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MIGRATORY RATIONALE OF INTER-REGIONAL FLOWS SLOVAK NATIONALS IN THE CZECH LABOR MARKET

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Abstract

Gender differentiated data indicates that there is a significant gap between respondents pre and post migration. Variation in responses to a survey conducted among Slovak migrants working in the Czech Republic demonstrates that a persistent wage gap exists between genders. Individuals reflect on their decision to make a move utilizing non-traditional explanations leading the researchers to define this flow as a mixed flow involving lifestyle migration which has as secondary effect of improving the economic situation of individuals perceive a lack of opportunity in source regions.

Keywords: Migration, gender, rationale, mobility, highly educated, Czech Republic

Introduction

Authors analyzing the migratory experience of Slovak citizens moving into the Czech Republic and have found that neither economic differences nor differing unemployment rates in the two countries play a great role in influencing migratory trends. (Strielkowski 2007, Brücker and Schröder 2007/27) Strielkowski has shown that levels of migration do not exceed 2% between the two countries even though there are significant differences in income between the two countries and limited administrative and linguistic burdens to deter would-be migrants. (2007) If Strielkowski's findings are accurate the question that then arises is, if indeed the majority do not choose to migrate regionally, then how and why do those few who do make a migratory decision come to this decision.

The intention of the original research project was to determine the migratory intentions and experience of highly educated Slovak nationals in order to elucidate their rationale for making a migratory decision. The survey itself was comprised of a variety of questions related to: migratory experience, success, individual behaviour as well as basic demographic data related to sex, region of origin, educational achievement, data related to salary, region of origin, and location of current residence in the Czech Republic. Additional questions related to 'experience', 'perception', 'satisfaction' and remittance behaviour were also asked. The projects outcomes were compared to previous surveys conducted by researchers in similar contexts in order to ensure comparability and also in order to confirm the findings. (Baláž and Williams 2004, Drbohlav 1994, IOMa 2004)

This paper will present gender differentiated data collected during the course of a survey conducted in the Czech Republic in summer of 2012. During the course of the original analysis several interesting variations in responses provided by individuals of differing genders came to the attention of the researchers.

In order to provide context for the reader there are approximately 84,380 Slovak citizens (target population) living in the Czech Republic, 37,792 (47% of the total) of whom

reside in the capital region. In total, however, 149,140 individuals living in the Czech Republic claim to be of Slovak ethnicity. (Czech Statistical Office 2012)

Survey Design and Implementation

The survey was originally disseminated directly to Slovak nationals and acquaintances whom were known to the researchers via social media and email in the form of a 'link' to an online digital survey. This 'snowball' sample led to the accumulation of approximately fifty individual respondents. To increase the sample size the researchers opted to post the survey to a publicly available internet forum. The intentions of the survey and a link to the electronic survey were posted on a website used extensively by Slovak nationals in the greater Prague Region.¹ Via this online platform nearly 200 additional respondents participated in the survey. Within our sample of 222 respondents, 155 were deemed valid as they fit the criteria of being highly educated having been awarded a title of Ba, Ma, PhD or equivalent. (ISCED 4 or above)²

Limitations

The survey was intended to be completed by a random sample of individuals living in the Czech Republic, however, the data shows that the majority of respondents (95%) currently reside in the Prague Capital Region and close surroundings. This geographic concentration is partly due to the large number of respondents sourced via a popular social media website (somvprahe) and partly due to the fact that 18.4% of the population of Prague and the surrounding region is composed of foreigners. While the data set is somewhat biased in terms of regional sampling and cannot be fully representative the authors assume to have a substantial sub-sample of the Slovak population living in the Czech Republic.

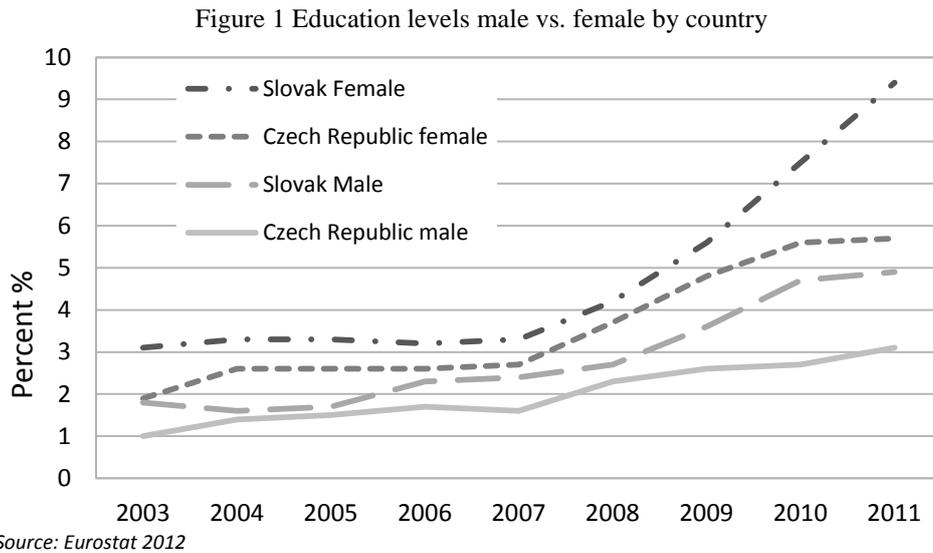
Understanding that the sample is non-representative the data indicates that the respondents are relatively representative of the source population; demographically, regionally, and with a wide range of individuals coming from different socioeconomic backgrounds. While it is clear that a wider sampling from other destination regions would improve the quality of the data online distribution has resulted in a balanced convenience sample.

Results

The majority of respondents live in the Czech Capital and surrounding region (95% of respondents) with others being scattered across the country. The gender balance of respondents is balanced and is nearly the same as that of the general population, 52% female and 48% male within our sample compared with 50.9% female 49.1% male in the general populace. (Czech Statistical Office 2012) Even though the original research design targeted highly educated individuals the voluntary survey was distributed online, thus the majority of respondents (77%) hold higher level degrees, 18% have completed basic secondary education and 2% indicate that they hold another qualification. (i.e. apprenticeship)

¹ <http://www.somvprahe.sk> – (I'm in prague.sk) A member's only website which claims to have more than seventeen thousand members – This website is commonly used for networking, information gathering and ride sharing and is used primarily by the Slovak community in the Prague region.

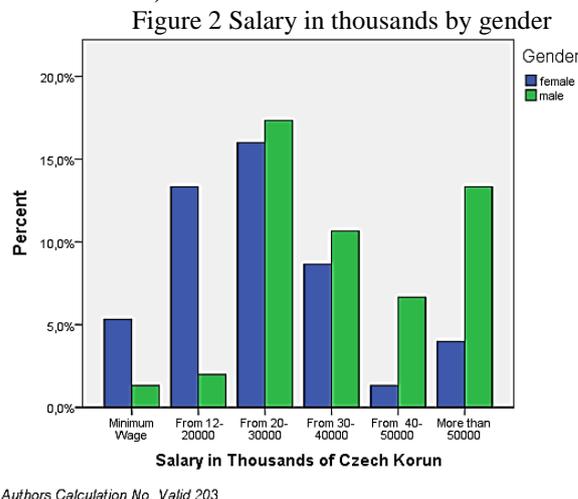
² ISCED – the International Standard Classification of Education



Considering the rapid increase in attainment of higher levels education in Slovakia (Figure 1) it is unsurprising that our data shows roughly twice as many respondents have received their highest level degree from their home country of Slovakia when compared to those having received their highest qualification from the Czech Republic. (77%) Of some surprise to the researchers was the fact that males respondents were more likely have obtained a degree from the Slovak Republic (70%) while female respondents were relatively less likely to have a degree from home (53%) as opposed to the Czech Republic (47%).

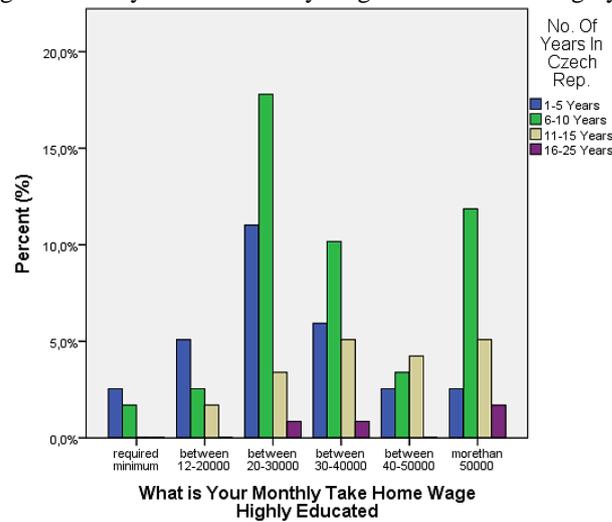
Salary Gap

Once data was differentiated according to gender a clear difference in salary levels was exposed which is not affected by to length of residence. Figure 2 shows the gap in salary levels by gender. Although possible explanations for existing differences in salary are outside of the scope of this research, it is clear that the salary gap which is demonstrated within our data replicates that within the labour market. According to Eurostat the Czech Republic exhibits the highest pay gap within the European Union. The private sector and public sector exhibit a pay gap of 26% and 22% (respectively) while the “highest pay gap within the financial and insurance sector [in all of the European Union] was recorded in the Czech Republic (45%)” (Eurostat 2013)



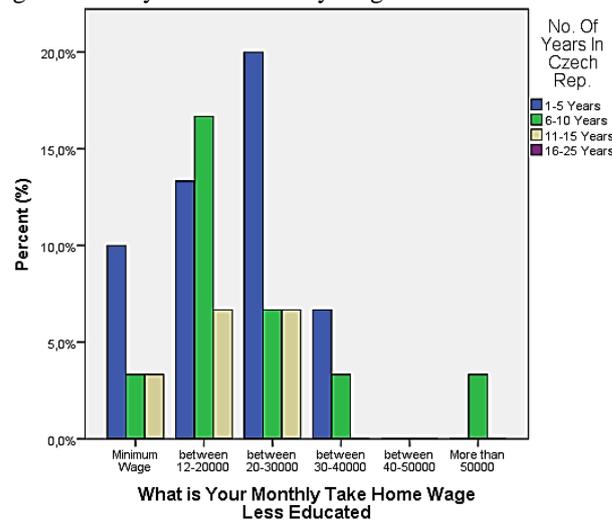
Data presented in Figure 2 Salary in thousands by gender shows that significantly more males than females earn over fifty thousand Kč (roughly two thousand Euro). The majority of female respondents indicated that they make close to or slightly more than the Czech average. (between 20-30 thousand Kč)³ Figure 3 Salary in thousands by length of residence clearly shows that long term migrants earn above average salaries, an expected response from ‘successful’ migrants. There is clearly a connection between educational level and earnings potential, with those who lack higher level education being less likely to increase their earning potential over time. Figure 4 provides as comparison with Figure 3 Salary in thousands by length of residence and indicates that the lower educated population is likely to remain in low-end employment with reduced potential for enhancement in terms of earnings. Figure 3 Salary in thousands by length of residence is indicative of the fact that education combined with experience tends to lead to higher earning potential in the long run.

Figure 3 Salary in thousands by length of residence- Highly Educated



Authors Calculation No. Valid 203

Figure 4 Salary in thousands by length of residence- Less Educated



Authors Calculation No. Valid 203

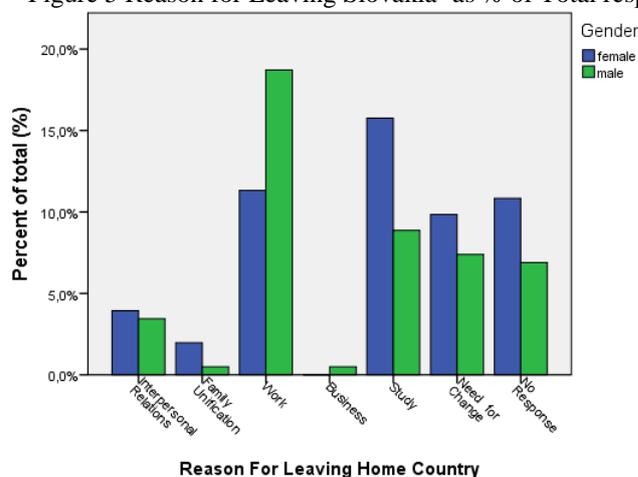
³ Prague residents earn the highest average wage of 31,845 Kč gross. Even if the Czech Average is 24,436Kč (Czech Statistical Office)

Reported Rationale

When discussing factors which lead to a migratory decision there was significant divergence in the percentage of respondents who claimed to have moved for purposes of 'work' or study. (see Figure 5) The higher percentage of females who claim to have come in order to study compliments our previous discussion related to the divergence in educational attainment by country and gender, where women were more likely than males to have a degree from the Czech Republic. Figure 5 demonstrates that significantly more females than males indicated that they came to the Czech Republic in order to study. Our findings are corroborated by a similar survey undertaken by the European Commission in 2010 which found that "a quarter of respondents moved in order to study." (European Commission 2010, 5)

It is clear from our data that a large number of those who moved in order to study have stayed on and have become gainfully employed in the Czech Republic with more than half of all respondents who being employed in the Czech Republic. Additionally, 28 percent of respondents indicated that they moved in order to seek out 'change' or for 'interpersonal reasons', nearly as many as claimed to have moved for work. (38%) Our results show that although individuals may not always perceive their rationale for migration in terms of employment it is clearly one outcome. This is perhaps due to the relative myopic view taken by younger migrants, who focus on the current task at hand (education) and ignore the long term implications of their migration decision or see it as beneficial to remain in the country. It should be noted that many Slovak nationals do not perceive their move to the Czech Republic as 'real migration' which stems from a history relationship and common citizenship the two nations once shared.

Figure 5 Reason for Leaving Slovakia- as % of Total respondents



Authors Calculation. No. valid 203

Reported Intentions and Experience

Women were somewhat more likely than males to indicate that they 'intend to stay' in the Czech Republic for less than 5 years. It is clear that a majority of respondents intend to stay indefinitely, with more than 30 percent of individuals indicating that they intend to stay for an 'unlimited' amount of time, 'more than 5 years' or 'forever'. Clearly a majority intend to settle in the Czech Republic. It is also apparent in the data that those who are better established (having been in the country 5 years or more) are far more likely to indicate that they plan to stay for the long term than those who are recent arrivals. This may be connected to the relative large cohort of students and recent graduates in the sample. In addition those who are 'settled' will have established business and personal contacts/networks and are more likely to have invested into property which could have the potential to reduce their mobility.

One question asked respondents to indicate how 'prepared' they were upon arrival after migrating. Far more women indicated that they were 'unprepared on arrival for their first day'. The variation indicates that either women are more likely to migrate with little preparation or that more women felt uneasy with the radical change in their life situation. The variance in responses may also be a result of the difference in data quality provided by female respondents in comparison to males as female respondents invested far more time in providing detailed explanations when asked for additional information in contrast to men who were curt in their responses.

In order to better understand individual's level of preparation for migration the authors asked about respondents first day(s) upon arrival in the Czech Republic and whether or not they were aware of what was required of them administratively. Slovak nationals are required to report their residence to local authorities; however the process is not nearly as onerous for Slovak nationals as other foreigners due to bilateral agreements which have been in place between the two countries since the 1990's.

The majority had some idea of what was required of them; such as registration with the Police and registration at the employment office (several of the requirements that Slovaks must undertake to ensure health coverage, pension insurance and the like). However, a quarter of respondents (25%) complained that there was insufficient practical information available to them. Much in line with surveys conducted under the auspices of the European Commission (2010) the authors have found that respondents believe that the bureaucratic requirements are 'problematic' (34%) for new arrivals. These responses were unsurprising to the authors considering that many foreigners claim to have negative experiences when dealing with the Czech bureaucratic offices.

While several respondents indicated that they had no trouble in settling in the Czech Republic 11% indicate that they have experienced some form of discrimination in the Czech Republic. Often in the form of condescension from locals, apparent incompetence or unwillingness of bureaucrats to aid newcomers in registration and also what has been described as the 'remoteness' of people in the Czech Republic. When asked 'Do you think that officials in the Czech Republic are well trained in dealing with foreigners?' only 40% of people agreed. Female respondents were 10% more likely to respond negatively to such a question. This finding is much in line with the European Commission's report on Cross-border Mobility which found that a common issue individuals encountered in dealings with administrative offices was a lack of knowledge on the part of officials about the rights individuals have as EU nationals. (2010, 24)

Employment Status

In terms of employment differences between the gender groups' males are somewhat more likely to be self-employed. (5% percent male in comparison to 1% female self-employment) Unemployment is relatively minimal for both groups, which may indicate poor sampling of the target population or self-selection of migrants through time, with unsuccessful migrants returning home. Data indicates that women are significantly more likely than men to return home is they find themselves unemployed for more than 6 months. (28% vs. 18%) Males may be less likely or less willing to 'give up' in the face of unemployment or may be unwilling to risk unemployment at home. Anecdotal evidence suggests that high unemployment in an individual's region of origin is considered a significant barrier to return.

Conclusion

In order to better understand the rationale of individuals who have made the decision to migrate across borders the authors sought out respondents from the Slovak community in

the Czech Republic. Individual rationales were recorded through the use of a survey questionnaire which was distributed through personal contacts and an online forum. Rationale was anticipated to be quite clear given the vast differences in regional unemployment across the source region in question. However, even though employment was a significant factor leading to migratory decisions, it was not the only significant rationale indicated by respondents. Individual rationale was often ambivalent with individuals claiming to have moved in order to study or for personal reasons such as 'a need for change' the long term result of making a move is employment in the local market.

