultural sector to invest in competitiveness.

Food and Agriculture Organization - FAO (2010) revealed that volatility in agricultural markets seems to have increased, extreme price movements of agricultural commodities are a threat to world food security and policy measures should improve market functioning and increase countries’ resilience to shocks. Among the proposals regarding the
future CAP, Franco-German position (2010) referred to adapted market instruments needed to strengthen the competitiveness of European agriculture (the current market instruments should be part of a safety net, more transparency is needed taking into account increasing price volatility on agricultural markets, instruments like: insurance and mutual funds might stabilize farmers income). European Landowners’ Organization (2010) underlined that current direct payments and residual safety net intervention system are policy elements providing surety and stability. Matthews (2010) proposed an extended role for member states to address agricultural income instability through enhanced income insurance or income safety net schemes.

Opera Research Center (2011) started from facts and realities surrounding the agricultural market instability and identified the factors and directions for promoting market stability. Centre for European Policy Studies - CEPS (2011) organized a lecture at high level regarding food security and development where debates referred to high volatility registered in agricultural markets recent years as being a major concern not only for poor countries but also for the developed ones.

3. The Political Context and the Importance of Market Stability

Successive CAP reforms gradually switched support from market and price management to direct payments which, since 2005, are largely decoupled. The decoupled single payment scheme provides a significant and stable contribution to farm income. However, differences are remarkable among countries and farms according to the historical distribution of support between different sectors of agricultural production. EU embarked on a move to greater market orientation in its agricultural policy. A more market oriented CAP means much more responsibility for farmers in managing risks formerly absorbed by market and price support policies. The result of trade liberalization is the increased exposure to price fluctuations of EU agriculture (Matthews, 2010).

One of the points of concern in analyzing the CAP is the efficiency of the market management mechanisms and instruments. But the question is whether markets are functioning well enough or they need a system to ensure market stability. The answer is that there is compulsory need for market stabilization mechanisms. In the context of the high price volatility registered in the agricultural markets in 2007-2008 and 2010, the future CAP has to ensure economic stability for farmers business and also for their incomes. The dairy market crisis during 2009 emphasized the insecure climate as well as the concerns for an increase in the food prices over the next 20/30 years and highlighted the important role that existing mechanisms play in supporting the market in times of crisis. The epidemic caused by Escherichia Coli in 2011 caused big lose for those EU member states big producers of vegetables. There is a global interest in preventing such events from recurring. The episodes highlight the need to modify the architecture of international financial and agricultural markets to address the problem of price spikes, especially their effects on the livelihoods of the poor. It is to be expected that the increase in demand will lead to more volatility in the markets. Recent years have shown that an adapted regulatory framework is needed to ease devastating effects of growing price volatility and market crisis. The important changes in the domestic and trade policy are some of the factors behind the increase in price volatility and implied a major reorientation of EU domestic prices for agricultural products.

In September 2010, at the Informal meeting of the Council for Agriculture and Fisheries, ministers sustained that the ‘unbearable market volatility’ of raw materials must be counteracted by a strong measures system. Spanish presidency paper stated, in February 2010, that EU must have an agricultural model with the tools necessary to stabilize markets and deal with price volatility. The Communication of the European Commission ‘The CAP towards 2020’ issued in November 2010 foresees in the field of market measures that some adaptations are necessary especially in streamlining and simplifying actual instruments as well as in introducing new policy elements regarding the functioning of the food chain (European Commission, 2010). Underlying the link with the Europe 2020 Strategy, it was stated that reform of the CAP must also continue to promote competitiveness, efficient use of taxpayer resources, the purpose being to build a more sustainable, smarter and inclusive growth. In March 2011, at the meeting of the Council for Agriculture and Fisheries, different aspects of the future CAP were discussed like: direct income support, market management measures and rural development policy during five successive presidencies. The Presidency conclusions were the result of a detailed analysis of the member states of the policy orientations outlined in the Commission’s Communication as part of the institutional debate on the CAP towards 2020. The main idea was that EU agriculture must continue its market orientation, gain competitiveness and undertake to provide farmers with adequate tools to address increasing risks regarding price volatility and income fluctuations.

In the position issued in 2010 regarding the reform of the CAP, the European Parliament underlined (as Art.39 of the Lisbon Treaty suggests) that agriculture is exposed to market volatility, natural disasters, risks, lack of demand elasticity; farmers are ‘price-takers’ rather than ‘price-makers’ in the food supply chain. Then, in 2011, in a meeting held in
Strasbourg, it was stated that in agriculture price volatility is permanent having in view the disproportional response of prices to small variations in the production’s level, often as a result of speculation. World Trade Organization’s (WTO) negotiations revealed that global market has to function in a more liberal way. High prices of European production makes difficult to find outlets for surpluses. Inevitably, world food price volatility will have a great impact on the internal EU prices. Deeper integration of global and regional markets, better defined safeguard mechanisms and improvements in the competitive environment will bring increased trade volume and more suppliers and buyers to markets that are currently very shallow. Local or regional supply shocks could more easily be absorbed leading to lower volatility on domestic and international markets and food could more easily flow from surplus areas to rapidly urbanizing food-importing areas.

At the first high level Lecture on Food Security and Development held in Tervuren/Belgium on November 2011, Shenggen Fan, General Director of IFPRI pointed out that price volatility has increased in recent years, plays a critical role in food security and hurts the poor, whether consumers or producers; food producers will only benefit from high prices if they are net sellers of food and if input costs do not rise in parallel. Concerning the ongoing debate surrounding financial speculation and its relationship to price volatility, he raised the question of whether price volatility in agricultural markets has attracted speculators or whether it was speculation itself that caused high price volatility. As a conclusion, Shenggen Fan noted the increasing influence of non-agricultural factors on food security (energy, global warming, demographic changes, etc.) and recalled the opportunities that the current challenging context offers, especially for emerging countries. He argued that these opportunities are contingent upon a policy move towards business as unusual: promoting smallholders’ productivity, improving their resilience, investing in productive social protection programs, reforming the global food architecture, and investing in regional and local capacity building. Johan Swinnen1 highlighted the intriguing paradox that most food insecure people in the world are food producers themselves; when prices go up, food security for those producers should, in theory, increase as well.

Dacian Ciolos, EU Commissioner for Agriculture and Rural Development, underlined that food security is not only a problem in developing countries but also a priority political issue in Europe and therefore needs to be dealt with in a coherent and coordinated manner at the international level. In this global context, the European Commission has proposed to maintain a strong budget for the CAP, with three core priorities: ensuring food security, managing natural resources in a sustainable way and maintaining rural vitality. The goal of the Commission is to make sure that European agriculture becomes economically but also ecologically competitive. On the impacts of direct payments on developing countries, Commissioner Ciolos insisted that CAP is not a dumping policy anymore, as support has been decoupled from production and as export subsidies have been almost completely abolished (representing only 1% of the current CAP budget). He finally emphasized the new role played by research and innovation in meeting future challenges, and called upon the FAO to go beyond its current mandate to endorse a more important role and ensure a better coordination of agricultural policies around the world.

The situation of agriculture varies among member states and even among regions of the same states. While in the majority of western member states the structures and necessary infrastructure for proper market functioning may be in place, central and eastern European member states are in a continuous development, the situation of agricultural markets being different.

The European and global political and economic context highlights the need for a new approach to cope with market volatility in order to create a stable business environment without distorting effects on the markets.

4. Risks in Agriculture and Causes of Agricultural Market Instability

Agriculture is subject to many risks, market instability being one of them. In agriculture, damages produced by unpredictable weather can lead to losses; crop pest infestation can affect the performance of crops while animal disease outbreaks have a negative influence towards the performance of livestock. All these translate into production risks. The uncertainty regarding the price of output, sometimes input can cause market risks. While different ways and methods used to finance farm business lead to financial risks, the government’s ways of action lead to institutional risks. Uncertain life events like illness, divorce or death lead to personal risks.

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Price volatility depends on how variable its determinants are. Some of the most important are: population and income growth (by 2050 the global population is expected to have reached 9 billion people and the demand for food to have increased between 70% and 100%), correlation between agricultural commodity prices and oil prices, climate change, policy measures, trade liberalization, depreciation of USD (trade in many agricultural commodities being denominated in USD), low stocks (once they have been depleted supply can no longer be increased until new production comes on board), investment in financial derivatives markets.

Agriculture does not react fast enough with an increasing food production because of the low level of investments in research, technology, infrastructure and the commercial protectionist policies for agriculture. The increase in price hits the poor countries so the import of food products becomes more expensive. Some solutions for decreasing volatility in agricultural markets might be: a better coordination of policies in international trade with food products, the cut of subsidies in rich countries, more information of high quality to ensure transparency, the safety nets in poor countries in times of crisis.

The behavior of exchange rates and the increased ease of price transmission across EU borders lead to a lower impact of world price volatility towards European farmers. In the future, world market price change will be stronger transmitted to the EU domestic market where farm prices are protected only by constant tariffs on imports. Farmers’ vulnerability against price volatility might increase while their production flexibility regarding price changes might decrease because of greater specialization and larger investments. Increased volatility in incomes is a result of fluctuating prices of products combined with a smaller margin and a higher production volume per farm.

Volatility indicates how much and how quickly a value changes over time. In economic theory, volatility connotes two principal concepts: variability (overall movement) and uncertainty (unpredictable movement). Implied volatility represents the market’s expectation of how much a price of a commodity might move in the future and is measured as a percentage of the deviation in the future prices (six month ahead) from underlying expected value. Increases in implied volatility reflect how market conditions and unpredictable events translate to higher uncertainty ahead for traders and other market participants’ (FAO et al., 2011, p.7).

As figure 1 indicates, since 1990, the implied volatility for major crops has increased significantly. Starting with 2006 we can speak about the beginning of a period of extreme volatility. Prices increased sharply in 2006, peaking in the second half of 2007 or in the first half of 2008. In the second half of 2008 prices fell sharply even if most of them remained at or above the level in the period just before the run-up began. Market tensions emerged again in 2010 and there have been sharp rises in some food prices. By early 2011 food price index was again at the level reached at the peak of the crisis in 2007/2008. The rise in food prices caused hard problems among the poor and was a major factor in the increased number of hungry people to over one billion.

![Figure 1: Implied price volatility of selected staple foods (in %)](image)

Source: FAO (2010)

In a competitive economy, price fluctuations are normal. For commodities, scarcity means increase in price, fall in consumption and more investment in production. Uncertainties and extreme changes in price movements lead to lower...
efficiency of the price system. Extreme price volatility makes the global food system more vulnerable. Having in view that markets are more integrated in the world economy, shocks at global level propagate to domestic markets much quicker than before (FAO, 2010).

5. Instruments Used for Market Stability

The post-2013 CAP has to find the appropriate instruments to promote the use of modern technologies, innovation, improved market transparency, long-term contracts, hedging, insurance systems in order to ensure stability at farm level.