The rich detail of responses allowed the authors to demonstrate that individual rationale often exhibits variation within groups. In the case of this study individuals have easily been grouped according to those who came for 'work' (38%), to 'study' (28%) or in order to seek out 'change' or for 'interpersonal reasons' (28%). Men were far more likely to indicate they moved in order to 'work' while women were more likely to have moved in order to seek 'change' or for personal reasons or in order to study. Something confirmed by the relatively high number of women who completed their education within the Czech system.

Data indicates that women are generally reimbursed at a level lower than their male colleagues for similar work. An unfortunate, yet entrenched systemic inequality. In addition the authors have found female respondents to be more likely to share their negative experiences when dealing with bureaucratic institutions. Female respondents were also more willing to return home if unsuccessful in terms of finding employment or when losing employment.

When discussing the permanence of migration less than 12% of respondents indicated that they plan to stay in the Czech Republic for less than 5 years. The majority indicate an intention to stay for the long term. This may be connected with the general lack of opportunities in their region of origin, the relative proximity to family who have remained in Slovakia, or indeed due to the fact that a large percentage of individuals have left small or mid-sized towns in order to move to the capital region of the Czech Republic- rural-urban migration within the regional migratory system. Previously internal migration has, as a result of the fissure of Czechoslovakia, become international. This political division is not demonstrated by individuals who do not perceive their action as classical 'migration' but to quote one respondent it is simply 'moving to Prague'.

This survey has emphasised the gendered aspect of the Slovak-Czech Migratory system and demonstrated that determine individual rationale for migratory decision making varies according to gender. The authors have not analyzed push factors or limitations which prevent migration as the scope of the original survey was focused on the lived experience of migrants, although we recognize that only a small percentage of potential migrants ever make the journey. Future work will aim to clarify and contrast the experience of these 'nearly invisible' Slovak migrant in the Czech Republic with more visible migrants who are a part of the regional migration system.

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RELIGIOUS RECTITUDE: THE BEDROCK OF SOCIO-POLITICAL LAWS

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Abstract

Society is characterized by certain attributes that define its political and social conditions. 'The State' is essentially run by legal and political values that have more or less remained constant through the passage of time by virtue of the yardstick of 'right' and 'wrong'. What this paper essentially does is to understand the philosophy of the entire jurisprudence and evolution of law which tells us what is right or wrong with respect to the absolutely unchanging philosophy that we have passed from generation to generation i.e. the teachings of any Religious Virtues /God. The analysis of this link throws great light on the evolution of our socio-political system. To understand the essence of the theory many parallels have been drawn, one important one being the 'Social Contract Theory' and its evolution from the theory of man's natural submission to a higher power called God thus answering the question of great philosophical depth that is what is the philosophical origin of the 'Social Contract Theory'?

The idea itself, thus aims to understand the depths of how any socio-political system is ever infused with the ideals of God and in light of the given theories the paper thus concludes on the note that contrary to popular belief law and morality do not emerge due to the dynamic nature of society but are rather a strict set of guidelines that are misinterpreted narrowly which can be corrected when we trace back to the source of morality, which in my opinion, I believe we call, God.

Introduction

Universilising the definition of 'god' Irrespective of whether we are believers or agnostics, whether we believe in God or Karma, everyone can pursue moral ethics.⁴

To understand law in its essentiality, there a need for universalizing the definition of God. Higher theology and religion sciences prove that all Gods are but one. Jesus, the image of Christianity is explained as the 'son' of God to the people. However, according to Christian theology, God has an all knowing intelligence. His perfect intelligence was crafted into another form, the form of Jesus who is thus the self-utterance of God.⁵ Thus for the purposes of simpler understanding of the common man He was called the 'son' of God as any son is the self-utterance of his father.

Shiva, God of the Hindu mythology is associated with the sound of Ohm. However Ohm itself is the resonating sound of the universe associated also with Buddha and many other Gods⁶. Thus theology perpetually proves that there is but one truth and one God but his followers, many and of different forms.

⁴ An Open Heart: Practicing Compassion in Everyday Life, His holiness, The Dalai Lama,

⁵ Readings in St. John's Gospel, Archbishop William Temple (1881 – 1944)

⁶ Religion and Politics in Comparative Perspective: The One, the Few, and the many, edited by Ted G. Jelen, Clyde Wilcox, pg.284

Now having proved the ‘universality’ of the definition of God, its relation with law is attempted to be explained alongside which its impact on morality too has been discussed.

Creation of the legal fictional entity for socio-political peace

Zeus, the Greek mythological God was noted to have seen man struggle. Struggle with the complexities of daily life. Man was but an animal to each other because the natural law infused in them was rooted in the principle of survival of the fittest. “Thus law is said to be his gift to the mankind he so truly cared for.”⁷

The job of law is not an easy one. Bentham states that the job of law is to secure rights and believed in the greatest happiness of the greatest number.⁸ Spencer was of the opinion that law aims to promote freedom. Cicero believed that law aims to render people their dues.⁹ Aristotle held that law only aims for proper distribution of resources and correction if any man tries to take more, to thereby abide by the *sum cuique*¹⁰ principle. but at its root level what does law do?

The philosophy highlighted is a rather simple one. A ‘good life’ was the chief goal of any ‘political organization’ after all.¹¹ Man is a social animal. His social instincts make him trust and interact with others like him. From there arises a deep self-centered insecurity of never wanting to be wronged. This is where law steps in. Law makes sure that the trust one man imposes on another is honored by the other and if wronged, law aims to uphold this trust.

This law need not arise from a very formal source. The need for ‘Order’ is infused in man.

It has been observed, for example, that prisoners of war will rapidly establish certain rules of conduct to govern life in camps all by themselves without any initiation or intervention by any administration¹². Thus man needs ‘order’ as recourse and such a security is only provided by a third entity called ‘law’.

To explain, let’s take a common example. If a man owns something he does not want to be in justly deprived of it and if deprived he wants a recourse which will enable him to get it back. Law provides this recourse. The said man thus enjoys his ownership even more, knowing that he has recourse if he is in justly deprived. Thus this recourse makes him content which is essentially what law does. It is a sense of security given to people by the creation of a third entity whose principles everyone must abide by. ‘Each should be zealous so to preserve himself that society among me be not disturbed.’¹³ Thus wronged people rely on the principles of this third entity to provide them recourse because even the wrong doer like the victim must abide by the principles of the third entity.

Main body

Ripples leading to the social contract

Having established this basic philosophy of law let us now understand why the element of God is so important in this perspective. From the above stated ideologies it is easy to infer that the job of law at its most basic level is to keep people happy by offering a remedy i.e. to keep them content by making them believe in the powers of a third entity that is binding on all. As stated above, “wronged people rely on the principles of this third entity

⁷ Jurisprudence, Edgar Bodenheimer pg. 4

⁸ A Fragment of Government, ed. F.C Montague (Oxford 1891), pg. 93

⁹ De Finibus Bonorum et Malorum, transl. H. Racham (Leob Classical Library ed., 1951), Bk. V .xxiii. 65-67.

¹⁰ The Latin term ‘*sum cuique*’ means ‘to everyone his dues.’

¹¹ The Philosophy of Law in Historical Perspective, Ernest Backer, pg. 19-26

¹² De Obster Grundatze des Rechts (Heidelberg, 1947), p. 19

¹³ Elementa jurisprudeniae, transl. W.A.Oldfather, Bk. II, observ. Iv, 4.

to provide them recourse because even the wrong doer like the victim must abide by the principles of the third entity.” Now the question that arises is that does this philosophy state that before there was law man was chaotic, selfish, violent and lived in a self - centered world?¹⁴ The cynical would say that man still does and the truth is that at the brink of the evolution of man, yes, man did only think about himself. This thinking is however very destructive for the ends of progress and progress is impossible if man is infused with the animal instincts of survival. Thus the third entity before law that gave man a recourse thereby making him content and stopping him from committing a wrong was the belief of a God.

Irrespective of whether it was the Sun God of the Egyptians or the Myans, or the Rain God of the early Indians etc. the institution of God had already started setting the standards for mankind to follow. Moral standards which paved the way for moral thinking and for the first time people gave up their instinct of survival of the fittest and became united to be bound and answerable to one common entity.

The first time a similar philosophy was captured was under The Social Contract theory¹⁵. This theory essentially states that man eventually realizes that there is an inbuilt desire in him to socialize with others and that no man can live in isolation. Thus they submit all their rights to an institution called the government to be answerable perpetually to them.¹⁶ “Humans must either give themselves in or live like the wildest of the wildest beasts living in isolation and feeding only his needs.”

Locke

The theory was reflected in the English Revolution¹⁷, the French Revolution¹⁸ and the American Declaration of Independence¹⁹.

Hobbes, John Locke and Jean-Jacques Rousseau are the best known proponents of this enormously influential theory, which has been one of the most dominant theories within moral and political theory throughout the history of the modern West.

This is indeed a very dynamic theory however while drawing a parallel with the entire concept of God and the ‘Social Contract Theory’ there is one major aspect that must be appreciated. Social contract theory expresses two fundamental ideas to which the human mind always clings the value of liberty; the idea that “will” and not “force” is the basis of government; and the value of justice or the idea that “right” and not “might” is the basis of all political society and of every system of political order.²⁰ There is no dispute behind the fact that the definition could be stretched to encompass the powers of the pharaoh and his council, the powers of a king with his ministers etc. as the agency of power to which people gave up

¹⁴ Elements of Law, Thomas Hobbes, pt. I, ch. xiv. 6-11

¹⁵ BARKER, E, (1960) Social Contract Essays by Locke, Hume, and Rousseau; Oxford University Press; USA; p. viii

¹⁶ ibid

¹⁷ The English Revolution also called the Puritan Revolution, general designation for the period in English history from 1640 to 1660. It began with the calling of the Long Parliament by King Charles I and proceeded through two civil wars, the trial and execution of the king, the republican experiments of Oliver Cromwell, and, ultimately, the restoration of King Charles II.

¹⁸ The French Revolution, major transformation of the society and political system of France, lasting from 1789 to 1799. During the course of the Revolution, France was temporarily transformed from an absolute monarchy, where the king monopolized power, to a republic of theoretically free and equal citizens.

¹⁹ Declaration of Independence, document in American history used by the 13 British North American colonies to Proclaim their independence from Great Britain. The Declaration of Independence was adopted in final form on July 4, 1776. It can be divided into three parts: a statement of principle concerning the rights of man and the legitimacy of revolution, a list of specific grievances against England’s King George III, and a formal claim of independence

²⁰ BURKE, E (1971) “State Formation and Social Contract Theory: Rwenzuru and the Southern Sudan”; A Paper Delivered to the African Studies Association Conference; Denver;; p.8

their individual liberties to in the ancient times as the political system of the time abide by the parameters of the 'Social Contract Theory'. However we give up our individual liberties today to the government because they are the people representing our voice. We give them the power to decide right and wrong for us and govern us because they function for the people, by the people and with the people. However, by virtue of the above parameters there is no reason why the people of the Egyptian civilization or earlier monarchial times give in their individual liberties into the hands kings or pharaohs. People gave themselves into the hands of the pharaohs and kings because they were said to represent God on earth and it was that institution of belief that was the entity that bound everyone together. People refrained from indulging in their violent natural instincts as the victim always knew that he would have recourse against the wrong doer because the king would enforce principle and ideals of morality, based on teachings of God and this had a deterrent effect on the wrong doer too.

So the philosophies of the social contract and God essentially amount to the same and at its root, both are integrated with each other. The institution of the moral belief gave rise to the institution of law. What is right by the teaching of God is right in society and what is not is thus, wrong. Most of the ideals of God and law can be drawn to another parallel which revolves around the Hindu concept of Karma (Pali kamma) which essentially states that actions produce appropriate results²¹. One is rewarded for their good deed and punished for the bad ones. Law is just a complex version of Karma. Law goes into the reason as to why one should be punished for their bad deeds which could be for State Welfare purposes or a factor of Police functions to stop others from doing so, to set an example for others etc. However both law and the institution of God i.e. teachings of morality provide the same recourse with an aim to make people content.

Recognition of right or wrong

Once, during a retreat conducted by Zen Master Bankei, where many students from all over gathered to learn, one of them was caught stealing red-handed. The matter was promptly reported to Bankei, followed by the request to expel the thief. However, Bankei ignored the suggestion. A while later, the same student was again caught stealing. To the shock of the others, Bankei continued to disregard the crime. This led the students to petition for his dismissal, without which they would leave the retreat.

After reading the petition, Bankei calmly addressed his students. 'You are wise brothers. You know what is right and what is not right. You may go somewhere else to study if you wish, but this poor brother does not even know right from wrong. Who will teach him if I do not? I am going to keep him here even if all the rest of you leave.' Upon hearing that, the thief wept in total remorse.²²

Even though the line of thought is strongly based on the foundation stone of religious morality, one cannot deny that morals are essentially constant in nature. As proved above, the definition of 'right' or 'wrong' is rather stringent and is passed down from generation to generation in the name of God with the view of achieving political peace and greater social efficiency. However one cannot argue the proposition that the current trend society is following in this modern age is very different. Morality has different interpretations and different meanings. What is right for one may not be right for all and vice versa. Thus, it is exactly due to this, one must resort back to the stronghold of religious virtues and morals and adjust standards of morality accordingly.

"Our first moral duty is to do right and avoid wrong. We must do no wrong even if by doing wrong one can reduce suffering and increase happiness. Therefore, the concept

²¹ Karma: An Anthropological Inquiry, edited by Charles F. Keyes, E. Valentine Daniel, pg. 236

²² Speech: Zen Flesh Zen Bones, by Paul Reps

morality is more important than the concept of 'individualism. Individualism is often seen as a rather selfish doctrine allowing individuals to disregard the interests of others.²³ Thus, what must be noted is that the entire concept of theological reasoning and religious rectitude is built around the concept of 'right' and 'wrong' while stressing greatly on societal morality and less on the concept of 'individualisms'. Therefore no matter which era we stand in, to seek the knowledge of right or wrong and what is moral and what is not, one needs to revert back to religious rectitude and its moral teachings. For years this has always been the yardstick to seek the light on the subject of what is truly moral or not as will always continue provided that we as a society with the evolution of time interpret such teachings correctly.

Conclusion

Once we recognise 'right' from 'wrong' we immediately recognize what morality is and thus to make this distinction we must look into the teachings of higher theology and religion sciences that deal greatly with such societal moral problems and give us our code of conduct. Having proved how the social contract itself has a philosophical origin in the bed rock of religion, one can confidently say that even today law is infused with such fundamentals. However today more than ever, to achieve socio-political peace and to define morality and social ethics, one needs to look into the depth of how our religion sciences have governed us for all this time and implement it.

Religion Rectitude has always proved to be the greatest guide in law making. The entire source of how usages are given legal force and accepted as customs are mainly because usages themselves arise from society solely and largely based on religious practises.

Therefore, even though the entire essence of the social contract and most other laws have risen from the ideas of religious virtues, we as a society seem to be forgetting to acknowledge such sources today and are moving further into atheist and anti-religious ideas. While respecting such choices one must always keep in mind that the evolution of society was led by religious rectitude and our forefathers made it a point to pass it on from generation to generation so as to guide us into moral thinking. Accepting the fact that such guidelines may not be absolute, one must always keep in mind that forces of such powerful nature have always moulded the socio-political nature and will continue to do so and it is our job as members of a responsible 'state' to interpret and implement such virtues correctly into our laws and law making process thus truly acknowledging this bed rock of socio-political peace.

²³ Right and Wrong, By Charles Fried, pg.2.

ALBANIA'S RURAL SECTOR: ANALYSIS OF INSTITUTIONAL CHANGES, EVOLUTION, CHARACTERISTICS AND CHALLENGES

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Abstract

This article resumes existing theories for institutional changes in order to develop and to design the evolution, characteristics, and challenges of Albania rural sector. The current figures notes that agriculture accounts: 17% of gross domestic product (GDP), economic growth for agriculture 8% while the average growth of the sector during the period 2005 – 2010 has been 4%. The rural families not continue to dominate the national economy. According Albanian CENSUS 2011, for the first time, the population living in urban areas, 53.5%, has exceeded the population living in rural areas, 46.5%.

In spite of the fact that emigration and urbanization brought a structural shift away from agriculture and toward industry and service, Albanian rural sector is the most important alternative of work for rural population. This sector employs almost half of the labour force, but is dominated by small family farms and local producers with low incomes. Besides, 40% of agro-industrial enterprises are in food processing sector. Many problems of sector are evident: legal transformation, restructuring of agricultural production, new orientation of agricultural market, ownership and financial support. The objective of this article is to analyse the problems and the perspectives from transition period to integration's target in EU of Albanian rural sector in the focus of institutional changes. Besides significant transformations, the analyse show that evolution of rural institutional changes in Albania continue to be a complex process and with different characteristics in time. The article recommends institutional strengthens in order to open new opportunities in rural areas respecting approaches of sustainable development, environment and standards imposed by the European Union (EU).

Keywords: Institutional change, rural sector, food processing, financial support, sustainable development

Introduction

Institutional changes have attracted a particular attention for rural sector not for the developed countries but also for the emergent. During the transition processes institutional changes were the basis of the multiples transformations. The overview of the literature and the theory evolution help us to understand better and to compare what has happened during the transformation of emergent countries, what results are concretized and what needs are in force immediately analyzing the case of Albanian rural sector. The transition process had start with standards recommendations from international organizations, some specific characteristics of countries have forgotten, but currently the principal responsibility had shifted inside of the country, because the institutions are more consolidated.

The institutional change is an important key for the future Albanian rural development in general, but this process continues to be complex and difficult. In fact, the socio-economic development experience of the country during the years of transition (shifting from the

communist regime to market economy) has noted significant changes. Albania has generally been able to maintain positive growth rates and financial stability, despite the ongoing economic crisis²⁴. But, despite some improvements in the economic performance Albania remains one of the poorest countries in Europe with GDP per capita at 3,894 American dollars²⁵. There is a lot of inequality in the national distribution of incomes, and many social and economic problems. The current figures notes that agriculture accounts: 17% of GDP, small family farms and local producers with low incomes, 40% of agro-industrial enterprises are in food processing sector. Legal transformation, restructuring of agricultural production, new orientation of agricultural market, ownership and financial support are the most significant problem to find solution.

The article focused on the questions: What problems and perspectives from transition period to integration's target in EU for Albania rural sector in the focus of institutional framework? What target for the future integration on EU, particularly about the respect of standards imposed by the EU?

The structure article summarizes firstly the reference literature about institutional concept, institutional changes and main pillars for institutional change in rural sector. Secondary, analyse of the institutional changes of Albania's rural sector represents evolutions, problems and challenges in the future. The case study based on Agriculture and Rural Development Agency (ARDA) know as Paying Agency, illustrate the first institution that started the activity in Albania with the objective the financial support for farmers. ARDA case evident that institutional strengthens is necessary to open new opportunities in Albania rural areas respecting approaches of sustainable development, environment and standards imposed by the EU.

Theoretical background of institutional definitions and institutional changes

Institutions are a historical product of the actions and interactions of individuals and organizations. It must be emphasized that institutions became main concept of a new economical branch, actually known as "New institutional economy". Based on neoclassic economy principles, it is positioned in two axes: transaction costs and ownership rights.

The institution term definition has a large description on the literature. We can observe strict definition focused only on the organisation or specific regulation. The intermediate level consists on the definition of the institutions according to the property rights protection, equitable implementation of the laws and rules and for corruption. The large definition has made by North (1990). Its theory of institutions and institutional change is one of the few theories of institutional change which contains a multitude of aspect.

Institutions are defined as determination of norms and rules. North (1991) defines institutions as "human conditions that structure politic, economic and social interactions. They consist of informal conditions (sanctions, taboos, habits, traditions and behaviour codes) and of formal rules (constitutional, laws, ownership rights)". A constraint on one person is opportunity for another. He distinguishes two kinds of institutions namely, formal institutions like as laws, administrative regulations, political and economic rules, court decisions and informal institutions, like as conventions and code of behaviour or like as ideology, custom, and standard operating procedures. As such like, they create a structure of an economy motivation. On a dynamic viewpoint, institutions form also a structure of motivation of a society, so even of political and economic institutions that determine optimum economical result. So, institutions build up the permanent structure of human interaction.

²⁴ <http://data.worldbank.org/country/albania>

²⁵ <http://www.gfmag.com/gdp-data-country-reports/333-albania-gdp-country-report>

For others authors, institutions are defined as community of behaviour rules that determine relationships between human beings helping the last ones to predict what will the others do like. Institutions are considered as conditions community and on this sense they impose rules, which are applied on members of an organization. They distinguish institutional arrangements, which are a rules community that direct behaviours on a specific field from institutional structure, which represent the community of institutional rules of an economy, implying also respective organisms.

Based on some institutions examples as markets, ownership rights, land, insurance agreements, different exchange systems based on contracts, rules or other social norms, etc., we can conclude that institutions should be analyzed on a three dimensional plane where are involved legislation, organization and culture. This last one is a community of values and norms, which are regulators of economical development. Economic culture involve economical ideology (community of theories, opinions, ideas, economical symbols, ect), economical psychology (community of values, motivations, attitude and direct emotions to economical activities) and informal rules (community of all canonic, habitual rules, not formally based).

Moreover, in the transition and emergent countries the economic culture is related also with the civil culture in general. So, is much important the new individual attitudes towards political, administrative, and economic structures or in other words towards liberal values of democracy, new law of market economy, the relationship with the government and so one, differently context by the socialist culture before the transition process. The great role of economical culture is argued referring by imitated reasoning of economical agents.

The literature presents also three new institutionalism paradigms. First paradigm or rational choice institutionalisms define institutions as a strategic equilibrium. By strategic equilibrium they mean a situation where no persons would unilaterally choose to alter their current behavior given the available alternatives and given their expectations about how others might respond if they began to behave different. Other rational choice institutionalisms view institutions as sets of formal and informal rules and the monitoring and sanctioning mechanisms that cause actors to comply with these rules according to North. Second paradigm or organizational institutionalism recognizes that institutions include formal rule, many of them see institutions as informal, common, and taken-for-granted cultural frameworks, scripts, and cognitive schema. Third paradigm or, historical institutionalism considered institutions as well as the formal and informal rules and procedures that structure conduct. The institutions are considered the foundation of social life. A complex phenomenon puts in relationship the individuals, entrepreneurships, associations and the state. In this interaction the institutions reflect the economic, social and politic evolution of the society. The specifics and the individualities of institutions are different from a country for other one. There are determinate as well as powerful external forces that help determine how people make sense of their world and act in it. But the institutions need also to be respected, because the lack of stable institutions is the basis for the chaos. In the framework of a sustainable development and the globalization process the focus for institutional reinforcement take a particular attention as well as the process of institutional changes. Studies of the institutional changes demonstrate an interdisciplinary logic based on specificity of governance, environment and transaction cost. The recent economics studies defend the hypothesis that the institutional changes are the vital tools for the development and economics growths. It is confirm that institution' qualitative influence on three dimensions of economics results: development level, growth and instability' growth. But to find institutions that can achieve a particular economic performance, it is useful to understand the sources of human interdependence (Schmid, 2005). Institutions define the opportunity sets of interdependent transacting parties.

Many authors are focused on institutional evolution. According to March (1994) and Olsen (1994) "...in the struggle to survive, institutions transform themselves...Its change as an individual learn the culture (or fail to), forgot (parts of) it, revolt against it, modify or reinterpret it". But there conceptions are a little bit confuses, and taking its interpretation on the postmodern conditions (Bogasan, 2000). According Bogason, are precised two news determinations as well as "actor-in-structure" and "actor-cum-structure". The first concept has found in the more traditional individualistic approaches or "within institutional constraints" and the other one has found in the recent new individualism based on individualism or "with the constraints and the resources that are institutionally determined". The institutional arrangement determined by the allocation of involved actors, the decision-making process and the correlation between specific decision situation.

The institutional change is a process that takes time and the question is if this process persist the some goal. Consequently, the goals must be stable to guaranty the path oriented. On the other hand in the contemporary society, the individual interests are converted to collective decisions through bargaining, coalition formation, exchange, and the exercise of power (March, Olsen, 1989).

One of the older kinds of institutions is the institution of property that means ownership and control of assets. The literature presents a large analysis of this argument from Smith (1776) with the celebre book "The Wealth of Nations" and its interpretation of the relationship between freedom and property, to more contemporary authors as Coase (1937) with the focus on "Nature of the Firm", Demsets (1967) with "Toward a Theory of Property Rights". Furthermore, the formal or informal rules according the access and the use of tangible or intangible assets are related with the firm. In the others words the firm is defined by property rights considerations – particularly in the role that equity capital plays in guaranteeing the actions of asset owners operating within the confines of the firm. In general the institutional changes aim to improve the property rights. For this a particular role has the government to perform the laws of the property rights. The following four postulates according to Anderson and Mc Chesney (2003) can help us to know and explain better the concept of property right and the evaluation of the changes of this institution in time and in the condition of a particular case.

Postulate 1: Individual chooses under conditions of scarcity; no one has as much of the world's riches as he would like.

Postulate 2: Individuals act rationally to pursue their self-interest by continually adjusting to the incremental (marginal) benefits and incremental (marginal) costs of their actions.

Postulate 3: Scarcity and rational behaviour result in competition for resources, and societal rules govern this competition proceeds.

Postulate 4: Given individual rationality and self-interest, a system of well-specified and transferable property rights encourages positive-sum games with mutual gains from trade.

The institutions changes and consolidated some times in radical manner. On the other hand, the sudden weakening of old political constitutions, property rights, law enforcement, and other institutions generated tremendous confusion as these countries began to move toward capitalism and democracy. New institutions were an urgent at the beginning of transition process for the post-communist countries, many changes has happened, but the institutional changes continue to be in force for different argument. The new regional and globalization environment is evident particularly in rural sector.

An innovator view of institution changes theory is given by Ruttan and Hayami (1984). The article published by them on "The Journal of Development Studies" dedicated to

institutional innovation show that changes of monetary and technical fonts stimulate changes of ownership rights and development of non-market institutions.

Outcomes of institutional changes - Case of Albanian' rural sector

Principal pillars of rural institutional changes are property rights, incentive, rural market, rural finance, and contracting, insurance and rural innovation. Other ingredients are organization, routine, convention and habitus. But some determinant institutional changes are linking with State strategies. All changes tend to be path-dependent processes and for this argument needs to coordinate actions making by different actors.

The lessons from overview of theoretical literature for institutional changes of rural sector and the statistical data collected are the solid basis to analyze the framework of institutional changes for Albanian rural sector in this section.

The evolution of rural institutional changes in Albania continue to be a complex phenomenon and with different characteristics in time. We can distinguish four principal periods:

First, heritage of agricultural development postwar (1944 – 1990): Albanian rural sector has been possible only because of the vast mobilization of resources. In 1950, the total area of agricultural land was 391,000 hectares, and on this land 281,000 persons were employed. The sector has been characterized by decreasing returns to scale, which, on average, was equal to 0.804. Albanian rural sector has failed to realize the fundamental benefit of central planning: increasing returns to scale due to the presence of large scale farms generated through land collectivization. The problems included significant diseconomies of scale, labor-using technical change, a continuous slowdown in land and labor productivity, and very slow rates of total factor productivity growth. The issues of centralized model with state enterprise and cooperatives were arguments of big collapse and cumulative impacts continue to be present in the mentality of rural producers: they not accept yet term “cooperative “!

Second, the total collapse and the start of market economy after 1991: there were about 550 agricultural co-operatives and state farms until 1990 managing all the agricultural land (about 700,000ha) of the country. The application of free market reform in rural sector was very severe: all cooperative and enterprises have had destroyed.

Third, some result of hard transition process of rural sector. During last two decades a new rural sector is created in Albanian case. This fact is related with application of multidimensional restructuring. The current figures notes that agriculture accounts: 17% of gross domestic product (GDP), economic growth for agriculture 8% while the average growth of the sector during the period 2005 – 2010 has been 4%. The rural families not continue to dominate the national economy. According Albanian CENSUS 2011, for the first time, the population living in urban areas, 53.5%, has exceeded the population living in rural areas, 46.5%.²⁶ Agriculture remains a priority of Albanian economy. Local production of all categories in 2011 was 2.3 million tonnes with a value of EUR 995.6 million (ALL 140 bln). Agriculture employed 42% of employed population in 2011, 59% of agricultural workers with average age of 38; 55% of food processing workers are male with average age of 32. There is 85% year-round employment in food processing and only 65% in agriculture²⁷.

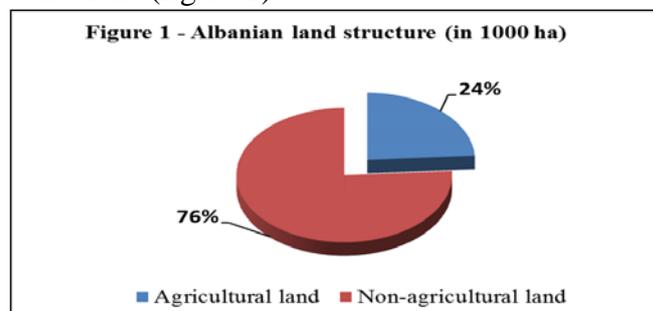
Weight of agriculture has been reduced considerably because of several factors, including land reforms and migration. The balance of reform application result by the creation of new laws and institutions evident currently a total land privatized, but many land superficies are abounded by high percentage of migration inside and outside the country,

²⁶ According the statistic data Albanian population was 53% in rural zone and 47% in urban zone in 2001.

²⁷ Euromonitor_SIPPO_Workshop_Tirana_12_2012.

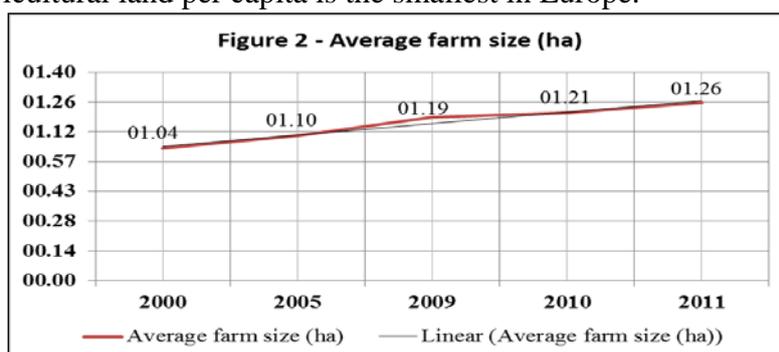
conservation of rural tradition and culture, but weak market mechanism and weak financial support, domination of subsistence farming and poor rural infrastructure, lacks of modern technology, low FDI or inexistent in rural areas, lacks of legal rules to respect contracts and regional or global influence.

Albanian land structure composes by 24 % agricultural land and 76 % forestry, meadow, pasture and other land (figure 1).



Source : INSTAT and MAFCP, 2012

Accordinging the privatization policy about 450,000 farm families have profited averaging 1,3 hectares (Ha) agrarian land per farm or 0,25 Ha per person making 1.8 million parcels. During the transition process still now farms continue to be very small (figure 2). The average agricultural land per capita is the smallest in Europe.



Source : INSTAT and MAFCP, 2012

Domination of small farms has had characterized by self-subsistence. In general, their little market surplus is used on informal channels. The table 1 below shows the dimation of current farms (INSTAT, 2012). The most of total farms, 40% have 1.1 – 2.0 Ha and, only 14% have more than 2.1 Ha. This is a hard consequence of land fragmentarization during the privatisation process.

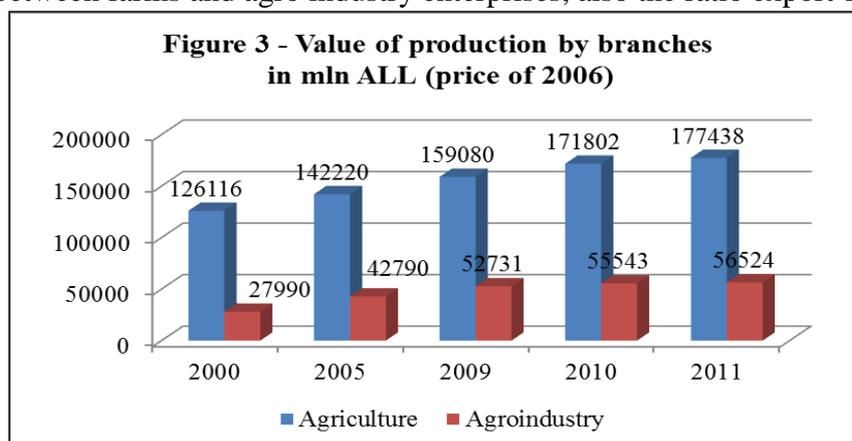
One significant change is creation of new type of farm business. 96.7% of current farms are farms with sales, but small family farms and local producers with low incomes are domined. During 2012, are dominated farms with field crops 36%, farms with livestok 31%, orcharding 17%, farms with fallow land 10% and only 6% were farms with crop without livestock.

Table 1 –Farms' size

Ha	Farms with crops and livestock	Farms with crops without livestock	Farms with field Crops	Orcharding	Fallow land	Total farms
0.1 - 0.5	20%	20%	20%	8%	6%	20%
0.6 - 1.0	25%	27%	25%	26%	22%	26%
1.1 - 2.0	41%	40%	41%	48%	53%	40%
2.1 +	14%	13%	14%	18%	19%	14%

Source: INSTAT, 2012 and author calculation.

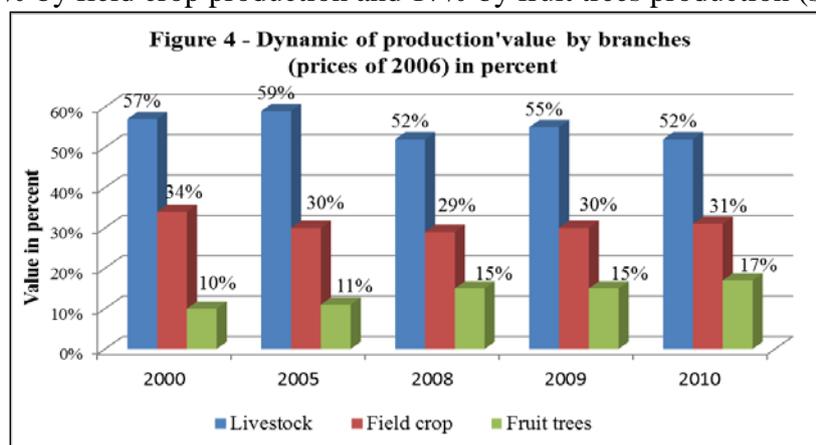
An important component is the development of agro-industry and food processor enterprises. Their numbers is stabilized with a positive trend of growth (figure 3) making the double contributes of value of product from year 2000 to year 2011. It should be noted that food industry has achieved marked and sustainable development in recent year with a private investment policy in equipment and technology. Besides, the average production volume of Albanian farmers is low and this influence in agroprocessing sector. The lack of economies of scale is a factor that needs to overcome in order to growth the level of production and relationship between farms and agro industry enterprises, also the ratio export-import.