In order to reduce the negative effects generated by the instability in the agricultural markets, the main ways of action can be:

- **Development of the existing CAP instruments**
  In order that agriculture becomes more responsive to market signals, major changes have been made in the CAP like: the measures taken to balance expenditure on direct payments and market measures, the increased role of Rural Development in obtaining more competitive agricultural products (EU being more exposed to competition worldwide), increased attention for the need and importance of producer organizations and subsidiaries on the product, growing concerns for the mechanisms of the whole food supply chain.

  "The existing market management system in the single Common Market Organization can be summarized as follows:

  - **internal market**
    - intervention measures: public intervention and private storage, special intervention measures, production limitation systems, specific aid schemes (abolished or phased out)
    - provisions concerning marketing and production: marketing standards and production conditions, producer organizations, operator and inter-branch organizations;

  - **trade with third countries**: import, export currently constrained by Uruguay Round obligations;

  - **competition rules**: rules applying to undertakings in agriculture, state aid rules (Council of the EU, 2010: p.9);

- **Supply stability**
  The increasing scarcity of natural resources represents a threat not only to future food supplies but also to global stability and prosperity. Food and agricultural systems should serve the well-being and quality of life of all stakeholders involved. According to FAO estimations, in order to meet growing food and feed demand determined by population growth, global crop production will have to increase at least by 70%.

  Agricultural output is subject to severe losses because of weather conditions, crop pest infestation or animal disease outbreaks. Technology and innovation can contribute to reducing yield volatility, ensuring price stability and to facilitating the delivery of public goods. The use of public intervention and private storage are measures which have influenced the supply in the actual CAP. Quotas and set-aside (abolished through Health Check decisions) are production limitation mechanisms with a decreasing importance. Better horizontal policy integration and a better cooperation in the public-private sector are needed in order to reach stabilization of markets and farmers income.

  The interaction between the objectives of Agenda 2020 and the reform of the CAP must be taken into account. CAP has to respond to several challenges and, in this way, will contribute to the EU 2020 Strategy in terms of smart, sustainable and inclusive growth;

- **Reducing price and income volatility**
  a). ‘price and income safety net’ should address directly the issue of the excessive volatility of agricultural commodity prices (intervention purchasing and withdrawals, aid for private storage, subsidies designed to promote internal consumption, state aids, income safety net, creation of mutual funds);

  b). ‘risk reduction’ should address the production and income related risks so as to reduce the exposure of the farmer to the abnormal variations of the market and to ensure income stability (forward contracting, futures markets have an important role in price discovery as well as allowing producers and processors to hedge their price risk, revenue or income insurance – Health Check only provides for production risk insurance -, mutual funds); however, in EU total farmers welfare benefits more from direct payments than from insurance subsidies (Opera Research Center, 2011);

- **Market transparency**
  In order to remain competitive and fair, transparency is needed in the food supply chain. In the same time, high safety and quality standards have to be upheld. Farmers complain of unjustified practices in food chain that affect the proper functioning of trade flows in the internal market, potentially increasing price levels and volatility for consumers. On the internal market, instability has its roots in local, regional or national imbalances in supply and demand. Sometimes, relevant disparities in marketing and food safety standards hinder the proper functioning of trade flows. Guidelines of good commercial practices would increase the fluidity along the chain. To improve transparency, one of the main tools
could be price monitoring at different stages. For the future CAP, more frequent systematic projections on food prices, transparent for the public and farmers are needed as well as competition law guidelines over competition policy;

- Cooperation

In order to promote cooperation and integration in the food chain, the CAP has to develop several mechanisms. The future CAP must improve the relationship among producers-traders-processors-supermarkets-consumers.

In the CAP post-2013 it would appear necessary to find a balance between market orientation and a full guarantee of the viability of agricultural activity. Extreme volatility should be avoided considering its negative impact on agricultural incomes but also on the industry, distribution, consumers and the economy as a whole. In this way, CAP will better respond to the expectations of EU farmers.

6. Conclusions

Market stability must be a priority for the CAP post-2013. Having in view that price volatility is expected to remain high and the level of input prices in agriculture is likely to remain higher than its historical trends, the future CAP should put in place instruments to protect farmers of extreme volatility. Rural Development measures should provide the tools and the economic framework in order to increase competitiveness and stabilize agricultural incomes, providing income insurance. Safety net schemes represent a solution to extreme price volatility. Research, innovation and modern technologies are essential. Training and education is important for farmers who can reduce the volatility of their incomes by using market-based risk management instruments and should adjust their business to market conditions, market transparency being necessary in the whole food supply chain. EU should avoid that reduction in domestic agricultural prices to be reflected in high global prices.

Serious imbalances on world markets can cause major crisis in some EU agricultural sectors that require market management interventions. In the context of the CAP post-2013, it is important to ensure that rapid and efficient management is not restricted by a lack of financial resources.

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Can Albania and Greece go Toward a Conflict for the Fulfillment of their Interests? 
(Liberalism vs. Realism)

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Abstract: Liberalism can describe the Albanian – Greek relations, more than realism does. This paper is a confrontation of the game theory with sum zero and the game theory win – win. The assessment is that Liberalism gives a clear and fair view of the Albanian – Greek relations adding other elements left aside by Realism. 1) Liberalism studies plurality of actors that have influenced the Albanian – Greek relations. 2) This relation is characterized not only by individual interests of states, but also by some mutual interests. 3) Force is substituted by interaction and cooperation. Based on this logic, a projected conflict in the future of the Albanian – Greek relation can not be perceptible and it is unlikely to happen. The conclusion of this paper may be used to foresee other relations of Albania with neighbor countries.

Key words: Realism; Liberalism; plurality of actors; mutual interests; cooperation.

1. Introduction

Realism is one of the earliest theories of international relations. It explains and foresees the states’ actions within international relations. The most important elements in explaining reality are: state, power, national security and international system. The state is the principal actor in international relations; they do not deny the existence of other actors, but still they are not as important to study as state. Realism considers state as the sole important actor that can act in the international arena, and it must be studied to better understand the whole international system. State as the main actor takes care for the fulfillment of economic and political interests of the country.

Realism as a theory is related to the power politics. It is much spread in the international relations theory. There is no actor except state that can interact or arrive to certain relations with other states. States are keen to fulfill their own interests, without paying to much attention to cooperation. (Donnelly at el 2010) Power, which is seen related to the economic capabilities, is one of the basics of national security. State nature is related to human nature. If humans are conflictual and egocentric, keen to be rigid in relations with others and escalate relations to conflicts, state is the sole actor that can interact on behalf of its citizens, with the main goal, preservation of power and national security. Considering that all states are keen to follow their own national interest, trust in other states may never be complete. (Jackson & Sorensen 2005 p. 69)

Liberalism is another theory of international relations, which on the contrary of realism, has a positive vision of the human nature. Based on that, liberalism has the conviction that international relations may be cooperative and not conflictual, as realism proclaims. Liberalism considers relations between actors, not only states, but other actors like: international organizations, societies, people, individuals, etc. We can notice that liberalism emphasizes actors that realism has left on the shadow. International relations are characterized from high levels of transnational connections, which are the premises of a security community. A world with a large number of transnational nets, individuals’ nets, groups’ nets, societies’ nets, states’ nets, etc. offers more possibilities for peace, cooperation and security. (Jackson & Sorensen 2005 pp. 113-116)

According to liberalism we may notice that international relations are not characterized only by the interactions of states, but other actors may be much more decisive in the fulfillment of interests. This fulfillment may be the primary goal of the state, but other individuals, outside the state channel can contribute and decide on their own interests. Their interest is decisive in policies.
Realism and Liberalism differentiate from one another from the classification of actors they do. One sole actor versus the plurality of actors: who can play within the international arena? Realism gives a more pessimistic panorama of all against all, and more precisely, a continuous battle between states aiming security and fulfillment of their interests. Meanwhile liberalism gives an optimistic panorama; people tend to achieve a mutual advantageous cooperation.

The international relations projected by realism can be summarized in a game theory characterized by the sum zero. What is the gain and profit of one state is the lost of the other. According to Liberalism, states can accomplish their needs and interests by identifying their joint points of interest. Liberals think that they tend to create the appropriate conditions for the accomplishment of special interests, together with the mutual interests. Good faith is one of the conditions that affect the creation of a situation where states are predisposed to accomplish their interests and needs with pacific means. This kind of policy is explained by another game theory: win – win theory, which is a theory also used in the economic sciences. (Hal R. 2000) What is the gain of one state is not the lost of the other. States and actors interact and evaluate the best solutions for their common policies. Interdependence characterizes international relations and states are interdependent to each – other. Liberalism presents this element that takes states and citizens toward the economic interdependence and also political and social interdependence, culminated by peace.

Interdependence is another element that affects the Albanian – Greek relations, especially in the ‘90. A much known period that was characterized by the demonstration of power from Greece, is the 1939 – 1940. (Meta 2002). For almost 50 years, before the ‘90s, the interdependence relation was almost inexistent. This because of the absence of contacts both states had with each other. Nowadays the Albanian – Greek relation is characterized by many mutual points of interest and policies. Interdependence of states means a world of international relations characterized by cooperation, peace and lack of fear. In the international arena security is substituted from welfare, which is the major goal of states.

The following arguments will give some detailed elements in explaining why Liberalism is the theory that can describe, explain and foresee better the Albanian – Greek relations, using the political element, the economic element and the social element. All the elements have indicators which present a better panorama of this relation, based on liberalism.

2. Political element

After many years of isolation, Albania re-entered the international arena with another status. It began to have contacts with other actors of international relations. Greece as one of the neighbor countries was ready to interact with it. Based on realism, both countries would not have an interaction, but only some rigid relations or conflictual one, because each state would consider the fulfillment of its interests, without considering the other. Cooperation would be unthinkable under the influence of realism. A projected conflict would be always possible in this relation. States would hold the positions of protection or attack. Equilibrium would be hard to achieve based on the premises of realism.

Emphasizing that, we believe that liberalism would be the best international relations theory explaining the Albanian – Greek relation. It studies the plurality of actors that affects this relation, adding elements not mentioned by realism. It is based on optimistic premises and that can be felt in the ongoing of Albanian – Greek relations. In may help in much sure projections for the future of this relation. One of the most important issues for liberalism is the happiness of individuals.

2.1 The Treaty of Friendship, Cooperation, Good Neighborliness and Security between Albania and Greece

In March 21, 1996, Albania and Greece signed the Treaty of Friendship, Cooperation, Good Neighborliness and Security1. Considering the period when it was signed and the necessity of developing the economic, social and political relations in a positive way between the two states, within the Balkans, with the intention to preserve stability and peace in the region, both states, Albania and Greece, expressed their will in cooperation for a more pacific future.

This Treaty is a tool used by both actors in achieving their individual and mutual interests. It is not a demonstration of force in achieving certain goals. It is a cooperation agreement that liberalism foresees in the interaction of actors in the international arena. This treaty has given strength to both states and serves as the base for the solution of possible conflicts. Specific issues that have affected the relation between these two states may be addressed according to this treaty, and will find a pacific solution.

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1 The Treaty of Friendship, Cooperation, Good Neighborliness and Security, Ministry of Foreign Affairs in Albania archive.
2.2 The Stabilization and Association Agreement (SAA)

The European Union is one of the most powerful actors in international relations. The SAA came into force on April 1, 2009, after the ratification of 25 EU member states and by the Albanian Parliament. The ratification process was completed with the ratification by the Greek parliament, in January 2009. The signing and ratification of this agreement opened the green light to Albania for the submission of the application for candidate country in the EU.\(^2\)

The ratification of this agreement testifies that force is not an element that defines the Albanian – Greek relation. Greece signed and ratified the agreement considering Albania as a partner country in the international arena. Greece will work on setting a specific date for the integration of the Western Balkans countries; have said the foreign minister of Greece during a seminar. Candidates will be assisted in fulfilling the criteria of accession.\(^3\) This process would cause more intense relations between states and ministries of line. The policy of Greece toward Albania is to support it in the integration process in the EU membership as a political and economic partner.

2.3. Membership in organizations

Membership of Albania and Greece in inter-state structures makes them predisposed and obligated to solve the conflicts by understanding and in peace. Both countries are members of the UN and as so, they have mutual interests in the international arena.

International organizations like NATO offer many possibilities to its members, but at the same time it puts some limits. The membership of Greece and Albania within the NATO shows both countries as allies and more specifically, as military allies. The reciprocity principle that drives NATO means that in a potential conflict, Albania and Greece will have the same side. Even if hypothetically, this conflict would arise with a partner outside the organization that one of the states has. A strategic ally would be much stronger in this case, against a principle ally. Participation in NATO is a way of preserving stability and meeting mutual interests. Realism has a strong debate regarding the enlargement of NATO. One of the wings considers that the enlargement of NATO comes as an answer to the fundamental values of realism: security and stability (Jackson & Sorensen 2005 p. 97).

Parties representing their states in the EU are not considered and valued according to the state they belong to, but those are valued based on the ideology they represent. There could not be noticed the Greek parties or the Albanian parties. Within the EU, there are the left wing parties and the right wing parties.

2.4. Political parties in Albania and Greece

Political relations of Albania and Greece support each other especially during electoral campaign and elections. We can notice the relation of Nea Demokratia in Greece and the Democratic party in Albania. The Prime Minister Berisha has saluted the election of Karamanlis. Same relation characterizes the Socialist party of Albania and PASOK in Greece. Political parties have gone beyond borders united by the ideology.

Another important element that characterizes the political arena in Albania is the existence of parties representing the minorities. The party that represents the Greek minority in Albania has been part of governing coalitions for years and has served in strategic positions in the central and local government.

3. Economic element

A key element that can be used under the liberalism theory is the interdependence Albania and Greece have. Interdependence can be found in the economic area as much as it may be found in the politic area. Several statistics and connections between groups can be used in the presentation of this panorama. Actors that play crucial role in the economies of both countries are: State, organizations, commercial societies, companies, and individuals.

One of the policies the state has approved in the economic sector is “Albania one euro” which is meant to make Albania an attractive country for the foreign investments. Several companies with Greek capital have invested in Albania after the ’90. The banking sector has a major influence from the Greek banks, such as: Tirana Bank (part of Piraeus


Group), Emporiki Bank, National Bank of Greece, Alpha Bank. The policies of these banks, under the Bank of Albania have a strong influence in the financial and economic sector.

Other private profiting subjects and companies operating in Albania with a Greek capital cover the telecommunication sector. The first two mobile communication companies were those with Greek capital: AMC and Panafone Vodafone. The policies these companies have approved have affected the economy and lives of Albanian citizens. Only after many years of ruling the mobile communication sector alone, other companies with Albanian or foreign capital have entered the market.

The sector of alimentary products has a large influence from Greek companies. The market has many products which have Greece as their origin state. In the NRC are registered several companies that have foreign capital, especially Greek capital. Greek companies have played a crucial role even in the constructions sector. One of the largest tenders in Albania was given to a Greek company.

Another important element is trade. Import and export volumes toward Greece and the percentage they have in the total of Albanian import – export will show the close relation of these two countries and the importance they play in the economies of one another. In the export structure by main trade partners, Greece is listed second, after Italy. In 2010, same as the previous years, the main partners of Albania are Italy and Greece. Export of goods to Greece increased 15.2 % and import of goods decreased by 10.3 percent in 2010, compared to 2009\(^4\).

Remittances play an important role in the economy of Albania. There is a large number of Albanians living abroad that still has connections and relatives in Albania. Remittances have an impact in the poverty alleviation. Destination countries can enjoy significant economic gains from migration\(^5\). The Albanian migrant stocks in 2010 in Greece are at high levels, 8 times higher than the Greek migrant stocks in Albania for the same period\(^6\). The bilateral remittance estimates for 2010 with receiving country Albania, arriving from Greece achieve the amount of 599 mln USD, compared to 489 mln USD arriving from Italy. Meanwhile, the amount of remittances sent from Albania to Greece, is around 136 mln USD\(^7\).

The Commercial Chamber of Greece in Albania intensifies the mutual projects and potential investments of Greek businesses in Albania.

Albania also is a country that offers employment possibilities and business possibilities in the cities of Korça and Saranda\(^8\). Greek citizens have found a way of investment with profits in the Albanian territory. All the above mentioned indicators affect the preservation of good relations between states.

4. Social element

The interaction between citizens of both states can be noticed in many indicators. Various actors have played a crucial role in the creation of interdependence between Greece and Albania. Albanian state have allowed and licensed several Greek schools inside the Albanian territory. Policies of education have made possible for minorities and inhabitants of Albania to take their education in the Greek language. Licensing of Greek schools has opened a green light to the Greek investments in Albania. In some public schools in areas where Greek minorities live, lessons are given in Albanian and in Greek language.

The same policy has been followed by the state of Greece. In public schools, Albanian people can take lessons in their native language. The Association of Albanian Educators\(^9\) has worked for the Albanian natives to preserve their cultural identity and language.

These are steps forward in the preservation of friendly relations between both states. The Greek minority in Albania holds the right of vote and the right to be elected. They do have their own party which has played an important role in the politics of Albania. The existence of Omonia, a political and cultural Association, shows the close relation between Albania and Greece, which has become stronger compared to the beginning of the ’90. The Greek state has chosen to be represented by Albanians in many Olympiads. People of Albanian origins have represented Greece in sport events of cultural events.

\(^8\) Top-Channel news, dt. 02.01.2012
\(^9\) Ministry of Foreign Affairs of Albania, reports from the archive
Associations operating in culture and art have cooperated for mutual programs. Some of them have produced movies. The exchange of culture and ideas has made the net of relations between Albania and Greece denser.

Cooperation between states has been graved these last years. Employment opportunities are given to Albanians in Greece and to Greek in Albania. Albanian and Greek have united into marriage and have created their own families. Mixed families are strong connections that make the Albanian Greek relations continuously pacific and possible to be explained by Liberalism. Along with the creation of mixed families, there are many baptisms of Albanian children in Greece from Greek citizens. According to Realism, families and individuals would have not been taken into consideration as actors of the international relations. Meanwhile we claim that all the above mentioned social indicators play their role in the Albanian – Greek relation.

5. Conclusion and Recommendations

The Albanian – Greek relations may have been oriented toward realism, but now they are and will be oriented toward liberalism. Modernization, human rights, independence of people, can be better described and granted under the Liberalism philosophy. Tensions between countries are matters of many subjects: states, organizations, international organizations, societies, people, and individuals. The many the actors that operate in this relation, the higher will be the level of cooperation between states. Interests of both states will not serve as a tool for division but they will serve as a tool for unifying all the interests for the best solutions. Trust in one another and the mutual progress characterizes the relations between states.

The Treaty, the membership in several organizations, the interaction between citizens, has arrived to the core of this relationship, by making it softer, comprehensive and peaceful. What was history have stayed in the past. Albania and Greece are making efforts to not allow perceptions and “mega ideas” affect their relation.

We believe that both countries have mutated their interests in a way the accomplishment can be more easy and peaceful. Both countries have chosen the path of win – win game, where trust and common goals make the foundations of a good friendship. Interaction and cooperation are the words that better describe the Albanian – Greek relation. Force would be considered irrational in this relation. Comparing the pessimistic view of realism and the optimistic view of liberalism, the view hold by liberalism we consider is a pillar for the Albanian – Greek relation. In the international arena where all actors have the possibility to interact with each – other, and they do so, Liberalism is the theory that better describes, explains and foresees the relations of Albania and Greece, and not only. Based on the indicators we have analyzed in this paper, we can foresee that the relations between Albania and its neighbors are keened toward cooperation because of their mutual interests.

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Competitive Position of Croatia at The Mediterranean Tourism Market

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Abstract: At the contemporary increasingly open and integrated world tourism market competitiveness measurements have become the most important indicators for receptive tourism countries worldwide. Almost every tourism country conception, strategies, policy and plan contain indicators of tourism country competitiveness. The main reason for lies on one hand in the high level of accessibility of almost every tourism destination and on the other hand in the low capability of the tourism destination differentiation toward other competitors at the tourism market. Every receptive tourism country, including Croatia, has been making constant efforts to achieve and sustain the competitive advantage. Therefore, the main aim of the paper is to determine, on the basis of the sampled indicators, the competitive position of Croatia at the Mediterranean tourism market among the selected nineteen direct and indirect competitors. An additional purpose is to offer directions to obtain a better market position and achieve long term competitive advantage. In order to gain insight into the Croatian tourism position among the Mediterranean competitors, the paper contains consecutive indicators of the market share for the analysed receptive tourism market: the real tourism share, proportional market share, index of penetration and coefficient of the relative competitiveness. Since competitiveness is a distinctly complex concept which is incessantly reflection of subjective observations of qualitative features, for the purpose of the research indicators were used that applied quantification of the qualitative attributes and that provide an objective comparison. The countries that are included in the research are, according to the indicators, at different levels of economic and social development and also each of them operates at specific development level in different circumstances which are in any cases incompatible with another country that has completely different development level. Therefore the competitive analysis will be based on description and factography.