Source : MAFCP, Albanian Agriculture, 2012.

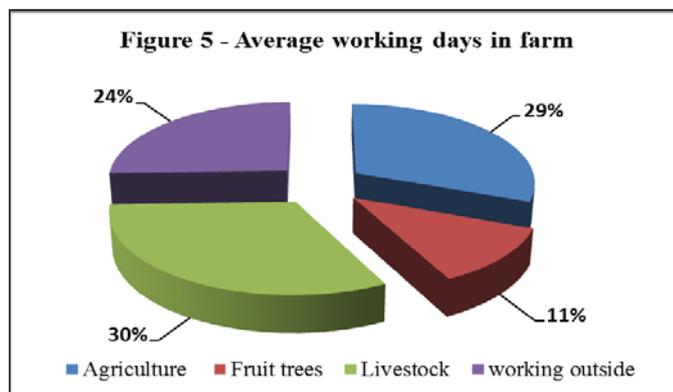
Structure of planting shows domination of forage 52%, cereals 34%, 9% vegetables and potatoes and others 5% (INSTAT, 2013). Besides, the greenhouse areas continue to growth in more productive rural area by the initiatives of new entrepreneurship and the implementation of new technologies.

In term of dynamic of production' value by branches are domined 52% by livestock production, 31% by field crop production and 17% by fruit trees production (see figure 4).



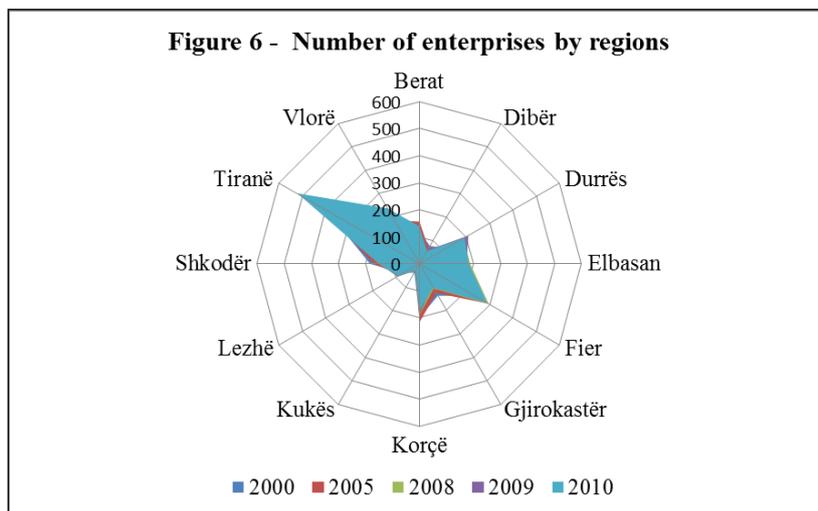
Source : INSTAT and MAFCP, 2012.

On the other hand, the working days in farms has the structure following 29 % agriculture, 30% livestock, 24% working outside, 11 % fruit trees (see figure 5).



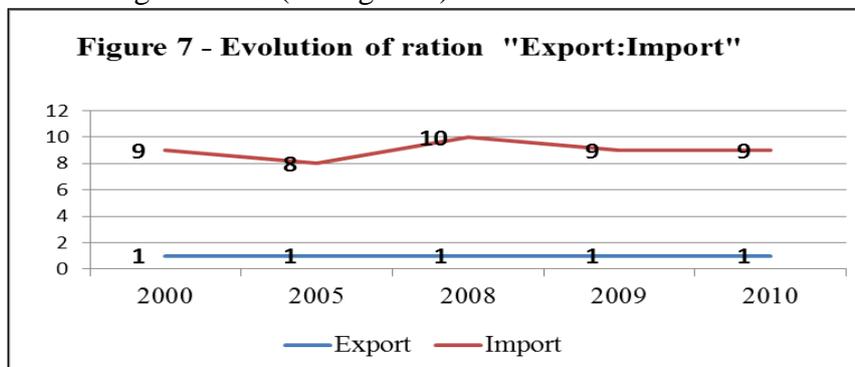
Source : INSTAT and MAFCP, 2012.

In term of agroindustry branche, must outline that all most of food and agro-industrial enterprises are developed in urban area and in a few cities (Tirana, Durres, Fier, etc.) where a high percent of financial and human capital is concentrated (see figure 6). This phenomenon is related with hight migration from rural areas to Tirana and other principales cities and the most concentrated of capital and investments. Some challenges of this sector are involve on box 1.



Source : MAFCP, Statstical Yearbook, 2012.

Albania runs a large deficit in agricultural trade. Ration export - import of agricultural and food products is negative: 1:9 (see figure 7).



Source : MAFCP, Statstical Yearbook, 2012.

The most important export markets are Italy, Kosovo, Greece and Germany – in high correlation with the number of ethnic Albanians. The weak trading position reflects a number

of specific problems, including the lack of organization of export traders, a poor condition of the market chain and problems with the assurance of quality and safety standards. Free trade agreements (within the region and with the EU), encourage agricultural imports, but also offer possibilities for exports. But for some agricultural products trade with the EU will only be possible if food safety is secured, on the other hand not all agrarian products are in a situation to fulfil the EU requirements.

Box. 1 Albanian key agro-industry challenges

I - Fresh fruits and vegetables

Overall strengthening and development of the agro sector
Economies of scale is missing
Fragmented markets- need for consolidation
Crop specialization is too fragmented
Drastically increasing costs
Trust among farmers

II - Natural ingredients

Quality of production needs improvement
Missing economies of scales
Quantity required by traditional/well established markets is a challenge
Vertical integration is required
Natural ingredients to be further processed locally

III - Processed products

Limited local supply of raw materials
Limited number of local producers
Branding and marketing is required
States support and protection against import required

Source: Euromonitor_SIPPO_Workshop_Tirana_12_2012.

Forth, Albanian integration perspective in EU: In national level the institutional changes needs to respect the Rural Development Strategy 2007 – 2013 and the new law “For Agriculture and rural development” (2008). Some steps of integration process that are realised like negotiation with EU for Stabilization and Association Agreement SAA (January, 2003), assignation of SAA (February, 2006), entered into force The Interim Agreement IA (December 2006), acceptable for Instrument for Pre-Accession Assistance IPA. Since 2009, the responsibility and attention of institutional change with impact in rural sector are evaluated in the framework of the demand to be a Candidate Country of EU²⁸. In this perspective the challenges are important.

What problems and challenges exist in the institutional framework for Albanian rural sector for the future integration perspective?

Despite significant institutional changes in rural sector, a sustainable and efficient development have not created in Albanian rural sector. Besides structural and strategic reform and applications of national and international programmes, high rate of inequality exist in regional level and many social, economic and agri-environmental problems are present. Some remarks about problems and challenges are following:

Restructuration of agricultural production, needs for new orientation of agricultural market. Agricultural market remains oriented to auto consumption and trade is

²⁸ A decision on making Albania a candidate is expected to be made at the European Council in December 2013, see: http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Accession_of_Albania_to_the_European_Union

underdeveloped. High prices of inputs and disorganized and inefficient systems of production and delivery have relevant cost for producers.

The development of the system of wholesale markets and retailed markets, information system for agriculture markets, education and extension continue to be weak. It is underway the work to overcome the problems regarding the certification of our new agro-processing industry with ISO and HACCP standards. Real challenges are measures to growth the domestic production taking more attention for local production particularly in sector like olives production, vegetables, fruits trees, the needs to create and adopt new concepts of agro-industry production systems and new channels for agro-production's markets. The value chain work (will require building linkages to enable the replacement of imported products with locally-produced ones needs to developed. Besides, to face trading barriers respecting the requirements of international standards quality a particular attention must to be investment policy. The situation of food enterprises is far to comply with EU food safety standards, but exist an innovation potential for this kind of enterprise, consequently the education and training for capital human is immediate, also encourage of innovative process. All actors involved in agricultural markets are presented in schema following (Scheme 1).

Albanian agriculture markets "need some more specific institutions than most non-agricultural product and input markets. On the output side of agriculture, price formation may be a problem if market information is not available or costly to collect and if some organisations, e.g. wholesale markets, are not existent. The organisation of farms may be a problem if they use their resources inefficiently, partly due to small farm sizes and fragmentation, but also because of lack of know-how, lack of market integration due to high transaction costs and high uncertainty".²⁹

Scheme 1



Source: Modernisation of the Agricultural and Food Sector and its approximation to the EU, FIA, 2006.

Legal transformation and uncertainties regarding land ownership. The right to property is legally guaranteed but remains ill defined due to incomplete land registration. This leads to frequent disputes and constitutes a serious impediment to the creation a functioning property market - including a land market – which, in turn, discourages investment and holds back the development of rural sector. Agricultural lands remained unused in spite of very small average farm size and land ownership. Furthermore, significant steps are made in the approximation of national legislation with the EU Acquis communautaire.

²⁹ See: Modernisation of the Agricultural and Food Sector and its approximation to the EU, Albania, published by: FIA, Deutsche Gesellschaft für Technische Zusammenarbeit (GTZ), Eschborn, 2006.

Irrigation, energy, environment and technology. Partial rehabilitation of the irrigation and drainage system and high cost of full process, high cost of agricultural machinery and electricity and the other uncertain energy sources must have more attention particularly by local government. The level of technologies is low, many farmers come back by emigration make a lot of efforts to invest their accumulated capitals abroad, but much time is not sufficient. On the other hand, information and know-how is not support to much by research and development.

Hidden information, underdeveloped of associated and contractual relationship continues to have negative influence at decision making process of farmers and food producers. Lack of co-operatives and underdeveloped vertical integration create unsecure markets for the long term. However, these kinds of limitations are conditioned by cultural and traditional heredity of socialist co-operative. "The situation of the producer associations is somewhat special, producers remember well the collectivization period and try to avoid any cooperation, even if they are aware that they cannot be successful individually. The members work together only occasionally, they lack trust of each other, and the organisational framework is really very basic. Costs and benefits are not always evident for the individual members,"³⁰. But, on the other hand, some positive steps in cooperation between farmers are stimulated by foreign grant from international projects³¹.

A lack of capitalization of sector related tax system. The law of rural fiscality exist, but it is not applied. This incomplet mechanism dont allow to applicate full market principes. Furthermore, the legal rules are not complet related with bankruptcy mechanism for insolvent farms.

Finance sources and rural fiscality. The changes of credit policy reflect that bank credits are an important financial support (only 50%) for the agro-industrial enterprises and public support is inexistent or very few (1 percent).

But the level of rural credit for farmers continued to be no significant. Recently, only ProCredit Bank³² has created a component project to finance individuals and business with incomes from farming, agriculture, orchards, fruits, vineyards, poultry, agricultural mechanics, agricultural business, agricultural processors and agricultural storage providers. This bank offers also for the first time during the year 2013 a new product as well as loans to finance energy efficiency in agriculture. On the other hand exist a land tax, but its collection is very low or inexistent in many regions and without effect in front of land abandoned. The expansion of microcredit schemes and non-bank institutions is another useful development with the concrete issues for Albanian rural sector having a priority to montanes areas and to small farms.

³⁰ See: Modernisation of the Agricultural and Food Sector and its approximation to the EU, Albania, published by: FIA, Deutsche Gesellschaft für Technische Zusammenarbeit (GTZ), Eschborn, 2006

³¹ Triomphe Bernard, Wongtschowski Mariana, Krone Anton, Lugg David, Veldhuizen Laurens van, Providing Farmers with Direct Access to Innovation Funds, Agricultural innovation systems : an investment sourcebook: "A local farmer association asked for a competitive grant to build a small onion storage facility to lengthen the marketing period and obtain higher prices during the off-season. During the grant period, the association increased from 7 to 32 members, each with about 0.15 hectares of onions and total production of around 350 tons per year, and signed a contract with a trader in Tirana to purchase the onions. Around 37 tons could be stored at a time, with further investments planned to increase storage capacity and to purchase a vehicle for distributing the produce. Other activities included purchase of a sprayer and irrigation pump for use by members and drying onion seed for planting. During the grant period, dissemination included two workshops, five training days, three publications, and a local TV broadcast focusing on various aspects of onion production and marketing. This grant eventually resulted in linking production with markets and contributed substantially to the development of a viable farmer association in a remote corner of Albania"- exemple from Albania according source of Work Bank 2011.

³² <http://www.procreditbank.com.al>

The institutional strengthens are necessary to open new opportunities in rural areas respecting approaches of sustainable development, environment and standards imposed by the European Union (EU).

Some current challenges for Albanian agriculture with target the future integration on E.U. are linked with management of sustainable development and respect for the natural resources, practice of incentive policy for rural sector and stimulation of rural finance, diversification of rural activity with an environment impact and stimulation of innovation for agrarian entrepreneurs, etc.

The problem and challenges mentioned above illustrate than Albanian rural sector is at a stage when growing and qualitative changes are occurring, but it needs to be oriented and supported in harmony with the whole social and economic development process. In this process the role and the impact of the institutions is exactly evident. For this process all actors are responsible also.

Challenges of ARDA – a new institution of financial support for rural sector

As a potential candidate country, Albania continues with efforts to comply with the approximation of legislation and adoption of EU standards. The process for implementation and management of the Community's common agriculture policy and preparation for the implementation of the acquires communautaire concerning the Common Agricultural Policy have demand implementation and enforcement of an new institution, the Paying Agency know as Agriculture and Rural Development Agency (ARDA).

ARDA is not only the institution to realize public support for farmers, but is an institution to realize Special Pre-Accession support from the EU for rural development and other payments according to the EU suggestions.

This agency has accredited to function in Albania from January 2009. The principal aim of this institution was to promote Albanian government financial support to the rural sector with direct payment to farmers. The first steps to concretized this new institution are noted with the implantation of different program-project in 12 regions, 2109 projects in total with 5 million US\$, 1169 Ha (fruits trees, olives trees, vine yards) since 2007.

The basic function of ARDA are related with implementation of the national policy and measures in agro and food sector and rural development; implementation of measures of the pre-adession program, preparation for the implementation of the measures according to Commun Agriculture Policy (CAP).

In recent years, is increase financial support to farms, agricultural and agro-industrial enterprises with emphasis on fruit trees, vineyards, vegetables and animal farming, as well as on the industrial processing of fruit, grapes, vegetables, milk and meat, on the basis of the advantages on the different areas of the country. The advantages and disadvantages for ARDA are presented on table 2.

Table 2 - Matrix of advantages and disadvantages for ARDA

Avantages:	Disavantage:
<input type="checkbox"/> Creation of the regional units;	<input type="checkbox"/> Lacks of financial records
<input type="checkbox"/> Facility for local applicators	<input type="checkbox"/> Human ressources
<input type="checkbox"/> Encouragment for agrarian entrepreneurship	<input type="checkbox"/> Higher costs
<input type="checkbox"/> Encouragment to promote farm's association	<input type="checkbox"/> Management and financial control
	<input type="checkbox"/> Access of information

Source: Author.

According the statistical data, more than 25,000 eligible applicants have received a financial support of 4 milliard ALL. A special innovative role has been taked supporting 5 financial support schemes (new plantings for walnuts, hazelnuts and pomegranates considered as a national asset, planting of apples, pears, plums, cherries, peaches and quinces,

planting of grapes, collection of chestnuts and cattle breeding. The principal criteria of selective choice to profit by financial support of ARDA are efficiency of proposed project and promotion of collaboration between beneficiaries in order to develop access to market and sustainable investments. Financial support of farmers with direct funding by state has stimulated also the application of new technology in agro-manufacturing, the cultivation of vegetables in greenhouses and bred livestock as well as the promotion of typical products of certain regions and bioproduct.

The activity of ARDA must to adopt new instrument according financial data collect. The Farm Accountancy Data Network (FADN) is an instrument for evaluating the income of rural holdings and the impact of CAP in EU. A law on FADN is not yet adopt in Albania, on the other hand many work must to be to training related actors with the needs of financial data registry. ARDA with the priorities of assistance for agriculture and rural services can influence to have more collaboration between the central and local government, civil society and direct participation of farmers. ARDA will support rural financing improving the rural infrastructure and encourage rural investments. Financial support of the Albanian rural sector will influence not only to reduce poverty, but to growth the national production, its competitiveness and sustainable development of country. Its challenge is to contribute for transformation of Albanian rural sector from subsistence-oriented production into a modern, commercial, and competitive sector respecting future EU requirements and standards.

Conclusion

The literature considers the evolution of institutional changes and its impact, but this literature is present in very weak level or inexistent in special country like Albania. But the information the issues and experience from different analyses and authors from development countries and the other Eastern European Countries is a requirement to lead better the process of implantation of new institutions and enforcement of capacity building, particularly in Albanian rural sector.