Key words: competitiveness, market position, Croatia, Mediterranean

1. Introduction

Competitiveness, strategies to achieve competitiveness and measurement of the same are the most commonly used syntagms at the tourism market today. The reason why they are so actual is availability of all components of the tourism product and services at the market as well as rather difficult differentiation from other competitive destinations. For quite some time the countries focused on development of tourism had faced the need to re-gain their competitive advantages in the fierce battle for instant prosperity and expansion. Nowadays, tourism destinations are on one hand under great pressure by the high level competitiveness and rapidly changing market requirements, and on the other hand by the shorter period of validity of tourism products due to constant technological changes and moral obligation to satisfy the increasingly sophisticated tourism demand. In order to resume their place in the race for a better position at the tourism market, i.e. to become competitive, they must get closer to the market by sensing the tourism requirements, reacting promptly and providing prompt responses on the same, respecting at the same time the competition and perusing the advantages and capabilities to the full. Competitiveness at the global level has put pressure on all tourism destinations, regardless the size or degree of development, to carry out re-organisation and re-structuring in order to stay on the market.

All tourism destinations, including Croatia, have been continuously searching the means to achieve and maintain competitive advantage. For efficient measurement of competitiveness it is above all necessary to determine the level for which research and analysis will be carried out (state, industry, business subject or product). In many recent research projects competitiveness was evaluated at national macro level.
The purpose of this paper is to determine, on the basis of market share indicators, the position of the Republic of Croatia at the tourism market with respect to selected direct and indirect competitors in the Mediterranean, and to put forward the guidelines to obtain better position at the market as well as long-term competitive advantage.

In order to achieve those goals following hypothesis has been set:

In relation to its competitors Croatia is middle positioned destination at the Mediterranean tourism market.

This hypothesis has implied the backing hypotheses:

According to the real market share in general accommodation capacities, Turkey and Greece are Croatia’s main competition.

According to the penetration index competitive position of Croatia is better in foreign overnight stays than in domestic overnight stays.

2. Literature Review

The monitoring and analysis aspects being extremely varied, there is no universal and precise definition of competitiveness. In its business process it has changed shapes from competitiveness among products and companies through competitiveness among chains of companies to global competitiveness. According to the definition set by the United Nations for economic co-operation and development competitiveness is the measure of ability of a country to produce goods and services under free and equal market conditions that pass the test of international market but at the same time maintain and increase the nation’s real income on a long term basis (OECD, 2011) Holistic definition of competitiveness was given by Feurer and Chaharbaghi (1994) who defined it as a relative and not absolute value dependant upon the value of shareholders and clients, financial power that determines the ability for action and reaction within competitive milieu, and potential of people and technology.

In their observation of competitiveness at a national level Scott and Lodge defined it as a nation’s ability to create, produce, distribute and supply products and services in international trade making at the same time an increased return to their resources (Buckley et al., 1988).

It is difficult to define competitiveness in tourism due to a number of economic, ecological, social, cultural and political factors that determine it. For this very reason competitiveness in tourism has evolved into a central feature of economic policy at a destination level (Kunst, 2009), resulting in a large number of definitions of tourism competitiveness and consequently measurement methodologies.

Hassan (2000) defines competitiveness in tourism as ability to create and integrate product with added value that has sustainable resources through which it defends the market position in relation to competition.

Dwayer and Kim (2003) believe that destination competitiveness is closely related to ability of a destination to deliver products and services that are superior to those of other destinations in tourism in those aspects of tourism experience that are important to tourists.

The most frequently cited definition in literature is the one by Ritchie and Crounch (2003) who gave the most comprehensive definition of destination competitiveness describing it as ability of a destination to increase the number of visitors and tourists’ consumption giving at the same time satisfactory and unforgettable experience and doing it by bringing profit and thriving welfare to local population as well as preservation of local natural resources of the destination for future generations.

Instead of the term competitiveness the term sustainable competitive advantage is increasingly being used. According to Hofmann (2000) sustainable competitive advantage is prolonged benefit from implementation of strategy when creating product value that cannot be implemented at the same time by an existing or potential competitor and its advantages cannot be duplicated. The best definition of sustainable competitive advantage was given by Chaharbaghi and Lynch (1999) who defined it as a process of fulfilling the existing needs without jeopardising ability of a business subject to fulfil the future needs. If applied on tourism, sustainable competitive advantage in tourism would be valorisation and utilisation of existing natural resources respecting at the same time the needs of future generations.

Guidelines for future developments in tourism depend significantly on the results of competitiveness measurements. 3P competitiveness measurement is known from literature. Measures are categorised in three groups: competitiveness of indicators (performance), competitiveness of factors (potential) and management process (process). Measurements of factors describe inputs, measurements of indicators describe outputs and the process measures management of the whole operation (Buckley et al., 1988).

Kozak (1999) believes that both quantitative and qualitative measurement of destination competitiveness can be performed. Quantitative measurement includes the number of arrivals per year, annual revenue from tourism, expenditure
per tourist, length of stay. Qualitative measurement includes tourist features, their attitudes on (dis)satisfaction, mediators’ attitudes, quality of workers in tourism, quality of accommodation capacities and services in tourism.

The term destination competitiveness and efforts to find an adequate method of measurement, as well as the means for achieving and maintaining destination competitive advantages are in the focus of attention of all participants in tourism supply. The reason for this is economic potential of tourism and competitive struggle among destinations to attract a larger number of tourists (Lee and King, 2009).

Due to high profitability and rapid expansion of tourism the penetration onto the tourism market is a huge challenge to potential carriers of tourism supply, and for the existing ones it is the reason for developing a market strategy to achieve sustainable competitive advantage. In 1950 fifteen major tourism destinations realised almost the total number of international tourism arrivals, while 60 years later this number fell to 57% (Balan, Balaure, Veghes, 2009). Having in mind that the number of arrivals in the same period had grown the change resulted from an increased number of tourism destinations due to globalisation processes, which caused change in the main task in management of a tourism destination from attracting the largest possible number of tourists to achieving destination competitive advantage.

Dweyer et al. in 2003 declared that there is no special and unique set of indicators applied on all destinations, but a year later the measurement indicator called Travel & Tourism Competitiveness Index was developed and today it is the best known index of tourism competitiveness in the world. TTCI was developed within a partner programme for air, travel and tourism sector of the World Economic Forum in close co-operation with their strategic partners Booz & Company, Deloitte, the International Air Transport Association (IATA), the International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN), the World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO) and the World Travel & Tourism Council (WTTC) and it keeps record of 139 tourism destinations worldwide.

Travel & Tourism Competitiveness Index measures 14 indicators grouped in three sub-indices (see Scheme 1).


Different scientists in tourism used different measurement methodologies when analysing competitiveness at national macro level, from TTC Index (Gooroochurn & Sugiyarto, 2005; Kayar & Kozak, 2008; Gursoy et al., 2009; Nechita et al., 2010), through Porter diamond (Cerovic & Batic, 2008; Miller et al., 2008; Perles Ribes et al., 2011) to hedonistic prices model (Papatheodorou, 2002). For the purpose of ascertaining competitive market position of Croatia indicators of market share will be used in this paper.

3. Mediterranean Tourism Market

Global tourism market as a special market of products and services has never shown such a dynamic progress as in the period from mid 20th century until today. A large number of participants involved in international tourism processes as of the WW II until today support the fact that tourism has become a global phenomenon.
In spite of the recession, increased human restlessness and natural disasters international tourism is on the rise. In 1950 the number of international tourist arrivals was 25.2 million and in 2010 this number rose to 935 million, having increased by more than 38 times, i.e. 6.34% per annum. Revenue from international tourism has increased from 1950 until today by approximately 450 times at an average growth rate of 10.85%. Europe is the tourism region with the highest share of tourist arrivals, namely over 476.6 million international arrivals. The number of tourist arrivals in Europe from 1950 until today has grown from 186.3 to 476.6 million at an average growth rate of 1.60%. The share of Europe in the total number of arrivals in the monitored period has been considerably reduced from 65.56% in 1980 to 50.7% in 2010. Within Europe different regions have different concentrations of international tourist arrivals. The most frequently visited region is Southern Europe with the share of 18% followed by Western Europe with the share of 16.3% (UNWTO, 2011). The analysis of the shares of regions in total arrivals indicates that interest for the so far most visited region of Western Europe has slightly fallen while at the same time the interest for Southern Europe (which includes all Mediterranean countries) has increased. The increased interest of tourists for Mediterranean countries in particular implies creation of a new region that significantly differs from the regions formed by the World Tourism Organisation. Consequently, a new region will be formed in this paper encompassing 19 Mediterranean countries on the European, African and Asian continent. The Mediterranean has been in the focus of action for centuries, it has represented a bridge between various influences, cultures and civilisations, and today it represents the confrontation area of three different continents involving countries in different stages of development. Having in mind that this is an area rich in natural and cultural resources it is only logical for it to find its modern valorisation in tourism (Petrić, 1992).

Global regionalisation that has reached the Mediterranean as well enables application of various regionalisation criteria, such as geographic, political, cultural, economic and similar. According to the geographical criteria in the Mediterranean are divided into three groups: the European part that includes Spain, France, Italy, Croatia, Greece, Malta, Slovenia, Montenegro, Bosnia and Herzegovina and Albania; the Near East part that includes Turkey, Syria, Lebanon, Cyprus and Israel; and the part of North Africa that includes Morocco, Algiers, Tunis, Libya and Egypt. The total area of this region comprises 8.348 km2, which is approximately 5.6% of the world area. Out of this area some 15.7% is in Europe (Žabica, 1992). According to the indicators analysed it may be concluded that there are different degrees of participation of the nineteen countries included in the analysis at the Mediterranean tourism market. In these countries 29% of total world international arrivals is realised and 26% of income from tourism is made, consequently this region requires special attention. The top position according to the number of international arrivals is occupied by France with the share of 28.4%. Italy is the top country in overnight stays with the share of 27%, and Spain takes the top position in revenue made from tourism with the share of 24.7%. The share of another group of countries including Turkey and Greece is 5-10% and of all other countries under 5%. As far as overnight shares are concerned the situation is rather similar, but the top group of countries according to revenue earned involves not only Greece and Turkey but also Egypt (according to SOURCES OF STATISTICAL INDICATORS OF THE COUNTRIES in References).

In order to carry out as complete a research as possible, besides analysis of physical indicators WTTC indicators for 19 chosen Mediterranean countries have been analysed. According to TTCI France takes the top position, Spain is second and Cyprus with 4.89 index is on the third place. The Republic of Croatia is on 34th position out of 133 analysed countries worldwide, and on 8th position out of 19 countries in the Mediterranean. The sub-index analysis showed the best results for Croatia (7th place) in the area of human, cultural and natural resources, then in the area of business environment and infrastructure (8th place), while the lowest position Croatia occupies in legal frame area (10th place). According to these indicators Tunisia, Algiers and Libya take the bottom positions. This measurement has been in use since 2004 which is why researchers interested in monitoring the tourism competitiveness dynamics must seek alternative measurement methods.

Table 1: The Travel & Tourism Competitiveness Index at the Mediterranean tourism market

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Travel &amp; Tourism Regulation Framework</th>
<th>Travel &amp; Tourism Business Environment and Infrastructure</th>
<th>Travel &amp; Tourism Human, Cultural and Natural Resources</th>
<th>T &amp; T Competitive Index</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Score</td>
<td>Score</td>
<td>Score</td>
<td>Score</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>5.71</td>
<td>5.35</td>
<td>5.18</td>
<td>5.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>5.34</td>
<td>5.32</td>
<td>5.22</td>
<td>5.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>4.79</td>
<td>4.83</td>
<td>4.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turkey</td>
<td>4.58</td>
<td>4.02</td>
<td>4.50</td>
<td>4.37</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In order to ascertain the competitiveness position of the analysed countries and confirm the main and backing hypotheses besides the mentioned indicators it is necessary in the positioning analysis to apply competitiveness indicators based on the market shares.

### 4. Methodology

To get an insight in the market position of Croatia in relation to selected direct and indirect competitors in the Mediterranean in this paper indicators of market share within the monitored receptive market have been used, as follows: real market share, proportional share, penetration index and relative competitiveness coefficient. The real market share is the share of individual competitive countries in the total number of overnight stays realised in a defined circle of competitive countries (according to types of accommodation capacities and tourist origin), proportional share is the share of individual competitive countries in accommodation capacities (hotels and other complementary capacities), the penetration index represents the relation between the real market share and proportional share (according to types of capacities and tourist origin), while the relative competitiveness coefficient represents the relation between penetration index of individual competitive countries and penetration index of Croatia (Institute for Tourism, 1997). Since movement dynamics plays an important role in tourism, the stated indicators have been chosen due to availability of data that have been continuously monitored and recorded for many years. To determine changes in position at the market this paper analysed indicators from 1999, 2004 and 2010.

The analysis involved countries in different stages of development both according to economic and social indicators, consequently the comparative analysis will focus on description and factography since each of the mentioned countries operates on its own development line under specific circumstances that are incompatible with another country that has a completely different development line.

The possibility of substitution for competitive macro destinations offering similar products on similar markets and thus similar market segments is extremely large. Consequently, it may be concluded that determination of market position and national competitive ability in general must focus primarily on the market competition between individual macro destination countries and then on other competitiveness parameters (Institute for Tourism, 1997). In globalisation environment tourism destination or region with specific tourism product is a basic measure of competitiveness. Destination may be observed from two aspects: as a geographic unit and as a marketing unit in a competitive environment focused on tourist requirements.

To obtain a full picture on market developments and relations between competitive countries in the Mediterranean and to determine position of Croatian tourism in the Mediterranean and actual competitors to Croatia in the Mediterranean physical indicators of each country were analysed. Since competitiveness is a very complex term and reflection of subjective observations on qualitative features, for the purpose of this research indicators were used that enabled quantification of qualitative features of competitive destinations enabling thus an objective comparison. As the basis for...
calculation of market position indicators total number of arrivals or total accommodation capacities and hotels and similar accommodation capacities of all analysed Mediterranean countries were taken. The analysis of indicators in complementary accommodation capacities did not show realistic indicators since most Mediterranean countries do not keep record on this data.

5. Results of Research

The real market share

According to overnight stays in all accommodation capacities in 1999 the largest market share among the Mediterranean competitive destinations was occupied by France (31.8%), Italy (24.5%) and Spain (23.3%). Croatia with the share of 1.5% was on the 7th place after Turkey, Greece and Syria. According to international arrivals made in all accommodation capacities in 1999 Spain took the first place because France and Italy shared a smaller share in international arrivals. In 2004 there were no significant changes in Croatia’s position. The share of leading countries remained approximately the same and Croatia kept the same position as in 1999. In 2010 the largest real market share belonged to France (29.3%), Italy was second with the share of 27.1%. The second group consists of Turkey (61.1%), Greece (4.8%) and Croatia with the share of 2.6%, while another group according to analysed indicators consists of the countries with a share below 1%.

Table 2: Real market share at the Mediterranean tourism market

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Real market share</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Hotels</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>31.8%</td>
<td>31.04%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>23.3%</td>
<td>20.00%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>24.5%</td>
<td>26.00%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turkey</td>
<td>3.7%</td>
<td>4.00%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greece</td>
<td>5.3%</td>
<td>5.38%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cyprus</td>
<td>1.5%</td>
<td>1.52%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malta</td>
<td>0.8%</td>
<td>0.80%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slovenia</td>
<td>0.5%</td>
<td>0.52%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Albania</td>
<td>0.1%</td>
<td>0.01%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B&amp;H</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0.06%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Montenegro</td>
<td>0.1%</td>
<td>0.21%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Israel</td>
<td>1.5%</td>
<td>0.90%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Croatia</td>
<td>1.5%</td>
<td>2.08%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Algiers</td>
<td>0.4%</td>
<td>0.48%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Egypt</td>
<td>0.8%</td>
<td>2.09%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Libya</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0.01%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Morocco</td>
<td>0.4%</td>
<td>1.10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Syria</td>
<td>2.3%</td>
<td>2.40%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tunisia</td>
<td>1.5%</td>
<td>1.40%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Authors (according to sources of statistical indicators of the chosen countries in References)

Analysis of total arrivals exclusively in hotels and similar accommodation capacities does not significantly change the position of Mediterranean competitive destinations. Namely in 1999 the largest market share of 27.4% was made by Spain, then Italy and then France as a consequence of a large share of complementary accommodation capacities in tourism supply. Croatia took the ninth position due to a large share of complementary capacities in total accommodation supply. When analysing the real market share indicator for 2004 and 2010 it is obvious that as far as total overnight stays in basic accommodation capacities are concerned the situation has not significantly changed in comparison with 1999. The final conclusion after analysis of real market share indicators is that in overall accommodation capacities Croatia does not represent a competitive destination to Spain and France. Real competitors are Turkey and Greece which confirms the first hypothesis. According to total realised overnight stays in basic accommodation capacities Croatia can
not compete with either Spain or France or Italy, and its serious competitors are Cyprus, Malta, Israel, Egypt and Morocco. The analysis of real market share indicators in complementary accommodation capacities indicates that Croatia has a better competitive position in relation to the basic accommodation capacities (hotels and similar accommodation capacities), but due to unavailability of data this indicator is not relevant.

Proportional share

According to proportional share indicator for 1999, 2004 and 2010 the leading position in total accommodation supply has France, Italy is second and Spain third. Croatia fell from fourth to sixth place in the monitored period with one percent smaller proportional share, while in other analysed countries the situation has not significantly changed.

Table 3: Proportional share at the Mediterranean tourism market

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Proportional market share</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Hotels</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>31.0%</td>
<td>33.00%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>23.0%</td>
<td>20.00%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>24.1%</td>
<td>26.00%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turkey</td>
<td>2.8%</td>
<td>3.30%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greece</td>
<td>5.1%</td>
<td>4.80%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cyprus</td>
<td>0.6%</td>
<td>0.59%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malta</td>
<td>0.3%</td>
<td>0.23%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slovenia</td>
<td>0.5%</td>
<td>0.39%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Albania</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0.04%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B&amp;H</td>
<td>0.1%</td>
<td>0.07%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Montenegro</td>
<td>0.3%</td>
<td>0.31%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Israel</td>
<td>0.9%</td>
<td>0.78%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Croatia</td>
<td>3.5%</td>
<td>3.06%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Algiers</td>
<td>0.5%</td>
<td>0.50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Egypt</td>
<td>2.1%</td>
<td>2.10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Libya</td>
<td>0.1%</td>
<td>0.07%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Morocco</td>
<td>0.7%</td>
<td>0.76%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Syria</td>
<td>2.8%</td>
<td>2.59%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tunisia</td>
<td>1.6%</td>
<td>1.41%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Authors (according to sources of statistical indicators of the chosen countries in References)

If proportional share indicator is observed solely for hotels and similar accommodation capacities the difference in relation to total capacities and the difference between 2010 and 1999 are clearly visible. In 2010 there was a decrease in proportional share of France for two percent, causing the fall from second to third position according to this indicator. Similar situation happened to Italy too, and Spain increased its share for 6 percent. Although the share was decreased for only one percent, Croatia fell to 11th position.

For a more detailed analysis of this indicator it was necessary to monitor the situation in relation to complementary accommodation capacities as well, at least for the countries that keep record of such data. The analysis included only the countries keeping record of complementary accommodation capacities. According to the data analysed France took the lead in 2010 with the share of 50.5%, and Croatia with the share of 3.1% took the fourth position.

According to the proportional share indicator in total accommodation capacities the leading Mediterranean countries are France, Italy and Spain, followed by the group of countries Turkey and Greece, and then the group in which Croatia is competitive, while the other countries have a proportional share below one. In complementary accommodation capacities Croatia has a proportional share of 3.1% which indicates unfavourable structure of accommodation capacities with the share of complementary capacities over 65%.
Penetration index and relative competitiveness coefficient

Penetration index measured for analysed Mediterranean countries according to total realised overnight stays in all accommodation capacities indicates that the real share of Spain and France of 4.6% is larger than the share attributed to them according to total capacities. While penetration index for Italy corresponds to its real market share for total capacities for Turkey, Malta and Cyprus the situation is somewhat different since penetration index is significantly larger that the real market share, which points to efficient utilisation of accommodation capacities while other destinations have weaker relations. The picture is significantly changed if only foreign overnight stays are analysed. Italy and France are not successful in the monitored period. Cyprus, Malta, Syria and Tunisia use their capacities over realistic possibilities in relation to their competition. France and Italy due to smaller share of foreign tourists do not sufficiently utilise their overall capacities. The problem of seasonality which is influenced by the climate makes the difference for all analysed countries. According to relative competitiveness coefficient in 2010 Croatia takes the sixth place in total arrivals in all accommodation capacities.

The penetration index and relative competitiveness coefficient largely depend on the structure of accommodation capacities and structure of visitors, consequently it is possible that global indicator as an indicator of utilisation of capacities in individual countries may be lower than when monitored at the level of individual types of accommodation.