Principal lesson from Albanian rural sector evident the role of institutions and institutional changes. Besides institutional changes that are happening, the evolution of rural institutional changes in Albania continue to be a complex process and with different characteristics in time. Consequently, the needs to enforce the institutions are evident and demand more responsibility from the State, civil society and all actors involved in the process because agriculture play a crucial role for joining the EU. The establishment of ARDA is an innovative example of Albanian efforts to adopt the required structure in rural development and rural finance. Policy decision-making has particular responsibility to enforce institutions in order to have an efficient and competitive Albanian rural development.

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LEARNING FROM THE PAST: YOUTH EXPECTATIONS VS. YOUTH REALITY IN YUGOSLAVIA

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Abstract

During the 60's and 70's Yugoslavia dramatically increased their subcontracting relations with the West and thus changed the scope of industrialization that has been redesigned to mainly serve the production of export goods. Alongside a heavy reliance on foreign loans, Yugoslav leadership opted for educational reforms with the aim to: 1) create an abundant low- and semi-skilled workforce suitable for the labor intensive exports of semi-finished goods 2) procure a voiceless and inert youth so that the preservation of the regime remained unquestioned and the leadership unchallenged. What is more, the inexistence of a genuine job market failed to identify the mismatch between the requirements of the labor demand and the profile of the labor supply which mainly consisted of unemployed youth between the age of eighteen and twenty five. The rising youth unemployment fomented a heavy family dependence that in turn bore critical implications in all socio-psychological aspects of youth development. The Yugoslav movie "Beach Guard in Winter" (1976) by Goran Pasjkaljevic and the character of Dragan powerfully resonate these and will be hereby used to illustrate the pervasive role of family in all domains of youth life. The work ultimately demonstrates that the mass-production of characters like Dragan in the 70's and the 80's proved detrimental to the transformation process of Yugoslav successor states in the 90's and, at the same time, calls for learning the lessons from the past so that economic and political freefalls are avoided in the future.

Keywords: Youth unemployment, labor market distortion, Yugoslav economy, family dependence, Yugoslav movie, transition

Introduction

The youth of Yugoslavia enthusiastically welcomed socialism and the modernization of an emerging political-economic power in Europe. The staunch belief in orthodox Marxism and the rise of a fair and egalitarian society gave youth the confidence in a prosperous future and equal prospects for success and career development. Thriving youth went on to pursue specializations and education in the field of interest, firmly believing that this would eventually secure them economic and family independence. The neutrality status of the country at the same time, meant securing peace and development of an open society eager to cooperate with and benefit from both the Eastern and Western block, whereas serve as a socio-political benchmark for the economically deprived third world.

By downsizing the catalog of choices and field of action for young Yugoslavs, on the contrary, the Party bureaucracy produced a pool of apathetic and passive youth so that the preservation of the regime remained unquestioned and the leadership unchallenged. An interdisciplinary distillation of this phenomenon will identify instruments used by policy makers to restrain from and deprive youth of social actions and employment opportunities

along with the accompanying short-term and long-term effects on this population. A particular light will be shed on educational loopholes causing and a stark family dependence produced by the long-term unemployment among first-job seekers under the age of twenty five. The paper will, therefore, center on aforementioned causes and implications of youth unemployment and how these translated in the Yugoslav movie “Beach Guard in Winter” (1976) by Goran Paskaljevic. Paskaljevic quite explicitly attacks the lack of job availability for and income dependency of the youth now forced to rely on family connections rather than on the personally acquired human capital. Such connections appear to be prevalent and far beyond the scope of education and employment as it ultimately fueled parents’ interference in the most personal matters of their children to the point of disturbance and mischievousness. These are all brought into life by the character of Dragan whose faith stands out as a powerful counterfactual to what the system was initially expected to deliver.

The Socio- Economic Context

The Yugoslav model of market socialism and enterprise self-management stood out as a unique exception to mainstream socialist command economies typical of the USSR and its Central European satellite states. Namely, upon the divorce from the COMECON in 1948, the leadership of Yugoslavia under Josip Broz Tito undertook major economic restructuring featuring radical reforms that encompassed a major shift to decentralization as a cure for inefficiencies of the central planning. Maximization of profits became enterprises’ main goal, market relationships were established among firms, prices served as allocative functions, and profits were used as a budget for new investments. However, independent of the attempts for decentralization and employees’ self-organization, bureaucratic coordination persisted in various forms of state interference and imprudent macro policies that hampered coherence at the micro level. Illustrative is the case of enterprise managers who were only appointed from above i.e. the inexistence of a genuine job market for managers. These managers were stern cronies of the Communist Party, most of whom, lacking managerial experience or sufficient expertise in the organization of the firm and its operational activities.

As an end result, produced was a what Kornai terms as dual-dependence (Kornai|1986; p. 1699) i.e. a combination of vertical dependence on bureaucracy and horizontal dependence on suppliers and customer with a stark prevalence of the former over the latter. These multilevel interferences created bottlenecks in the inputs-supply chain, among which, the most marked was the distortion in the labor demand- supply ratio resulting in both hidden and open unemployment, the latter most common to young first-job seekers at the age between fifteen and twenty five. Evocative of this, the majority of the unemployed after 1971 were youth under the age of twenty-five, usually without work experience or claim to compensation; they accounted for almost 80 percent of the rise in unemployment between 1972 and 1983 (Primorae and Charette | 1987; p. 193). According to Woodward (1995; p. 207), the increasing displacement of the costs of unemployment onto the younger generation was beyond any doubt by 1985, when 59.6 percent of the registered unemployed were under the age of twenty-five.

The Demographic and Educational Burden to Youth Employability

The phenomenon of perpetuating high unemployment rates among the youth was coupled with two additional features of rather exogenous character, nevertheless, deemed as unfavorable factors to the already limited opportunities of the youth. The Post- World War II period of 1946-1964 is widely known as the baby-boomers period when birth rates reached high levels on a global scale. Once soldiers were repatriated and economies consolidated, the U.S. Canada, Australia, the UK, and almost all Western European countries, starting from 1946 and all the way to mid 60’s, saw an upsurge in birth rates that laid the foundations for

economic prosperity and technological development in the 80's and 90's. However, the demographic boom did not have the same effect in socialist Yugoslavia. Indicative of this is the fact that in 1950, the cumulative livebirths per 1000 inhabitants at FRY level was 30.3 as opposed to nearly halved proportion during the interwar period³³. Yet, interesting to note is that regional discrepancies in birth rates went hand in hand with later regional distribution of unemployment. Put in other words, according to the same statistics, the higher livebirths ratio of 40.3 and 46.1 in 1950 in the regions of Macedonia and Kosovo respectively, translated into higher unemployment rates amounting to 25% in both countries later in 1973³⁴ as opposed to the low unemployment level of 1.8% in Slovenia for the same year³⁵.

Schierup (1992) identifies additional hindrance to youth employability conceived as the immediate side-product of what she refers as "the pervasive reorientation of the educational system during the late 1970s under which an industrial labor force started to be formed" to meet the purposes of rapid industrialization and modernization of the Yugoslav society. Indispensable is to note, however, that by sub-contracting with Western firms for manufacturing and delivery of semi-finished goods that required the abundance of cheap and low-skilled labor, this industrialization, indeed, proved retrograde to the technological development and modernization of the capital. That being said, an entire army of semi-qualified and poorly educated workers was produced to serve the needs of a fertile resource and manufacturing YU center providing supplies of labor-intensive goods to the industrially and technologically developed West with a high human and technologically-advanced capital. Adhering to Smith's maxim on why would someone "attempt to make at home what it will cost him more to make than to buy" (Smith | 1904)? Yugoslavia was importing back finished Western goods with a significant amount of added value, instead of focusing on and investing in its own research and development; this way, shaping country's status as a laggard in modernization and technological upgrade. This propensity towards engaging in contracting with Western firms made Yugoslav economy highly vulnerable to global economic crisis which resulted in contagious inflationary shocks, soaring unemployment, and high indebtedness with the IMF in late 70's and early 80's.

Back to the educational reform and alongside the need for narrowly specialized labor, enacted was an educational program that limited the numbers of students in the higher academic education at the expense of a short-term education directed towards skilled industrial employment fostering early specialization "in extremely narrowly delimited subjects directed towards specific categories of jobs" (Schierup | 1992) and preventing employee mobility in the long run. Youth unemployment can, therefore, be seen as a reflection of the malfunction of educational systems, not answering the demands of certain groups of young people, nor the demands of the changing labor markets as a result of the inert and inflexible Yugoslav system where change was rarely incorporated and taken into consideration. As quite justifiably asserted in the CDPS report, "young people who face the highest risk of long-term unemployment [were] to a certain extent 'produced' by the selection processes in primary and secondary education" (1995/96) as was the case with the young population of Yugoslavia whose common destiny would be best represented in the character of Dragan in "The Beach Guard in Winter".

Socio-Psychological Implications and the Role of Kinship Relations

Faced with the inability of finding a permanent workplace and, thus, securing regular incomes, Yugoslav youth was forced to rely on housing and existential allowance provided by the family which role was now increasing and touching upon the most private matters

³³ Demographic Research Center, Belgrade 1974. p. 14.

³⁴ Woodward, Susan L. (1995). *Socialist Unemployment: The Political Economy of Yugoslavia, 1945- 1990*

³⁵ In 1950, Slovenia had 24.4 livebirths per 1000 inhabitants according to the Demographic Research Center

such as marriage and parenthood. “Just like his peer 200 years ago a young person cannot lean on any other institution than his own family background” (Zupanov | 1981, p. 1953). Eye-witnessing the reality of youth and the insidious nature of family interference produced by the all-encompassing anomalies in the socio-political and education system in Titoist Yugoslavia, Goran Paskaljevic masterly painted the social landscape and everyday life of the youth in “The Beach Guard in Winter” filmed in 1976. The movie quite explicitly attacks the lack of job availability for and income dependency of the youth now forced to rely on family connections rather than on the personally acquired human capital, such was the case with the main protagonist Dragan. In the long run, these connections appear to be prevalent and far beyond the scope of education and employment with parents’ interference in the most personal matters of their children to the point of distress and mischievousness; as was the unfortunate case with Dragan and his wife Ljubica who later became victims of inter-family animosity and imprudent parental intrusion.

Namely, Dragan is a young unemployed son of a Railway officer and a nosey housewife, all living in a dilapidating house at the outskirts of Belgrade near the City Railway station. Dragan has finished a Secondary Technical School for Leather Processing Industries i.e. “средно кожарско” which does not seem to correlate with the real labor demand for specialized workers in this field. Paskaljevic on few occasions illustrates this friction and mismatch between school curricula and the demand for qualifications, by having number of potential employers telling Dragan that the school diploma from the Secondary Lather School is worth nothing and that he would be never able to find a job according to the specialization acquired.

This fact has recruited Dragan’s closest family members in the job search where Dragan has a little say and is forced to accept whatever is available and on the offer. The rivalry between family members emerges as the retrace on who provides the better job opportunity develops. Dragan’s aunt and father are among the most engaged job seekers on behalf of Dragan, using their personal connections with friends and acquaintances in the form of barter. Dragan’s temporary job positions range from providing iron and laundry services as a substitute of the regular employer that is on a maternity leave, to auto mechanics position at a local auto service shop. Important to note is that for none of the positions obtained, there is an existing formal labor market where people compete and are hired according to the skills they possess. It all revolves around kinship and friendship relationships where competence is highly disregarded and considered irrelevant, parallel to the disregarded importance of quality in goods and services at the macroeconomic level.

The economic dependence and high family reliance produced additional drawbacks at the level of personal development of the young individual. Strpic (1988; p.39-40) argued that the system eventually procured “suitable servants and subjects-non-creative, uncritical, unfit for high productivity, self-organisation and social action”. Paskaljevic well-exemplifies this assertion in the character of Dragan who markedly lacks self-confidence and determination to succeed in life. Moreover, Dragan appears indifferent to matters concerning his life leaving room for his parents to craft his future and take care of his wellbeing. This care is so extreme that appears identical to the one provided in early childhood as depicted by 20-year-old Dragan sleeping in the same bed with his father before Dragan’s wedding, or the childlike feeding ritual on the Eve of Dragan’s divorce.

The passive nature of Dragan and the youth in general, allows the onset of the most intimidating interference by parents. The aunt appears on the first date of Dragan and Ljubica and subsequently stays nearby in their first intimate moments. The exaggerated caring nature of the aunt is also depicted in the bathing scene before Dragan’s wedding celebration when Dragan is compelled to leave the improvised bath tub in front of the eyes of his aunt. His father’s stern commitment to share men’s advice with his son does not prevent him to

interrupt Dragan in the first night with his spouse and remain behind doors should his son needs further father's "assistance". Dragan's mother undertakes the role of a safeguard of Dragan and Ljubica's marriage, keeping foes away that, paradoxically, materialize in Ljubica's parents.

Dragan eventually finds shelter from family intervention in the Beach shed where he is appointed to seasonally work as a Beach guard during the six months of winter. Him and his wife Ljubica lead a modest, however, happy life, away from external influence and omnipresent pressures. This harmony and love is, however, disrupted by the visit of the two families who again stood in between the young spouses and contributed to their separation reaffirming the indispensability of family control and dependence produced by highly intertwined factors at both micro and macro level.

Conclusion

In conclusion, the Yugoslav experiment in a more relaxed and flexible socialism exhibited significant shortcomings in all spheres of governance. This unconventional hybrid of bureaucratic and market coordination failed to deliver anticipated results as well as the much needed reform for sustainability in technological and economic development. Indeed, the growing labor segmentation and the increasing demand for low-skilled manufacturing power was detrimental for the marginalization of depressed intelligentsia and the procurement of inactive youth. These negative externalities drew roots particularly from the imprudent economic and social policies of the Yugoslav leadership insisting on extensive industrial development for manufacturing purposes as the utmost priority and the only strategic option. The emergence of wicked social norms and the limited field of action as a result, severely affected youth that in turn deteriorated adding towards the systematic failure of the regime in the coming years.

This work entailed the identification of discrepancies in the labor market division and its long-term implications on youth that a decade later had to undertake the role of the social and economic reformer of societies in transition. The mass-production of characters like Dragan in the 70's and the 80's proved detrimental to the transformation process in the 90's that exhibited severe delays and added to the economic drag still observable today. The much retarded transition process bearing the burden of contiguous stagnation and omnipresent negative externalities such as:

- lack of foreign direct investment due to political instability and government interference;

- low propensity to self-employment and undertaking entrepreneurial risk as a result of a long tradition of paternalistic "care" provided by the socialist system;

- abundance of low-skilled and inflexible labor unwilling to opt for occupational mobility and requalify according to the new labor demand;

- meager incentives to exit from unemployment in part due to high social benefits for the unemployed; and the most alarming of all,

- the intensive brain-drain of high-skilled human capital consisting of mainly high-qualified youth which knowledge and expertise could serve as the greatest asset to increased job creation and long-term development at home;

poses the question on how to stabilize in times of nearly two-decade transitional delay reflecting meanwhile on the lessons from the past? This question requires additional research and will fall within the scope of a subsequent work; however, the underlined roots and inciters to both the dissolution of Yugoslavia and the perpetuated effect on the delays in transition of post-Yugoslav countries today must not be disregarded or unconsidered.

Having the opportunity to resonate extensively on successfully transformed economies in Central and Eastern Europe and well-integrated NMSs, where the accumulation of high-skilled and socially active human capital proved to be the most distinctive factor conducive

of growth and development, Yugoslav successor states, particularly those from the Western Balkan space, should unlock rather than suppress the potential of the youth. Indeed, this is the cornerstone for their long-sought economic prosperity, sustainable development, and prospective integration with the West.

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INFORMATION AND COMMUNICATION TECHNOLOGIES (ICT) AS AN ENABLER FOR MULTIGENERATIONAL LIVING

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Abstract

How can the implementation of information and communication technologies (ICT) support multigenerational living? In the recent years it could have been observed that the rapidly ageing society is a strong incentive to find new ways to mitigate the risks given by the demographic transformations. An active approach to face these challenges is the concept of multigenerational living, where the exchange of neighborly help within the community based on solidarity is an integral part for the insurance of a supportive system. The need for ICT-based solutions within a multigenerational community cannot be reduced to the quantitative demographic processes. The on-going social changes, success factors of multigenerational living and intergenerational relationships had to be considered. As a result the relevant application areas for ICT were identified as the enhancement of the independence of elderly people, support of organization structures within the community, and the inclusion of external support. Within these areas there is a wide range of existing ICT solutions that can support multigenerational living. For future ICT solutions multigenerational communities can take advantage of the fact that the given social environment may lead to facilitated implementation, especially in regard to the inclusion of elderly people in the information society. This literature review tries to summarize to current results of this subject.

Keywords: Multigenerational living, ict-based solutions, elderly people, information society, independent living

Introduction

This literature review summarizes the results of different publications on the subject of support of multigenerational living with ICT. The western world is facing an on-going demographic transformation. Through higher life expectancies and lower birth rates the demographic ageing is expected to increase significantly within the next decades, which will lead to a major impact on social support systems (BFS, 2008a: 23). In the recent years different concepts have been developed in order to face the negative effects of the demographic change such as shrinking numbers of people in work directly contributing to the economy (real and relatively) or increasing budgetary costs of ageing. Multigenerational living is a concept to actively approach the challenges of the ageing society with support systems that focus on solidarity and intergenerational exchange (Schulte, 2009: 42).