Table 4: Index of penetration at the Mediterranean tourism market

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Index of penetration</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Hotels</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>102.6%</td>
<td>93.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>101.7%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>101.7%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turkey</td>
<td>132.1%</td>
<td>121.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greece</td>
<td>104.5%</td>
<td>112.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cyprus</td>
<td>233.8%</td>
<td>257.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malta</td>
<td>251.4%</td>
<td>306.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slovenia</td>
<td>111.0%</td>
<td>131.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Albania</td>
<td>4.6%</td>
<td>23.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B&amp;H</td>
<td>61.0%</td>
<td>79.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Montenegro</td>
<td>46.1%</td>
<td>68.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Israel</td>
<td>170.6%</td>
<td>115.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Croatia</td>
<td>42.4%</td>
<td>68.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Algiers</td>
<td>64.5%</td>
<td>95.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Egypt</td>
<td>39.0%</td>
<td>99.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Libya</td>
<td>12.3%</td>
<td>14.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Morocco</td>
<td>53.5%</td>
<td>144.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Syria</td>
<td>82.6%</td>
<td>92.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tunisia</td>
<td>93.5%</td>
<td>99.2%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Authors (according to sources of statistical indicators of the chosen countries in References)

Upon analysis of penetration index and relative competitiveness coefficient it may be concluded that Croatia is averagely successful destination according to total realised arrivals in all capacities in comparison to the monitored Mediterranean countries. The situation changes significantly if only international overnight stays are analysed. In that case the differences between Croatia and competitive countries are less significant since Croatia has much better results due to the large share of international overnight stays. According to penetration index coefficient of 237% recorded in total accommodation capacities Croatia takes the fourth position in international overnight stays while according to the same coefficient of 23% in realised domestic overnight stays in overall accommodation capacities Croatia takes the 14th position, which confirms the third backing hypothesis.
Table 5: Relative competitiveness coefficient at the Mediterranean tourism market

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Total Hotels</th>
<th>Relative competitiveness coefficient</th>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Total Hotels</th>
<th>Relative competitiveness coefficient</th>
<th>Rank</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>242.0%</td>
<td>137.89%</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>167.20%</td>
<td>151.37%</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>240.0%</td>
<td>146.79%</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>264.12%</td>
<td>154.66%</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>239.8%</td>
<td>146.79%</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>179.93%</td>
<td>116.59%</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turkey</td>
<td>311.7%</td>
<td>177.92%</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>218.43%</td>
<td>120.26%</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greece</td>
<td>246.6%</td>
<td>164.48%</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>136.59%</td>
<td>76.92%</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cyprus</td>
<td>551.5%</td>
<td>378.29%</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>299.36%</td>
<td>158.37%</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malta</td>
<td>593.1%</td>
<td>449.39%</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>301.27%</td>
<td>184.66%</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slovenia</td>
<td>261.9%</td>
<td>192.66%</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>204.38%</td>
<td>164.90%</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Albania</td>
<td>10.7%</td>
<td>34.03%</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>396.85%</td>
<td>142.34%</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B&amp;H</td>
<td>143.9%</td>
<td>116.31%</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>78.21%</td>
<td>53.61%</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Montenegro</td>
<td>108.8%</td>
<td>101.03%</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>49.61%</td>
<td>46.89%</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Israel</td>
<td>402.5%</td>
<td>170.15%</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>173.62%</td>
<td>127.21%</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Croatia</td>
<td>100.00%</td>
<td>100.00%</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>100.00%</td>
<td>100.00%</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Algiers</td>
<td>152.1%</td>
<td>140.21%</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>78.06%</td>
<td>56.96%</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Egypt</td>
<td>92.0%</td>
<td>146.09%</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>79.72%</td>
<td>58.61%</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Libya</td>
<td>29.0%</td>
<td>20.70%</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>14.88%</td>
<td>12.45%</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Morocco</td>
<td>126.3%</td>
<td>211.31%</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>175.08%</td>
<td>122.26%</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Syria</td>
<td>194.9%</td>
<td>136.12%</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>28.98%</td>
<td>19.33%</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tunisia</td>
<td>220.5%</td>
<td>145.63%</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>217.45%</td>
<td>157.99%</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Authors (according to sources of statistical indicators of the chosen countries in References)

Following data shown in Table 6 have been obtained by analysis of all market share indicators on the basis of mean values.

Table 6: Competitive index at the Mediterranean tourism market

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Authors (according to indicators of market share)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Score</td>
<td>FR 4.38 ES 3.63 IT 4.38 TR 5.38 EL 6.38 CY 6.75 MT 13.00 SI 17.38 AL 17.50 BH 13.00 MN 10.50 IL 7.75 HR 12.38 DZ 9.63 EG 18.00 LAU 11.88 MA 12.13 SY 11.50 TN</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rank</td>
<td>1 3 2 3 5 6 7 15 17 18 15 10 8 14 9 19 12 13 11</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Authors (according to market share)

According to market share indicators analysis Croatia takes the middle position at the Mediterranean tourism market. Although it offers similar tourism products as in competitor destinations it can by no means compete with the countries like Spain, France and Italy, however its realistic competitors are Turkey, Greece, Cyprus, Malta, Egypt and Israel. Nevertheless, other destinations like Slovenia, Montenegro, Morocco, Tunisia and Syria should not be neglected, since Croatia is their competitor too, which leads to the conclusion that in the struggle for the market and application of adequate development concept out of these nineteen destinations none has secured a firm market position. Among the most important factors influencing inadequate positioning of Croatia at the Mediterranean tourism market are certainly the non-differentiated tourism supply, lack of a defined development concept and monotonous offer beyond accommodation. Besides the mentioned, inadequate education of individuals directly or indirectly participating in tourism represents a huge problem as well as inadequate structure of accommodation facilities where complementary accommodation capacities dominate and the number of domestic tourists is rather small.
Conclusion

The existing situation with tourism development in the Mediterranean indicates that there are three regions in different stages of economic and tourism development. If the achieved degree of economic and tourism development is taken into consideration the comparative analysis shows that Mediterranean countries can be grouped into three groups regardless their geographic position. The first group of countries is the North-West region that according to indicators obtained encompasses the most developed countries as far as economy and tourism are concerned (France, Italy and Spain) with realised index of 1-5. The next group is the group of middle developed countries with the index 5-11 which includes the following countries: Cyprus, Greece, Israel, Malta, Turkey, Egypt and Croatia. The third group includes countries with the index 11-19 (Montenegro, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Albania, Slovenia, Algiers, Libya, Morocco, Syria and Tunisia).

According to the research the initially set hypothesis that Croatia occupies a middle position at the Mediterranean tourism market has been confirmed. This research has also confirmed that competitiveness is an extremely complex term which requires different approaches. The paper analysed competitiveness from the market share aspect, but necessity to implement other approaches based on other indicators must be pointed out as well.

Modern trends in development of tourism supply at the Mediterranean tourism market lead towards increasingly articulated need for implementation of adequate marketing strategy in tourism supply due to strong competition on all levels and due to increased individual character of travel. The success of carriers of tourism activities at the market in future will largely depend on a more intensive marketing of their supply and its proper strategy in the given environment. When finding a solution for the Croatian situation at the Mediterranean tourism market the development of tourism should be based primarily on sustainable development, in particular through development of special tourism products. Due to the change of competitiveness system at tourism market the marketing strategy of mass tourism is being replaced with the strategy of differentiation and implementation of targeted marketing based on location of the market segment that is strategically sustainable for a longer period of time and development of a product and marketing combination fully adapted to each market segment both at the international and national markets.

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SOURCES OF STATISTICAL INDICATORS OF THE CHOSEN COUNTRIES


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“Peer Group” Impact on Discursive Acts of Individuals

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Introduction

The speaker has his linguistic individuality even though he belongs to a defined band of speakers. However, this linguistic individuality is neither static nor unchangeable. In the opposite, as well as the language itself, he is in continuous development. The individual, in terms of a connoisseur and a user of this system modifies his linguistic behaviour in accordance with the pragmatic situations of the code realism.

In this paper we are going to concentrate on the impact that “The peer group” has on the discursive acts of the individual, while he is part of the group. When we are talking about a group we should mean the joining of individuals who regularly cooperate in a consistent and structured pattern and who share values and a sense of belonging to a group. According to the psychologists, the word group means more than a joining of individuals.

We have carried out numerous surveys, whose analysis has helped us to find the answer to many questions we have raised. By this paper we have focused on the Albanian reality. The numerous and uncontrolled demographic movements of the population within frontiers and abroad for the past 21 years, the low level of the use of standard language, the deepening of socio-economic and cultural differences among Albanian speakers, are the determining factors on the vernacular and situational stratifications, in which Albanian speakers of different age groups find themselves. We have focused on:

1. on the theoretical side of the problem
2. on the concrete overview of the situation by making surveys.
3. drawing of conclusions and making of suggestions

Never in the world could we find two individuals (whether they are brothers-twins) who have the same speaking (who speak alike). (Shkurtaj, 2003) Given this fact, we may say that everybody has something special, which distinguish him from others in the linguistic area, as well. Not only do people differ in appearance, on the anthropological side, but they also differ in their speaking. Nevertheless, we should admit the fact that however individualist the individual can be, he can't realize the communication alone. “To learn the language, to find himself in that outfit of collective expression, the individual needs to be part of a social group, within which he shows not only his individuality, but also his linguistic” solidarity”. (Shkurtaj, 2003, p. 78)

One individual speaker who belongs to a defined social community becomes part of a linguistic variation that this community uses. But, the individual gradually goes off this close social community and he has to face “others’ language”. The individual copes with a complex linguistic situation. By being part of different social groups, he becomes a conductor of the linguistic features of the group he takes part. Colloquial speaking is the best carrier of the slang, and it serves as a pattern for the child’s speaking. Furthermore, the social context is a very important factor on the linguistic acquisition. The non-verbal context of the adults’ speaking, the linguistic stimuli gained from his mother and the adults, motherese, the ratio between the adults ‘conversation and that of a child has its unchallenged place in the language acquisition. Awareness that the child is a profoundly social creature has considerably complicated the study of speaking development. A new-born is “a system that is organized, directed and stabilised and progressively modelled and which is gradually included in the cultural dimensions of its natural and human environment.” (Shkurtaj, 2004, p. 177)

How much can the group affect the linguistic formation of the individual?

Is there a relationship between the biological age of the individual and his linguistic changes that are influenced by the group?

The linguistic behaviour is a social behaviour and it always occurs, in a certain way, in sociologically defined linguistic actions. (Shkurtaj, 2003)
The method used for this study

The discourse acquisition includes an exchange of relations between linguistic systems and the world around us. We have studied the linguistic distinctions and differences among speakers, using as reference the region and the area where the speaker lives, the socio-economic conditions, the sex, the race and the age. According the theory of the individual’s actions, such factors affect people’s speaking only to the extent they represent social groups with whom the speakers identify themselves: in other words, not so much the familiarity with a specific variety of speaking than the will to be identified with the type of people who use it (Hudson, 2002). In regards with this issue, in a sociolinguistic perspective there are theoretical approaches and numerous surveys.

Meanwhile our study focuses on the relation between the biological age of the individual and the impact of the “peer group” on its linguistic performance, on the discursive acts. We tend to examine whether there is a connection between the biological age of the individual and the influence of the “peer group” on the individual during the discursive acts. For this purpose we have carried out research in several age groups.

During our work, we have taken into consideration the respect to some conditions:

1. Four groups were analyzed:
   - 3-5 years old
   - 10-12 years old
   - 15-17 years old
   - 40-45 years old

2. It was really important for us that all individuals included, the age groups included in this study should have approximately the same features: the economic level the family entourage, the address etc. The only distinction among group was the age. For all the groups, the survey had the same duration.

3. Individuals underwent the same linguistic experiments. Within each age group there were some minigroups having different sociolinguistic features in order to see more closely how the “peer group affects the individual who presents different characteristics”.

4. We have considered the process of speech development in three stages since even the psychology of age development deals with it: (Shashaj, 1996)
   a) words acquisition,
   b) pragmatic acquisition of grammatical structures,
   c) development of connected speech.

These stages can’t be seen separated from each-other, because during the process of linguistic acquisition by children there is an interweaving and combination of the three stages.

Survey results

This paper deals with the study of whether there is a connection between the biological age of the individual and the impact that might have the peer group on his speaking. Hence, the different surveys have been done on the basis of age groups.

First group (3-5 years old)

We closely attended 3-5 year-old children and we analysed parts of the groups belonging to the same socio-economic characteristics. It is the right age when children begin their relationship among friends of the same age, in other words, it is the age when these relationships begin to be shaped. We analysed the children ‘speaking. During this biological period, the individual is not influenced by the social entourage part of which he is. The children included in these surveys were in the kindergarten when being at the age of 3-5, they spend 30% of their time with each-other. During this period they are mostly carriers of familial speaking characteristics, since they spend most of their time with their family. The minute impact, hardly imperceptible of the group of this age on the linguistic aspect is related to the fact that children are still in the process of foreign language learning, are closely related to the family, and they consider themselves as a close part of it. We can say that the family is the essential influential and than in this period of the child’s growth television has a great impact on his speaking.
Second group (10-12 years old)

Parts of this group are children of 10-12 years old, pupils of the base education. It is the moment when the child becomes the discourse assignee, creates his linguistic individuality by showing even his exterior on it. In this age the complexity of social interactions increases, whereas the symbolic forms of communication begin to overcome the physical ones. From surveys, it resulted that the linguistic performance of the children has improved. This deals with the fact that the time they spend with each-other is longer than about 60%. The influence is more visible on the lexical area.

Third group (15-17 years old)

We surveyed 15-17 year-old teenagers. It was the group in which the social entourage impact on the linguistic performance was bigger than other age groups. This fact is related to the changes occurring at social and organisative level. The individuals of this age spend already more time with the group and pay more attention to it. Another factor is the increase of the ability to take responsibilities during the middle childhood and moreover, the group takes a great importance as a context for the peers interaction. The members of the group of this age have a sense of belonging (possession) and they see the group as a share of values, as a source of self-identification and evaluation. The psychologists explain quite well the relation between teens and “Peer group”. Through our paper, we emphasize the great influence on the linguistic aspect. The linguistic impacts are mostly on lexicon, but this does not mean that there are no impacts on syntax and morphology. The individuals of this age use their linguistic code which is rich in phrases borrowed on TV: different programmes and films phrases. We can also notice even the use of foreign words having an offensive, derisive and blasphemous hint.

Fourth group (40-45 years old)

This age group has shown a kind of “resistance” towards the impact of the group on the linguistic aspect. Surveys carried out have shown a sensible decrease of its influence. The response to this decrease can be found even in the brain, the way how it functions and the way how the zones related to the language are created and structured. The neurolinguistics assert that the opportunities to change linguistic patterns are smaller at this age.

The biological bases of the language

The biological growth of the individuals leads to a significant change of “the peer group” in its linguistic aspect. The trajectory recognizes increase and then decrease. Psychologists give their arguments, and if we see it from a psycholinguistic perspective, this change of the influence trajectory is related to the linguistic structures in the brain, which in a certain point of the biological growth are shaped and tend to change less.

The language is seen as “a general human quality, genetically defined, a component of the human mind”. All people have the same biological basis for language. They all inherit the genotype. There are universal man’s language features which the individual speaker is equipped with, despite the linguistic variation he uses. “Human beings genetically inherit a linguistic skill, which helps them to learn the language.” (Memushaj, 2003, p. 81)

According to researchers, the main functions of the language are performed on the brain, in perisylvian zone. The main functions of the language include:

1- The submission of words and sentences forms in quotations and the definition of their literal meaning.
2- The selection of structures and the creation of formal codes of lexical and morphological elements.

At present, discussions are going on about the way how these main processes of language are related to the close localization in the brain. A lot of experiments have been carried out in order to prove it. In this case, the zone of the experiment is narrowed in the region of Broke and in the region of Wernice so that we can notice how these zones affect the language functions, in linguistic understanding and generating. The stages the language process are related to the specific brain structures, which are implemented in specific areas of the cortex. This has been certified by the numerous studies and experiments performed for the past two centuries.

Chomsky categorically emphasizes that se: *speaking is pre-programmed and it is acquired as a result of maturity rather than learning.* (Chomsky, 2000, p. 107)

Based on the conviction according to which the discourse is creative and productive as well, Chomsky emphasizes that the most important linguistic processes require the active participation of the individual.
According to Chomsky, the individuals are born with linguistic skills and with particular linguistic premises, which enable them to learn how to speak. Even though it has been discussed for a long time about this linguistic and biological programming, the scientists have admitted Chomsky’s point of view on the complicated processes of the discourse teaching. He has explained the way a child learns how to speak, how to create and how to understand a sentence of a language. As a linguist, he has described the type of knowledge necessary for this purpose, knowledge which defined as a linguistic competence.

The discourse, according to Chomsky, is a set of rules, which the individual should find out, establishing then its rules, based on the hearing and analysis of conversations heard from others and in this case, peer group plays its role. The individual tries to verify these rules by reformulating sentences according to the elaborated models. The fact that individuals seek to find out the language rules, which they are learning, makes the discourse acquisition turn into a process of hypotheses verifications by them.

Chomsky considers as unique the operating processes during the discourse acquisition, in the sense that they can’t acquire some knowledge of the congenital nature of discourse. If the individual passes through the long path of possible hypotheses, the discourse acquisition is likely that it is neither too fast nor too inevitable, as it usually happens.

For years, George Ojemann has dealt with the brain study and the way how it functions. Part of his job was even the study of the relationship existing between brain and language. He combined the brain map of about 117 individuals whom he had been operating on for years. Only in one region did he find a spot where most people had a critical language area, or CLA, and “most” means 79 percent of the patients.

According to him, the brain structures related to the linguistic aspect are created early and remain stable. The individuals’ brain is simultaneously different and same. Never do two people store the same information in the same manner and at the same place (Medina, 2008). The neurological differences in people bring to the linguistic differences. Individuals are not passive creatures. They are active in their social entourage. The adaptation is a tendency of all organisms which adapt to the entourage and this is the same when it comes to language. According to Piaget, since his birth, the man seeks to adapt to the entourage. This adaptation occurs as a result of two other processes: assimilation through which we should understand the use of existing cognitive structures so that we could acquire new structures, thus, the adaptation of the new information to the existing schemes and accumulation. Accumulation means the change of the existing schemes (mental systems or categories of perception and experience) or the creation of new schemes in response to the new information. These adaptations are intellectual, physical and cognitive. To further these thoughts, Piaget emphasizes that the basic values of the cognitive and biological development are the same, therefore, knowledge, as a process in itself, should not be separated from other functions of the organism. (Piaget, 2004)

The individual, as a human being, comes to life and grows up among people. This close coexistence of the individual with his family, the society and the broad social entourage has a great impact on his linguistic education.

According to Chomsky, “In principle, the source of such knowledge can be found in the child’s entourage or the biologically defined skill of the brain/mind, particularly in that integral part of the brain, which we could call language skill; The interaction of these factors produces the system of knowledge used to speak and understand.” (Chomsky, 2008, p. 16)

Consequently, there are basically three factors to be taken into consideration:

- Genetically defined principles of language skills,
- Genetically defined gear of general learning,
- Linguistic experience of the individual who grows up in a speakers’ community.

The interactions of these factors lead to a knowledge system which is represented in the brain/mind as a mature state of the language skill. This system of knowledge gives rise to the interpretation of linguistic phrases.

Conclusions

According to the specialists, the problem of the peer group’s impact on the individual, in general, proves to be an issue called “dependence”. (Miller, 2007, p. 576) The level of the “peer group” impact on the individual is related to many factors. This impact directly varies depending on the biological age of the individuals reaching its peak at the age of adolescence and slowing down at the mature age of the individual. Furthermore, the level of impact is different in different individuals. The more the child grows up the more he spends time with his peers and relatively less time with adults, including parents as well. When being a teenager, for many reasons, the group gets a special value to the individual. The last one needs to feel part of the “peer group” and as a result, there is the impact on the discursive acts. The linguistic structures existing in the brain are not rigid; they keep shaping until the entire linguistic structuring.
The individual, as a human being, comes to life and grows up among people. This close coexistence of the individual with his family, the society and the broad social entourage has a great impact on his linguistic education.

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Case Study: Romania

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Abstract: Sanitation services still not fully cover the urban population and this leads to different types of pollution and affects the urban landscape. This paper aims a geographical approach by highlighting territorial disparities in the Romanian counties regarding the urban population access to waste collection services and to examine the environmental issues. Statistical database processed by ascending hierarchical cluster analysis are mapped at the level of Romanian counties achieving a spatial-temporal analysis for the period 2003-2008. The paper also discuss about the current dysfunctions existing in urban waste management from Romania. Development of was te management facilities are in the process of transition from a traditional system based only on landfilling towards an integrated waste management system which develops the recycling and recovery of waste generated. Romania as an EU member country must improve the quality of sanitation services. Each city must provide the full collection of municipal waste generated in order to eliminate the illegal dumping.

Keywords: waste management, sanitation services, urban population,territorial disparities

1. Introduction

Urban waste management is still a major environmental issue in developing countries (Kanat, 2010; Chen, 2010; Firdaus and Ahmad, 2010) and the limited access of urban population to sanitation services leads to illegal dumping of uncollected waste. In addition, the new Member States of the EU-27 do not have full coverage of population to waste collection services, especially in rural areas. Legislative changes due to adoption of the Eu acquis have direct implications on waste collection services from urban areas (Marques and Simoes, 2008; Ventosa 2008). National, regional and local authorities need to obey the new rules, to review and monitor the waste management plans. Private sector is increasingly involved in carrying out activities of collection, transportation and landfill of urban waste. Socioeconomic, demographic and geographic disparities at national, regional or local level are reflected in waste management systems adopted. Thus, there are differences in the efficiency of the instruments and policies adopted concerning waste collection services in different regions of Europe (Gellynck and Verhelst 2007; Dahlén 200, Manzzati and Roboli 2008, Mengozii 2010). Urban population from Romania is not fully covered by the public sanitation services as well as in most of the new EU-27 Member States. Because of this, illegal dumping of waste is occurring in the cities proximity. Full access of urban population to waste collection services is a basic condition in reducing urban pollution.