With the opportunities given by the ageing society, for example new markets for innovative products and services for older people, it is assumed that the application of new

information and communication technologies (ICT) will play an important role in mitigating the risks of future demographic changes (Gaßner, 2010: 5; Malanowski, 2008: 5).

This review aimed to summarize current results and to gain a deeper understanding of the relevance of ICT within multigenerational living in regard to the demographic challenges. To answer the question of which supportive ICT solutions can be implemented in different projects of multigenerational living, following steps were taken:

- 1) Information and literature research of statistical data and studies concerning:
 - demographic and social developments in Switzerland
 - multigenerational living and intergenerational relationships
 - the implementation and usage of ICT in regard to demographic and social challenges.
- 2) Identifying challenges and opportunities within demographic and social changes, multigenerational living and intergenerational relationships to identify the relevant areas of application of ICT in multigenerational living based on the literature.
- 3) Outlining of further research questions within the identified areas of application for ICT.

This literature review is organized according to the points above.

Literature review

Demographic and social changes in Switzerland

As in almost all developed countries, Switzerland is experiencing a demographic transformation due to higher life expectancies as well as lower birth rates. A statistic published by the Federal Agency of Statistics in 2008 showed that every new generation was numerically 30% smaller than the generation of their parents (BFS, 2008a: 6). According to the middle scenario A-00-2010 (BFS, 2010: 27 f.) the share of the population of 0 to 19 year olds will decrease from 21% in 2010 to 18% in the year of 2060, while the number of people between 20 and 64 remains stable. At the same time the proportion of people above the age of 65 years will increase from 17% to 28% of the total population. It is expected that the number of people between the age of 65 and 79 years will increase by 53% from 962'000 (2010) to 1'472'000 (2060) and that in same period the number of people above 80 will increase from 382'000 to 1'071'000 (BFS, 2010: 28).

Most elderly people wish to remain in their home environment for as long and as independent as possible (Gaßner, 2010: 14). With the expansion of ambulatory care, different forms of residential care, as well as barrier-free building standards the rate of people above the age of 80 living in retirement or nursing homes has decreased from 22% in 2000 to 18% in 2008 (Höpflinger, 2012: 10). Although the number of people living in retirement and nursing homes has decreased in this period, it is expected that, because of the demographic ageing of the society, the ratio of care-dependent people will increase in the next decades (Höpflinger et al., 2011: 9).

The demographic changes are often in the center of public discussions concerning consequences for the ageing society. Although the quantitative demographic processes affect the development of the housing market, they only gain their relevance under consideration of on-going societal and economical processes (Höpflinger, 2009: 21). The baby-boom generations have different interests in education, living and leisure and a growing tendency to shape their second half of life (50+) more actively than their preceding generation (Höpflinger, 2009: 21). In the stage of life between 50 to 64 years the size of a household is often reduced – for example because of children moving out. Hence, the incomes as well as the expenses per person are above the average of other age groups (Höpflinger, 2011: 7). The so called best-agers are keener to consume and the readiness to buy products or services to improve their living standards is higher than the one of the previous generation (Kimpeler et al., 2006: 32).

A lot of people above the age of 60 don't consider themselves as being "old" anymore (Höpflinger, 2009: 145). This new consciousness of an active ageing has for example led to the shift from "age-appropriate" to "barrier-free" design in the housing industry (Höpflinger, 2009: 144). Barrier-free standards are increasingly implemented in new residential buildings not only to meet the needs of elderly people but also the needs of a wider range of the population. For example a barrier-free access to a building is beneficial for people using a wheel-chair as well as for parents with a stroller. Therefore, it facilitates multigenerational living. The strategy of inclusion instead of exclusion is not only found in the housing industry.

To avoid stigmatization, the concept "design for all" pursues the integration of all citizens into the information society. It consists of three strategies: "(1) Products/services and applications should be usable by as many people as possible - regardless of age, ability or situation - without any modifications. (2) Products should be easily adaptable to different users. (3) Products should have standardized interfaces capable of being accessed by specialized users" (Malanowski, 2008: 25).

Multigenerational living an intergenerational relationship

While other forms of living focus on specific age groups, projects for multigenerational living aim to enable living for a wider range of age groups. It is expected that through the mix of generations, a variety of competences can help to meet the individual needs for assistance in the community and facilitate intergenerational relationships (Höpflinger, 2009: 201). The social and generational mix in these projects are usually tried to be achieved with a wide range of different apartments, community facilities (cafes, rooms for seminars, libraries, workshops etc.) as well as separate outdoor areas for both quiet and more lively activities (Höpflinger, 2009: 152).

In Switzerland less than 1.5% of grandchildren live with their parents and grandparents in the same household (Höpflinger, 2009: 150 f.). A separate living of each generation in different households is the most common form of living. The principal "intimacy on a distance" does not imply a decay of family solidarity. Instead separate living spaces of each generation serves as a base for the quality of intergenerational relationships (Höpflinger, 2012: 11). In fact, living too closely together of young and old is widely rejected by a majority of elderly people (Höpflinger, 2009: 67). Different attitudes and lifestyles meet, therefore integrative forms of living require a high degree of mutual tolerance and acceptance. Conflicts may also arise when the need for assistance or care-dependency is higher than the amount of support the community can provide.

Especially intergenerational relationships seem to be facing a major challenge. The development of extra-familial intergenerational relationships requires time (Höpflinger, 2010: 9). Bühlmann (2012: 298 f.) states that 80% of people between the age of 15 and 44 never work with someone who is above the age of 70, neither on a professional nor a voluntary basis and that almost 60% of the young adults do not have friends or acquaintances who are older than 70. To benefit from the existing resources, projects with a focus on multigenerational living need a certain framework to facilitate neighborly help. The framework can be supported with community workers, contact persons or a "neighborhood club" (Höpflinger, 2009: 152). A factor that can influence the formation of an active community is the creation of a strong identity through which the organizational measures can be minimized (Glockner, 2008: 115). Although assistance provided within multigenerational communities can reduce the need for external help it does have its limitations. For example in case of care dependency the provision of help by professional caretakers remains essential (Schulte, 2009: 65 f.).

Relevant areas of application of ict in multigenerational living

Based on the results of the literature review, the following fields of application were identified, where different forms of information and communication technologies might be implemented as a supportive measure:

- (1) Enhancement of independent living of elderly people
- (2) Support of the organization structures within the community
- (3) Integration of external support

Enhancement of independent living of elderly people

Supporting independence of elderly people is an important element within multigenerational living because it can help to prevent a demand for assistance to exceed the amount of support the community can provide. One of the largest fields of research that focuses on ICT-based products to enable independent living for elderly people in the home environment is Ambient Assisted Living (AAL). Heinze (2011: 161) stated that ambient assisted living was still a topic for insiders in the research and development business. The market for AAL is still undeveloped and most available products focus on "safety & security" applications (Gaßner, 2010: 7). There are several different assumptions, why the implementation of ICT solutions has been slow:

- Technical solutions are often perceived as impersonal and technocratic (Heinze, 2010: 5).
- Missing standards to enable modularity of systems (Gaßner, 2010: 7).
- Relevant partners within the AAL value chain are often not involved (Gaßner, 2010: 7).
- The demand for integrative ICT solutions has been lower than expected (Höpflinger, 2009: 110).

One of the most popular products designed for elderly people, that has not met its expected success, was the "cell phone for seniors" because of its signalization of inability and focus on deficits (Kimpeler et al., 2006: 40). Through a life-long confrontation with technical transformations, the new generation of elderly people shows openness for innovations and also a certain demand for products with esthetical design that show no age discrimination (Höpflinger, 2009: 107).

Highlighting the needs of elderly people, it can be stated that there is a strong demand for ICT- based applications that enhance personal security (Meyer et al., 2008: 86; Höpflinger, 2009: 110). In the home environment, there is a wide range of social alarm systems available that address this demand. The alarms are triggered through a base station or a wireless transmitter that can be worn as a bracelet or necklace. While these systems are limited to the home environment, mobile phones with an inbuilt emergency button, smartphones with an emergency application or "emergency watches" can also be used outdoors. These systems have in common that they require the person to actively trigger the alarm. It is expected that the future technical development will aim to enable a passive detection of emergency situations when the person is either not able to trigger the alarm or not carrying the transmitter. In the pilot-project "REAAL", different applications of security systems in the home environment, which have found a wide acceptance, were sensors that help the prevention of water damages, motion detectors for automatic lighting at night and systems that can turn off electronic appliances when they are left on (Schneider et al., 2011: 95).

Because of cost and time advantages the distribution of offers for information and services are increasingly concentrating on new media such as the internet (Schelling et al., 2010: 4). The preferred internet applications of elderly people are: sending and receiving e-mails, search of general information, access of timetables and travel information, search of information about public services and authorities as well as health topics (Schelling et al., 2010: 19). While 80% of people in Switzerland between the age of 50 to 59 use the internet

several times a week, the proportion decreases for the age group of 60 to 69 to 59% and for people above 70 to 29% (BFS, 2013). The most common reasons for elderly people not to use the internet are that the usage is perceived as too complicated and that the expected learning effort is too high (Schelling et al., 2010). With the introduction of tablet computers, an improved usability has been already been achieved, though often intensive training and personal support are still required. Two factors that influence a successful implementation of ICT for elderly people are the general technological acceptance, mostly influenced by previous personal experience with ICT, and whether it generates a distinctive added value for the end user. Latter factor is also described as the main factors of acceptability of an information system in the Technology Acceptance Model by Davis, Bagozzi et Warshaw (1989). Thus, the acceptance testing of ICT for elderly people underlie some congruent dimensions as any other information system. The preferred forms of learning concerning the usage of the internet for elderly people are informal help at home, involvement of adolescents or peers and specific training (Schelling et al., 2010: 26). It shall also be considered that the usage of elderly people is strongly related to the use of internet in the social environment (partner, children, siblings, grandchildren and friends) (Schelling et al., 2010: 31).

ICT to support organization structures within the community

The aim of projects that focus on multigenerational living is to promote neighborly help between residents and generations with different needs (Schulte, 2009: 42). ICT solutions that support organization structures within multigenerational living aim to facilitate communication and exchange of neighborly help in the community. In Switzerland exists a large commitment for voluntary work. About 1.3 million people (21% of the population) execute unpaid informal help such as childcare, neighborly help, services as well as taking care of relatives or acquaintances that don't live in the same household (BFS, 2008b: 4). Projects that try to foster this voluntary commitment are so called "time exchanges" which have been realized in different regions of Switzerland. Through web portals of such time exchanges, as the ones for the regions of St. Gallen and Zurich, members are able to create their own profile and publish the services they can provide or the types of services they are looking for in exchange (<http://www.zeiboerse.ch>, <http://www.giveandget.ch>). Based on the same idea, similar systems could be implemented in different projects of multigenerational living.

Integration of external support

While multigenerational communities are able to provide neighborly help and assistance based on the principal of solidarity the inclusion of external help and service providers cannot be avoided. The limits of the supportive system in multigenerational living are for example the need for professional assistance in cases of care dependency (Schulte, 2009: 65 f.), emergency situations or when medical attention is needed.

A development that can potentially be beneficial for multigenerational living is the national strategy for "eHealth" which aims to support and connect all processes and relevant stakeholders to enhance efficiency, quality and security in the health sector with the implementation of ICT solutions (BAG, 2007: 2). ICT applications are electronic patient records or health insurance cards (through which treatment relevant information can be accessed by health care providers), online services and solutions for telemedicine (BAG, 2007: 7 f.). While the use of electronic patient records mostly addresses the exchange of treatment relevant information between doctors and hospitals other parties that focus on ambulatory care could be involved. But the majority of doctors are still not able to process their data electronically and a standard for the transmission of medical data has yet to be reached (BAG, 2012: 3).

Conclusion

Projects that focus on multigenerational living try to actively approach the negative effects of the ageing society through the development of supportive communities. But with the on-going demographic ageing and thus a rapidly increasing ratio of elderly people in the next decades it is likely that the supportive systems within multigenerational communities may reach their limits. Aside of the solidary help, additional ways of support especially concerning elderly people have to be considered.

It is assumed that ICT will play an important role in the facilitation of independent living of elderly people. While the initial efforts to develop products for elderly people have been criticized for their stigmatizing design and limited functionality, the findings have shown that the currently available products are increasingly featuring a more “sophisticated” design. The next step in this progression within the concept of “design for all” would be the creation of products and services that are usable regardless of age and abilities.

The internet usage of elderly people is highly dependent on the social environment and the preferred form of learning is informal help at home. A multigenerational community may feature the ideal preconditions to take advantage of these factors in regard to the usage of existing or future ICT solutions. It can be expected that each new generation that reaches a higher age, such as the current “best-agers”, will have lower barriers towards the usage of new technology but for now, depending on the previous experiences, the inclusion of elderly people into the information society mostly requires intensive training and support.

Different ICT applications that facilitate communication between the residents may enhance the exchange of neighborly help. But it has to be taken into account that participation does not evolve from the implementation of ICT solutions but from the involvement of people. ICT shall be regarded as a tool that can broaden existing potentials.

The success of multigenerational forms of living in regard to the demographic challenges does not rely on ICT. But the implementation of ICT in combination with social participation can relieve the supportive systems within a multigenerational community and facilitate the inclusion of external help. The writers suggest that further studies within the identified fields of applications (Enhancement of independent living of elderly people, Support of the organization structures within the community, Integration of external support) have to bring further results on precise products that are needed and wanted by elderly people.

The literature shows that elderly people ask for the same design and high standard as the common ICT solutions. Therefore, it is suggested not to search mainly for fully new products but to find extensions of existing technologies that fulfill the demands of the end-users: the elderly people. It is further proposed that, based on the Technology Acceptance Model by Davis et al. (1989) and specifically on the results of Schelling et al.(2010) that factors for a successful implementation of ICT for elderly people are distinct added value and general technological acceptance, applied research for future and the development process of ICT solutions for elderly people has to include their involvement from the beginning. Thus, unsuccessful development as the “cell phone for old people” could be prevented.

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PERFORMANCE DISORDERS AND QUALITY OF LIFE IN ALBANIAN CHILDREN AND ADOLESCENTS WITH CKD

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Abstract

It is noticed an increased interest in the quality of life (QOL) of children with chronic kidney disease (CKD). The aim of this study was to investigate the prevalence of performance disorders and to evaluate the health-related QOL (HRQOL) in 130 patients with CKD. To appraise the prevalence of performance disorders and analyze HRQOL we used the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire (SDQ) and Pediatric Inventory of Quality of Life (PedsQL) Core scales as measurement instruments for both the children and their parents. The CKD group had lower results in nearly all areas of PedsQL areas. Only the lack of religion was related in a significant way with a lower global HRQOL result (OR= 5.8; P= 0.07). Only two factors were related with a lower HRQOL result between the parents: children's age >10 years (OR = 4.9, P=0.026) and the lack of religion (OR= 2.8, P= 0.025). The CKD group showed a higher ratio of performance and emotional disorders in all SDQ fields. Our results recommend the significance of assessing performance and social impacts of CKD in order to improve the life quality of this pediatric population.

Keywords: Quality of life, dialysis, emotional disorders, chronic renal disease

Introduction

Medical progresses have demonstrated remarkable changes in physical results and essential advance in survival rates in children with chronic kidney disease (1). Many restrictions in the life of these children can guide to a moderated social life through hospitalization and nonattendance of school and leisure activities (2,3).

WHO defines quality of life (QoL) as an “individual awareness of his position in life in the context of the culture and assessment system in which he lives and in relation to his objectives, expectations, standards and worries”(4). However the implication of QoL changes from one person to another it is important to know each individual's social and psychological characteristics and the area these features are influenced by illness (5).

While “quality of care” measures are commonly used, there has been a rising trend towards results becoming more patient-centered and not just based on survival (6,7).

Regardless of the aim of renal substitution therapy there is little data that specific QoL measures are used in medical practice (8).

The concern in promoting health-related quality of care has developed with the model of humanization of medicine which motivated concerns about patients' satisfaction with medical care, suggesting specific management choices could be tailored according to patients needs and personal choices (9,10).

The evaluation of QoL in childhood and adolescence must be guided by subjective and objective evaluation of the child, child's family social, economic and cultural conditions (11).

Optimal care for the pediatric patient with CKD involves not only medical management but also the management of psychological and developmental factors that will ensure a pediatric patient's successful transition in adulthood (12).

Few studies have addressed the issue of clinical and social factors associated with an impairment of HRQOL (13).

The aim of the study is to investigate the prevalence of behavioral disorders and to evaluate the QoL in 130 patients and adolescents with CKD. Potential clinical, social and demographic factors associated with behavioral disorders and a lower HRQOL were assessed, too.

Main text

This is a cross-sectional study consisting of all CKD patients being followed up at the Pediatric Nephrology Unit, University Hospital Centre "Mother Theresa", in Tirana, Albania.

The sample of the study was provided according to the fact that the participants were aged 2.5-18 years, with a permission obtained by both the patient and the parent. The patients with severe cognitive and developmental deficit were kept out.

Demographic and clinical data were achieved by a structured interview containing primary renal disease, CKD phase, comorbidities, medication intake, height and weight measurements and laboratory tests. Social and demographic records such as gender, age, religion, marital status, family income, school nonattendance and malfunctions related to the treatment.

The patient behavioral and emotional alteration was assessed by fulfilling the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire (SDQ) (14). The questionnaire comprised emotional and behavioral problems of the children. SDQ has been demonstrated to be very associated with other well-set up measures (15). The subjects who were distinguished as anomalous on the total range of indicators were considered to represent performance and emotional disorders. This description helps in diagnosing the psychiatric problems like depression, anxiety in which the tool displays a high sensitivity and specificity (16).

Patients' HRQOL was evaluated using the Pediatric inventory of Quality of life Core Scale that encloses physical, emotional, social and school performance based on focus groups and cognitive discussions (17). The interviewers which administered the PedsQL and SDQ questionnaire were very well skilled considering the restriction of the study population.

The statistical analysis was carried out using the SPSS statistical package version 17 (SPSS Chicago, IL). The continuous data are represented as the median and the interquartile range (IQR) or as the mean and standard deviation, when it is suitable. The Mann-Whitney and Kruskal-Wallis test were used for non-parametric variables. Chi-square test was applied for binary variables and logistic regression for multivariate analysis.

The main baseline clinical and demographic characteristics are summarized in Table 1.

Table 1. Medical/demographic feature of the patients with CKD

Medical/Demographic features	N (%)
Sex	
Male	72(55.4)
Female	58(44.6)
Main renal disease	
Glomerular diseases	25(19.2)
Cystic diseases	18(13.8)
Congenital nephro-uropathies	61 (46.9)
Mixed	26 (20.1)
Stages of CKD	
Stage 2	23 (17.7)
Stage 3	27 (20.8)
Stage 4	16 (12.3)
Stage 5	64 (49.2)
Age at interview (years)	
Median	13.0
Interquartile range (25 th -75 th)	7.8-16.0

The socioeconomic features are shown in Table 2. When we reflected on demographic and socio-economic features there was a considerable difference between groups only for mean age, which was 11.7 (SD = 5.3), 8.3 (SD = 5.2) years for the conservative method and dialysis, when P= 0.001 correspondingly. The family income of the majority of the sample (60.7%) was three minimum earnings or less and 39.2% of the families got some financial support by NGO-s and the government.

Regarding the education of the patients the great part of them 58(44.6%) had not so far fulfilled the elementary school, 31.2% declared failing and subsequently repeating a school year and 49.5 % of them associated the event to the medical treatment. Among the mothers of the patients 43% had not yet finished elementary school. No more than 3% of them had a university education.

Table 2. Cultural and socioeconomic features

Cultural and socio-economic features of the patient	N (%)
Parent's civil status	
Married	78 (60%)
Separated, widowed, others	52 (40%)
Family profits	
≤ 3 minimum salary	79 (60.7%)
≥ 3 minimum salary	51 (39.3%)
Patient education level	
Kindergarten	6 (4.6%)
Partial elementary school	58 (44.6%)
Entire elementary school	5 (3.8%)
Deficient secondary school	32 (24.6%)
Partial higher education	9 (6.92%)
Special school	3 (2.3%)
Not applicable (years)	17 (13.1%)
Family religion	
Muslim	92 (70.7%)
Orthodox	31 (23.8%)
Absence of religion/others	7 (5.5%)

In the **Table 3** are illustrated the outcomes of PedsQL survey from the patients and their parents. It is not noted a significant difference among the QoL evaluated by the patients

and the parents concerning the curative modality. Nevertheless, the CKD group had significantly lower scores in nearly all characteristics compared to the control group. The only exclusion was in the emotional area in the PedsQL accomplished by the children, which did not achieve a statistically significant difference among patients and controls.

Table 3. Quality of life of the children and adolescents with CDK based on PedsQL survey

PedsQL statement	Conservative (mean \pm SD)	Dialysis (mean \pm SD)	P value	Total n; (mean \pm SD)	Control group (mean \pm SD)	P value
PedsQL parents						
Emotional	61.2(\pm 23.5)	64.7(\pm 18.6)	0.275	65.9(\pm 21.6)	80.47(\pm 11.5)	<0.0001
Psychosocial	69.7(\pm 17.4)	67.8(\pm 17.3)	0.798	71.8(\pm 17.5)	88.26(\pm 7.62)	<0.0001
Physical	76.1(\pm 22.8)	70.3(\pm 25.2)	0.628	75.7(\pm 21.8)	96.82(\pm 3.59)	<0.0001
Educational	59.4(\pm 20.7)	62.5(\pm 27.9)	0.176	63.7(\pm 22.6)	90.75(\pm 10.78)	<0.0001
Total	72.3(\pm 16.6)	70.3(\pm 18.6)	0.572	72.8(\pm 16.9)	91.64(\pm 5.66)	<0.0001
PedsQL children						
Emotional	68.5 \pm 14.6	64.9 \pm 11.3	0.587	68.8 \pm 14.7	73.04 \pm 16.28	<0.0001
Psychosocial	75.4 \pm 12.7	73.7 \pm 11.8	0.876	75.1 \pm 11.8	84.77 \pm 9.52	<0.0001
Physical	81.7 \pm 14.8	78.6 \pm 16.3	0.478	81.7 \pm 13.9	95.76 \pm 5.67	<0.0001
Educational	68.6 \pm 18.5	67.4 \pm 13.7	0.903	68.3 \pm 17.6	87.25 \pm 11.2	<0.0001
Total	77.4 \pm 11.5	74.6 \pm 10.8	0.582	76.8 \pm 11.3	87.59 \pm 6.28	<0.0001

There was no significant difference between the assessment of the children and the parents on the kind of cure. When we evaluated the CKD group to healthy controls, it resulted a higher ratio of performance and emotional disorder in nearly all areas of SDQ (Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire). In the univariate analysis there was no significant difference among medical, demographic, socio-economic variables in the parents' questionnaire.

The fascinating finding is the strong connection between the occurrence of performance and emotional disorders and the low HRQOL (health related quality of life), as appraised by the parents PedsQL statement.

In this study we estimated the QOL and the prevalence of emotional and performance disorders in a pediatric population with CKD. We found a significant destruction of their QoL and a higher prevalence of emotional and performance disorder than in healthy controls. Many studies using PedsQL 4.0 have demonstrated Generic Core Scales the same results (18,19) like Varni et al, who compared HRQOL among ten chronic disease groups comprising 96 children with ESRD (end-stage renal disease). In our study there was no important difference in both parents or children with HRQOL scores between the CKD cure modalities in contrast with other studies in which children presented lower HRQOL scores (18).

Some social and demographic factors were associated with lower HRQOL results in the statistical analysis. The majority of families in our study were of low socio-economic level, but this was not associated with lower HRQOL results or a higher prevalence of performance disorders in CKD children in contrast with Fielding et al (20). The multivariate analysis confirmed that parents and children who reported to belong to Muslim religion scored higher in almost all PedsQL areas. Some studies have showed a defensive religious effect on morbidity and mortality and on depressive indicators and general psychological distress in chosen populations (21). These findings suggest that many patients and their families and other religious resources to navigate and overcome the spiritual challenges that arise in their experience of illness (22,23).

Our outcomes reveal that the pediatric CKD patients contributing in our survey had a higher ratio of performance and emotional confusions in nearly all areas of SDQ

questionnaire than healthy controls. There are a few studies that illustrate the prevalence of these disorders in children and adolescents with CKD, with contrasting results (24,25).

Medical requisites for children with CDK comprising dietary constraints and dependence on dialysis may separate them from their healthy friends (26,27). Children with CKD show neuro-cognitive insufficiencies, developmental restrictions such as postponed sexual maturation, bone deformities and short figure (28,29).

As a consequence children state self-esteem adjustments which may take to isolation from their friends. However in our study there was no significant difference in the prevalence of performance disorders between the CKD treatment modalities.

Our study had some restraints in terms of the questionnaire used that was not precise for CKD patients and known the cross-sectional character of the study it is unattainable to assume the causality from the outcomes of the statistical analysis.

Conclusions

Finally we found probable prognostic aspects of impairment of HRQOL in the pediatric CKD population. Regarding Madden et al (23), assessing the emotional and psychological impact of CKD and its cure is a significant step in the progress of a less invasive and more individual care for the patients.

This study is the primary challenge to create relations among performance and emotional disorders and QOL. Our results are another step forward in supplying the health professionals that assist these patients with the medical sustain to recognize and treat the psychosocial obstacles for promoting better clinical management and better QOL in this population. The awareness is focused in a multidisciplinary group approach to pediatric CKD for the care of these children that engages complex medical, nutritional, and emotional problems (30,31,32). Prospective studies are required in the future to identify predictors of QOL in children and adolescents with CKD.

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CONTRIBUTION OF PEASANT MIGRATION TO HOUSEHOLD FOOD SECURITY: A CASE STUDY OF KIDEA VILLAGE OF KIGOMA RURAL DISTRICT, TANZANIA

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Abstract

There is limited information about the contribution of peasant migration to household food security in Tanzania because many studies conducted in the country have put less emphasis on this aspect. This study assessed the contribution of peasant migration to household food security using Kidea Village of Kigoma Rural District. Land ownership status; types of crops grown; food availability and access; post-harvest food management practices; the amount of food harvested and length of time it lasted were used as determinants of food security. Household questionnaire, focus group discussion, physical observation and key informant interviews were used in data collection. The findings show that all respondents had security of land tenure. This enabled more food production. Investment in multiple cropping helped to accommodate risks and uncertainties from unforeseen poor climatic conditions. The reported post-harvest food management practices including food donations and brewing did not contribute to food insecurity since their frequencies and amounts were occasional and small, respectively. A high proportion of respondents reporting adequate and affordable food in the village market imply that exchange between food-surplus and food-deficit households was made possible. In addition, majority of respondents reporting better production of crops at destination than in their places of origin and which lasted to the next harvest imply that households were food secure. However, it was noted that migration to Kidea is more of subsistence than long term investment in economic development.

Keywords: Food security, peasant migration, livelihood diversification

Introduction

There is limited information about the contribution of peasant migration to food security because many studies conducted have put less emphasis on this aspect. Most of the available literature indicates migration as a livelihood strategy by peasants in search for better conditions with little or no mention of its contribution to food security (Deshingkar and Grimm (2004); Green (1996) and IOM (2008). Studies conducted in India, Nepal, Vietnam, Western Kenya and Southern Tanzania indicate that migration involves individuals and households moving either permanently or splitting the location of families to more virgin areas. The current migration in Tanzania as reported by Mung'ong'o (1998); Mwamfupe and Mung'ong'o (2003); Mbonile (1996); and Madulu (1998) is sought for as a survival and income earning strategy following the breakdown of livelihood base in the areas of origin. Despite that fact, less is known about the extent to which such survival strategy ensures food security.

This study used Kidea village of Kigoma Rural District Tanzania as a case study to assess the extent to which such mobility behaviour contributes to food security. Since the late 1980s many areas in this district experienced migration of peasants driven by food shortage. To date no study has been conducted in the district to assess the contribution of this mobility

behaviour to food security. In the absence of specific study, it is impossible to give an assessment of how migration contributes to household food security. Specifically, the study aimed at: (i) assessing land ownership status in the study area; (ii) identifying the types of crops grown and their purposes; (iii) assessing the post-harvest food management practices in the study area; (iv) assessing amount of food produced and the length of time it lasted after harvest and (v) assessing food availability and access in the market.

Findings from this study are crucial for indicating village's potential in supporting the migrants and an indication of the extent to which migration is a viable coping strategy to overcome food and income insecurities. Since these migration patterns target forest land and other resources including reserved land and water catchment areas, this study will shed light on the extent to which this mobility pattern is achieved at the expense of these resources. The study will therefore, serve as information source for decision-makers and actors involved in management of natural resources.

Main Text

Methodology

Study area

This study was conducted in Kidea village, located in Kandaga Ward in Kigoma Rural District (Figure 1). A village census carried out in 1992 indicated that Kidea had a total population of 1,125. After 10 years, the population grew by about 70% to 3,760 people. The 2010 village census indicated that the village had a population of 6,267. The majority of people in the village are smallholder farmers (2011 pers. Comm. with Village Chairman). The study area receives between 7–8 months of rainfall and varies between 1000mm and 1,200mm per year. The average temperature ranges from 12⁰C to 20⁰C in June/July to as high as 32⁰C to 35⁰C in August/September (URT, 2008).

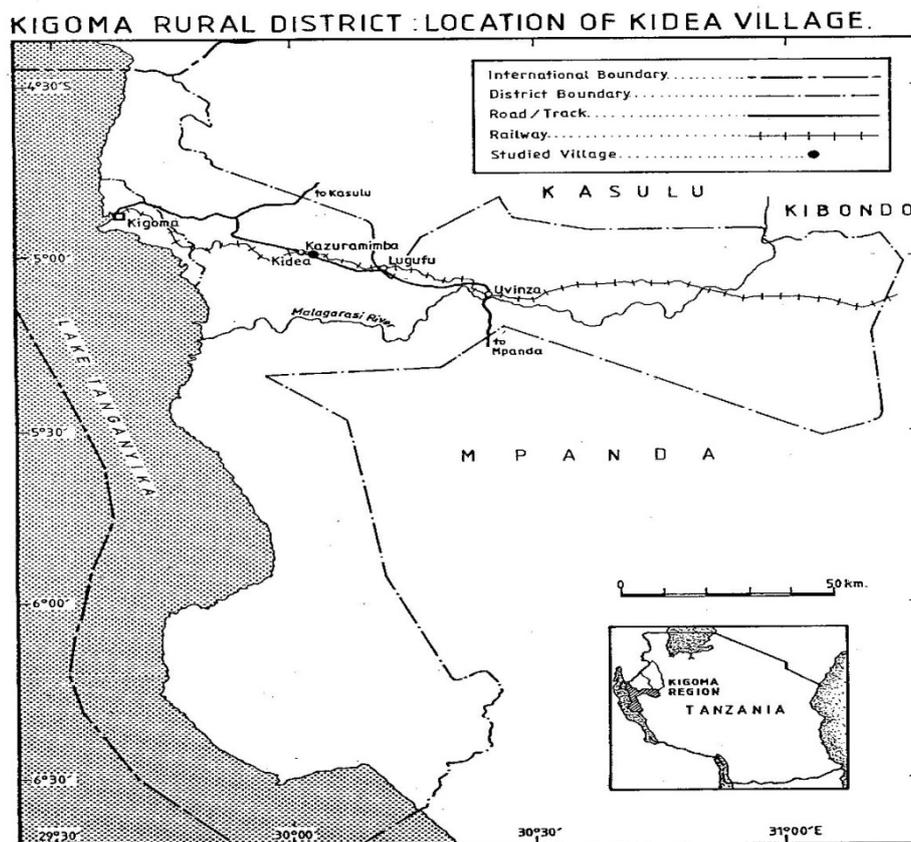


Figure 1: Location of Kidea village

Source: Geography Department, University of Dar es Salaam, 2011.

Data Collection

Secondary data collection was done mainly through literature review to establish what has been studied and what is still missing. Academic and research institutions, regional, district and village offices as well as the internet were used as sources of secondary data. Primary data collection involved the use of household questionnaire administered to heads of households, focus group discussion with 10 purposively selected people, and key informant interviews with the District Agricultural and Livestock Development Officer, a food trader, a farmer and a pastoralist. The methods enabled acquisition of information about knowledge, perspectives and attitudes of people about the impact of their migration decision to food security. The study village had a total of 885 households, unevenly distributed in 5 sub-villages. In each sub-village, a household formed a unit of study. A simple random sampling was used to pick households for study. Seventy five heads of households, equal to 8.5 % of the total migrant heads of households were considered representative for this study.

Results and Discussion

Food security at individual, household and national levels can be measured by many factors including food availability and access; food production; the duration harvested food lasts and the nutritional quality of food consumed (Maxwell & Smith, 1992). With regard to this study household food security was measured using five indicators that are discussed in the following sections.

Land ownership Status

Access to, size, and mode of land acquisition are some of the most important indicators of household food security. When land is available in good quantity and quality and if other production factors are available, households will naturally get the opportunity to produce more food for consumption and market (USAID, 2007). The study found that all respondents owned enough land with about 76% of the respondents owning between 0.5 and 19 acres, and 24% owning between 20 and 79 acres (Table 1). None of the respondents reported to have inadequate land. Land acquisition took several forms including land purchase (53.3%), government allocation (21.3%), acquiring unoccupied land (12.0%), inheritance (5.3%), renting (5.3%) and land sharecropping (2.7%). A small proportion of respondents who rented land were those who had newly migrated to the area and were financially unable to purchase land by that time.

Table 1: Respondents' land ownership status

Mode of Land Acquisition	Number of respondents (n = 75)	%
Purchase	40	53.3
Inheritance	4	5.3
Renting	4	5.3
Government allocation	16	21.3
Acquiring unoccupied land	9	12.0
Land sharecropping	2	2.7
Size of the Land Owned (in acres)	Number of respondents (n = 75)	%
0.5 – 9	34	45.3
10 - 19	23	30.7
20 - 29	9	12.0
30 - 39	3	4.0
40 - 49	2	2.7
50 - 59	2	2.7
60 - 69	1	1.3
70 - 79	1	1.3

Source: Field Survey, 2011

The implication of this finding is that migrants in the study area benefit from possessing secure land tenure. By having secure land tenure, and if other factors were kept constant, implies that majority of migrants had a greater likelihood of engaging in food production because they could maintain rights over the land for the whole duration of investment.