2. Materials and methods

This paper aims to analyze the disparities between Romanian counties concerning urban population access to sanitation services. First of all, it is performed a comparative analysis between the years 2003 (pre-accession) and 2008 (post-accession) on share of urban population without access to sanitation services. These data were processed and mapped using the color range (for percentage values) and circles proportional method (for absolute values – number of people). Absolute values are designed to complete and to help in more accurate interpretation of percentage values because of the demographic disparities existing between the Romanian counties. High share of urban population without access to sanitation services (or the large number of inhabitants) leads to illegal dumping of waste generated and
uncollected in urban areas. It performs an analysis of urban areas vulnerability to waste pollution. Furthermore, it can estimate the amounts of urban waste generated and uncollected at county level (Mihai et al., 2011). The differences existing between the years 2003 and 2008 are explained by the fact that since 2003 it has been introduced new methods for processing statistical data from waste operators. In this context, the relevant statistical data has improved from year to year, data from the 2008 being more reliable than 2003.

The first data come from the regional waste management plans developed in 2003 (pre-accession period), these plans being the basis of reference for developing the local waste management plans (county level). Also, these plans were reviewed during 2006-2008. On the other hand, it is noticed that in the period 2003-2006 several rural villages (lack of waste collection services) were declared cities shifting the share of urban population served by such services. Spatial-temporal analysis was based on data concerning the share of urban population served by sanitation services for Romanian counties in the period 2003-2008. These data were provided by the 8 Regional Environmental Protection Agencies and processed using multivariate analysis such as ascending hierarchical cluster analysis. Thus, counties were divided into 7 typological classes, and each class has been related to Romanian average. Classes profile is expressed in standard deviations being supplemented by charts that illustrate the multiannual average (arithmetic) of classes and the Romanian average, highlighting the territorial disparities between counties.

3. Results and discussions

The urban population without access to sanitation has the lowest values (<10%) in counties with a lower share of rural population (Tulcea, Brăila, Galați) or where urban population is concentrated in large cities of Romania from Constanța, Brașov and Timiș counties, sanitation services are extended reducing the illegal dumping.

In contrast, counties with a high share of urban population (20-40%) without access to sanitation services are the most vulnerable to waste pollution (Prahova, Suceava, Hunedoara, Buzău, Alba etc) (Fig. 1).

Furthermore, small and middle cities do not have regular waste collection services and disposal is done on dumpsites from proximity. In 2003, cities (over 100000 inhabitants) provided waste collection services on a regular schedule but with an old infrastructure. The largest amount of waste generated and collected from the population were disposed in non-compliant landfills and only certain streams of recyclable waste (metal, paper, cardboard and plastic) were valued by economic agents. Sanitation services and management of landfills belonged mostly to the local authorities, the private capital was poorly developed for collection, transport and landfill of household waste and only in the recycling process has outlined a certain economic market.
In 2008, one year after the accession of Romania in the EU, the regional disparities on access to sanitation services were pronounced. However, comparative analysis between the pre-accession period (2003) and the post-accession (2008) reflected some trends of urban population without access to sanitation services:

- Prahova county continues to have the most urban residents without access to sanitation services (128,063 inhabitants in 2008);
- In two counties, Vaslui and Buzău, the range of urban population without access to sanitation services is over 40% (41.1% - 75,120 inhabitants respectively 45.11% - 90,030 inhabitants) higher than in 2003;
- High growth of urban population unserved in Brăila from 5% (1,074 inhabitants) to 39.35% (93,100 inhabitants);
- Significant increases highlighted in Neamț, Călărași, Maramureș, Iași, Mureș and Vâlcea counties;
- Full coverage of sanitation services in Bucharest city, Ilfov and Gorj county;
- Significant decrease in urban population without access to sanitation services in Cluj county from 23.2% (105,204 inhabitants) in 2003 to 1% (4,626 inhabitants) in 2008;
- Descending trend (since 2003) for counties with a share less than 10%: Constanța, Tulcea, Dâmbovița counties.
- Minor changes compared to 2003 for Botoșani, Satu Mare, Bihor, and Harghita counties, suggesting that development of sanitation services in urban areas have been insignificant during the analyzed period.
Unlike 2003, along the adoption of the EU acquis which includes specific regulations for municipal waste streams (packaging waste, WEEE, ELV, batteries and accumulators, hospital waste, etc.) it has developed the private sector in waste management. Furthermore, in largest cities sanitation services are provided by several waste operators (public and/or private). Pre-accession PHARE and ISPA funds have led to the implementation of integrated solid waste management systems in cities (e.g. Piatra Neamț). At the end of the year 2008 in Romania were operating 20 sanitary landfills from 12 counties. The transition from the traditional system (based on mixed waste collection and often disposal in non-compliant landfills) to a system that stimulates the separate collection, recycling, waste recovery and ultimately disposal in sanitary landfills is a complex and difficult process in the context of partial access of urban population to sanitation services. Development and full coverage of population with such services is a key factor in improving the urban environment and quality of life. All open dumps inventoried by local authorities from small and middle cities should be closed and rehabilitated until July 16, 2009 as well as dumpsites from rural areas being subject to the same environmental obligations (Apostol and Mihai, 2011). Theoretically, following this date, local authorities are obliged to provide the collection of all urban waste generated. Closure of non-compliant dumpsites from small and middle cities leads to increased cost of waste collection services due to the transport to active urban landfills. Unfortunately, maps and field observations confirm that the issue of waste collection is far from being solved. However, local waste management plans provide the development of waste management systems to serve the rural and urban areas. In small and middle cities are built transfer stations that will serve rural areas from proximity. Separately collected waste will be composted or sorted and the rest which cannot be reused will be disposed in a sanitary landfill.
Romanian counties were divided into the following classes using ascending hierarchical cluster analysis on urban population access to sanitation services:

- Class 1 - includes counties close to the Romanian average concerning the share of urban population connected to sanitation services, values between 75-80% in the period 2003-2006 and a slight increase over general average by 2008;
- Class 2 - includes counties with high share of population served by waste collection services over the Romanian average highlighting a growing trend in 2007-2008. Cities from these counties are least vulnerable to illegal dumping, waste collection services was well developed on whole period considered. It is noticed that the share of urban population from these counties is significant (Constanța, Timiș, Galați, Tulcea);
- Class 3 - urban population of these counties has limited access to sanitation services being the most vulnerable to waste pollution. Sanitation services cover an average 60-65% of the population. Thus the generated and uncollected waste are inappropriate disposed. In the period 2004-2007, several rural localities (without sanitation services) have been declared cities, reducing the share of urban population for some counties such as Suceava. Because of lower standard of living and limited budget of local authorities, small cities cannot afford the full access of population to sanitation services or to sign contracts with private sector. Household waste are mixed collected by informal sector and disposed in open dumps located on the outskirts of cities or in nearby villages. Furthermore, in Vaslui and Vrancea counties the situation is critical because in 2008 waste collection services did not exist in rural territory (Apostol and Mihai, 2012). The urban population in these counties is the most exposed to illegal dumping, polluting the environment due to a rudimentary waste management infrastructure.

- Class 4 – this class has oscillating values with following trends: an increasing trend mainly in 2003-2005, followed by a suddenly decrease in 2007 and another increasing trend in 2008. The quality of data reported by sanitation operators to Environmental Protection Agencies is questionable; the values for the last few years are more reliable. In this context, values of 55-65% in 2007-2008 for Neamţ, Maramureş and Teleorman counties are much lower than 2003 and also lower than counties from class 3, revealing an inadequate waste management such as open dumping. Also, the situation is more critical in Teleorman county due to the lack of waste collection services from rural territory in 2008, taking into account that fact rural population is larger than urban (Apostol and Mihai, 2012). However, inside the counties there are disparities between the larger cities (often county capitals) and middle or small cities. Since 2007, an integrated solid waste management system was implemented through ISPA funds in Piatra Neamţ city (from Neamţ County) corresponding to EU standards. This system includes separate collection of waste (paper, cardboard, plastic, biodegradable and residual) sorting and composting plant, crushing plant for construction and demolition waste, sanitary landfill. In 2007, in the same county, 20 km away from Piatra Neamţ city, Roznov city had no access to sanitation services, waste generated being uncontrolled disposed in open dumps or on Bistriţa river bank. These local disparities are common between major cities and middle or small ones.

- Class 5 - The share of urban population with access to waste collection services had a continuous descending trend from high values in 2003-2005 (over 90%) to below values (75%) in 2007-2008. This decrease may be explained due to improvement of quality data reported by waste operators and because of the new methodology adopted on waste statistics. This class includes counties with a significant share of urban population such as Braşov and Brăila. Also, there are major differences concerning waste management between county capitals and small cities (e.g. Braşov–Rupea). The urban areas are prone to illegal dumping.

- Class 6 – high share of urban population served by sanitation services, above the Romanian average, in the period 2004-2008, with maximum value in 2005 (95%) followed by a slight decrease in 2008 (87%). In this class belong Cluj and Iaşi counties whose capitals (Iaşi and Cluj-Napoca) are implementing an integrated urban solid waste management system in accordance to EU acquis.

- Class 7 - includes 3 counties (Mehedinţi, Dolj and Satu Mare) the share of urban population access to sanitation services is lower than the Romanian average for the entire period analyzed, gradual decreasing in 2003 to 2006, (from 78.5% in 2003 to 66.38% in 2006), these decreases being recovered during the last two years (2007-2008).

4. Conclusion

Spatial-temporal evolution of sanitation services is not positive and linear, on the contrary, has many oscillations. Data on urban population access to sanitation services are more reliable in the past three years (2006-2008) due to improved methods of waste statistics. These overestimated data are explained by the significant declines in some counties in the period 2003-2005. In the period 2004-2007 several rural localities (without sanitation services) have been declared cities, which has led to decreasing share of urban population served by sanitation services (Suceava, Piatra Neamţ). However, there are major disparities in the urban population access to sanitation services in the Romanian counties. Larger cities of Romania (Iaşi, Cluj, Constanţa, Timişoara) influences positively the share of urban population with access to sanitation services for the counties they belong (Iaşi, Cluj, Constanţa, Timiş). Urban territories of counties from following classes 1, 3, 4, 7 (26 out of 41 counties) are most vulnerable to illegal dumping, the extension of sanitation services being absolutely necessary. In 2008 along Bucharest (capital city), only in 2 counties (Ilfov and Gorj) urban population were fully covered with sanitation services and in 11 counties the access to sanitation services was below 10%. The situation from 2008 highlights the fact that waste collection services from urban areas is still an unsolved issue. Household waste generated and uncollected are often uncontrolled disposed in open dumps on the outskirts of cities or working-class
districts. Furthermore, small and middle cities still have a rudimentary waste management system. Implementation of integrated solid waste management systems for each county will lead to an extension of sanitation services in urban and rural areas.

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References