Farmers' perception of the probability that he or she could maintain rights over the land for the duration of the investment is an important variable in achieving food security. The higher the perception of tenure security, the higher would be the farmers expected returns to the investment (Maxwell and Wiebe, 1999). Whereas reduction or outright loss of access to land leads to a reduction in income and food, increased security of tenure in productive resources enables more efficient and productive agricultural production (ibid).

Types of crops grown and their purposes

This study established that all respondents grow a combination of crops at the same time. Maize, cassava, beans, groundnuts and potatoes are the commonly grown crops in the study area. Of the 75 respondents interviewed, 84.0% grew maize, 65.3% cassava and 66.7% grew beans for both food and cash purposes (Table 2). About 84% of the households reported to grow potatoes. On the other hand, sunflower and tobacco are grown by 8.0% and 2.7% of the respondents, respectively.

Table 2: Types and purposes of crops grown by respondents (%)

Proportion of Crops Grown in Percentage (N = 75 in each case)									
Purpose	Maize	Cassava	Beans	G/nuts	Potatoes	Banana	Peas	S/flower	Tobacco
Food	16.0	34.7	28.0	36.0	84.0	24.0	46.7	0.0	0.0
Cash	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	2.7	1.3	8.0	2.7
F & C	84.0	65.3	66.7	34.7	6.7	8.0	4.0	0.0	0.0
D/grow	0.0	0.0	5.3	29.3	9.3	65.3	48.0	92.0	97.3
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Key: F & C= Food & Cash; D/grow = don't grow; G/nuts = groundnuts; S/flower = sunflower

Source: Field Survey, 2011

The advantage of multiple cropping with regard to food security in the study area is twofold. First, it ensures the harvesting of other crops in the event that the main crops (maize and cassava) fail. In this case, investment in crop diversity is used as a coping strategy to accommodate risks and uncertainties from unanticipated unpleasant climatic conditions by spreading it across a variety of crops with different climatic capabilities. This contributes to creating vigorous food crop system that can withstand a wider range of environmental changes (Soul et al., 2009). Second, apart from being used for household food, a portion of certain food crops can be sold to cater for other household requirements as well as investing in farming to increase production.

Most of the crops grown in the area form a major portion of the staple food and have highest per capita consumption rate in the local diet in the study area in particular, and Tanzania, in general (URT, 2008). It was reported that when some or all of these crops fail due to whatever reasons, such as poor rains and pests, most of the households in this village complain that they do not have enough food. This is an indication that these crops are important in sustaining household food security.

Post-harvest Food management Practices

Post-harvest food management (PHFM) practices have great implication on the level of household food security. When food is harvested, it is normally put under different uses depending on the type of food grown, household food requirements and the culture of a place. PHFM practices including food donations and uncontrolled use of food in ceremonies can

reduce the amount of food meant for consumption, thus, endangering both availability and sustained access to adequate food by household members (Abebe and Hundie, 2006).

With regards to how food crops are used after harvest, this study found that household consumption was the main use of food crops while local brewing was the minor. Of the 75 respondents, 96% of them reported to use crops mainly for food while 4% reported to use crops for both household food and local brewing (Figure 2). Majority of respondents reported that local brewing is predominantly carried out using a certain variety of banana which is not suitable for food. In addition, almost all respondents reported occasional incidences of food donations to neighbours and relatives to cater for wedding, funeral and other ceremonies in and outside the village.

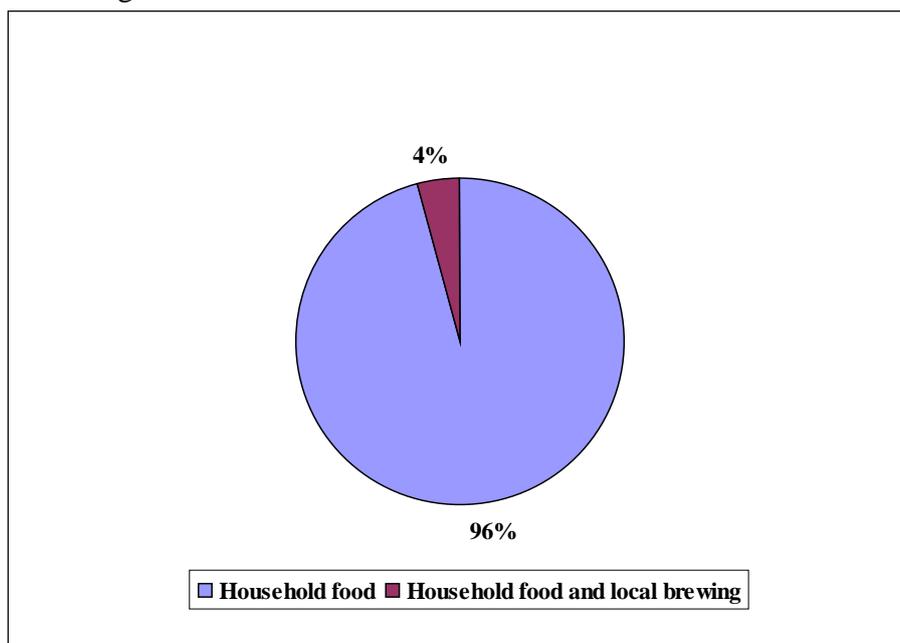
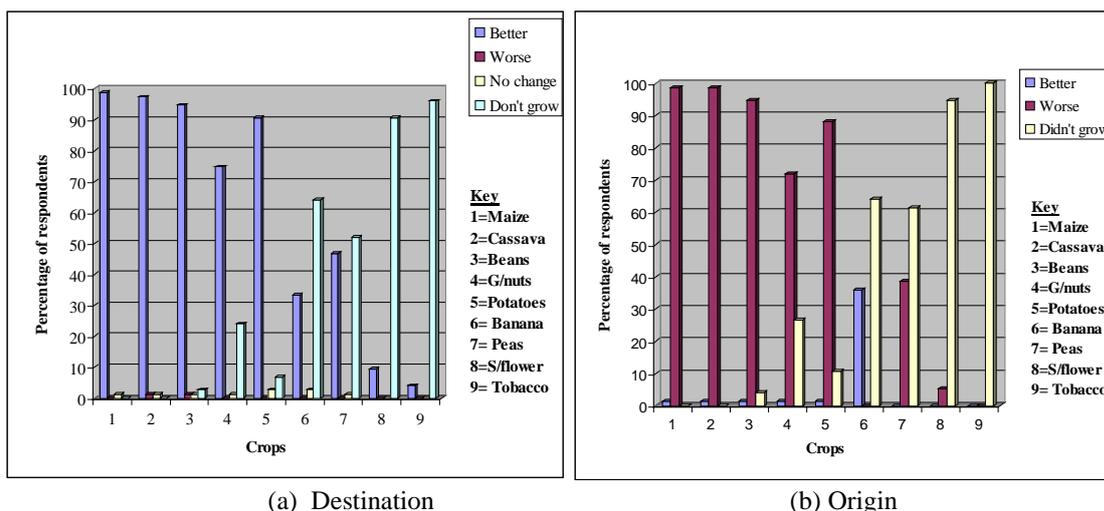


Figure 2: Different uses of harvested crops in Kidea (%)
Source: Field Survey, March 2011

The mere fact that local brewing is predominantly carried out using a certain variety of banana which is not suitable for food; implies that local brewing had no negative impact on food availability and access. In view of the fact that the amount of food donated was small and the incidences of food donations were occasional it can therefore, be argued that local brewing and food donations did not negatively affect household food security.

Amount of Food Crops Produced and Length of Time Food Lasts after Harvest

Almost all respondents were not able to report the amount of food produced per growing season, partly due to poor record keeping. However they were able to compare the amount of food production between their areas of origin and destination. The proportion of respondents reporting better production of maize, cassava, beans, groundnuts and potatoes at the place of destination ranged between 70% and 100%, with maize and cassava accounting for 98% each, beans 95%, groundnuts 71% and potatoes 88% of the total respondents (Figure 3a). On the other hand, more than 90% of the respondents reported worse situation of maize, cassava, beans, groundnuts and potatoes at their places of origin (Figure 3b). Production of banana, peas and sunflower, though reported by a few respondents was better at destination than at origin (Figure 3a).



(a) Destination (b) Origin
 Figure 3: Situation of crop production at destination and origin
 Source: Field Survey, March 2011

The length of time food lasts before the next harvest is a commonly used measure of food security. This study found that 49 respondents (64%) produced food that lasted to the next harvest contrary to 29 respondents (36%) who produced food that did not last to the next harvest. Of the latter case, 20% had food lasting for three quarter of a year, 12% for half a year and 4.0% for quarter of a year (Figure 4). It was also found that some of the respondents who reported to run short of food before the next harvest are those who sold part of it soon after harvest in order to get money for other household requirements including education and medication.

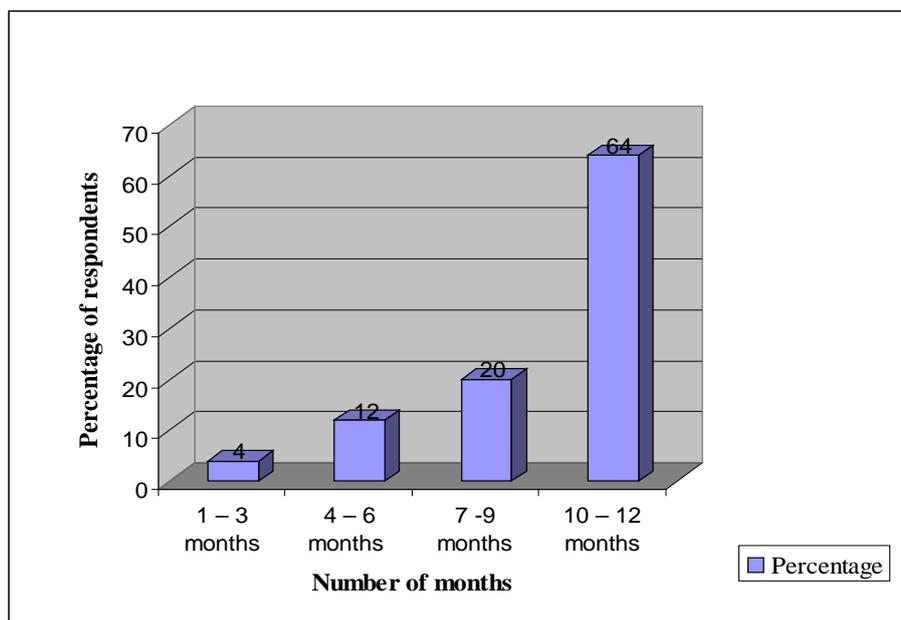


Figure 4: Length of time food lasts before next harvest
 Source: Field Survey, March 2011

The fact that two third of the households produced food that lasted to the next harvest while only one third produced food that did not last to the next harvest is an evidence that majority of households were food secure. Households which produced food that did not last to the next harvest employed a combination of coping strategies including casual labouring, borrowing from neighbours, collection of wild foods, engaging in petty business and

handicraft making to bridge food deficit gap. This implies that households can still maintain stable availability of and access to food in spite of low food production (Arun, 2006).

Food Availability and Access in the Local Market

Availability of the main staple and non-staple food in the market is one of the dimensions of food security. Accordingly, respondents were asked to state whether or not there were adequate staple food crops in the markets and whether the prices were affordable or not. About 98.7% of the respondents reported adequate food crops and affordable prices. A field visit to the village market revealed that the price for 1 Kg of un-milled maize ranged from Tanzanian Shillings (Tshs) 150/- to 200/- while the price for one bundle of dried cassava (equivalent to 5 Kgs when milled) was Tshs.1000/-. During harvest period this price could go as low as Tshs. 500/- per bundle. Prices for beans followed almost similar patterns. Other crops such as groundnuts were usually not sold on retail basis but kept in stores waiting for food traders who buy in bulk.

Depending on the purchasing power, availability of all required food crops in the market ensured households' access to food. When food is available in the markets at an affordable price, the exchange between food-surplus and food-deficit households is also made possible and allows households with different income levels within a livelihood to access adequate food (Braun, 2007).

Conclusion

Migrants' overall perception on the impact of migration on household food security involved comparison of the overall situation of food production, availability and access between the areas of origin and destination. Accordingly, a high proportion of respondents applauding improved access to more and productive farmland, better crop harvest and affordable food prices imply that migration to the study area had positive impact on household food security. Better performance of the commonly grown crops in the area of destination than at places of origin, as reported by majority of respondents, is yet another proof of the positive impact of migration on household food security. The observed multiple cropping system for either food, cash or both purposes helps in creating a strong food crop system that can endure a broader range of environmental vagaries thus, ensuring crop harvest. Coping strategies including casual labouring and borrowing from neighbours which are adopted by food-deficit households is also an assurance to food security as these practices help to bridge the food deficit gap before the next harvest.

Based on the above findings this study recommends that concerted efforts be taken by the regional or district government to curb the persistent food insecurity in the district. To achieve this purpose, migrants in their destinations as well as non- migrants in their places of origin should be assisted with farming inputs in order to maximize crop production per unit area and achieve both food security and environmental conservation. If unchecked prolonged cultivation on a limited area coupled with increasing population in the study village is likely to degrade the soil. Depletion of soil fertility is likely to induce movements to other places which are still virgin thus, achieving food security at the expense of the environment

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NOTE: The text has to be in English, French or Spanish, Times New Roman, font 12, B5 format, single line spacing (do not add space between paragraphs option).

APA citation style recommended.

<http://library.williams.edu/citing/styles/apa.php>

TOURISM STRATEGY OF ALBANIA

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Abstract

Tourism has been identified as a major tool for the development of any country because it is a key role in developing it.

First, it is likely that tourism will be amongst the most important or valuable international business. Second, it is also likely that tourism be utilized as a means for attracting international development financial aid. Third, tourism promotional activities will be used as an instrument for improving a country's image.

Albania is recognized as a tourism destination at the Mediterranean coast and has a competitive position in the international tourism market.

In order to fulfill the mission for achieving the above-mentioned vision, the success of this strategy lies on the partnership of the main actors of tourism sector. The mission of the tourism partners is described as follows:

Welcome the guests and therefore understand hospitality and high quality of service as the most important elements within the tourism product

Protect and even develop actively the environment

Support the culture

On the paper below the stress will be on the tourism strategies because they are very important and the responsible institutions will have to do the needed policies.

Keywords: Tourism, destination, strategy, policy

Introduction

Albania, the Land of Discovery ", explains the present analysis of the tourism potentials of Albania and the strategies that Albania uses in order to use these potentials for the economic development. For this purpose, the directions put forward in this Strategy aim at assuring that Albania highly maximizes the sectors potential and grows tourism in a way that is sustainable: culturally, socially, environmentally and economically. The tourism strategy will therefore:

- assist the sector to manage growth in a way that ensures long-term sustainability
- provide ways manage conflicts between increasing tourism growth and environmental, social and cultural values that are important to Albania and its visitors
- provide the appropriate structure within which industry investment and profitability can be facilitated and maximized (clear responsibilities and cooperation)
- reduce overlaps and gaps within the sector
- secure commitment and funding to tourism from central and local government
- make it easier for operators and investors to do business in the sector
- provide cohesion to strategic directions and strategies

This paper provides you with information about the tourism strategies in Albania and the importance the strategies have for a very developed tourism.

Albania is a land to be loved. In this small Mediterranean country, virgin nature and cultural mysteries combine to create a unique sense of place. From the crisp white snow of the mountains to the red fields of spring poppies, Albania's landscape is ever-changing with

the seasons, offering visitors to enjoy a warm summer beach holiday or a challenging mountain trek in the fall.

In Albania, visitors are welcomed as guests as part of the country's rich cultural traditions and heritage. The warm hospitality of the Albanians will make everyone feel at home in this small wonderful land.

Main Text

Factors that Effect Competitive Advantage in Albania as a New Tourism Destination
Below, there is a list of the main factors that stand in the model of destination competitiveness developed by Dwyer and Kim (2003).

Cultural and Related Factors

From the literature on history, politics and culture comes a recognition that, just as the competitiveness of nations can be influenced by climate, morals, power of the state, cultural values and moral discipline, so too may destination competitiveness be influenced by such variables³⁶. Almost all the interviewees think that what Albania lacks is the communication of these factors while having the appropriate climate, natural recourses, cultural heritage, special environmental areas and the like.

Price Competitiveness

Studies by tourism researchers indicate the price sensitivity of travelers is high in certain markets³⁷. This is a factor that affects tourists' arrivals in Albania as well because of good price/performance trend of competitive destinations in the area like Turkey, Montenegro, and Greece etc. Central government actors think that it is not the trend in itself that affects tourist arrivals in Albania, but moreover the perception of international tourists about this trend. Empirical studies highlight the importance of many other factors influencing the price competitiveness of tourism firms, among which the levels of technology.

Firm-Specific Factors

The main idea is that the competitiveness of a nation stems from companies within that nation, so firm-specific factors that lead to competitiveness should be identified. In order to achieve competitive advantage, the focus should be on the 'development and maintenance of meaningful assets and skills, the selection of strategies and competitive arenas to exploit such assets and skills and neutralizing of competitors' assets and skills'³⁸. Some of these factors are analyzed below for the SMEs in the tourism sector, since they compose the greatest percentage of the industry. But analysis of in-depth interviews shows that marketing strategy of the firms related to the interaction with other actors' action are core to the firm engagement in the competitiveness of the destination. SMEs involved in tourism often rely on the strength and attractiveness of the destination brand for their business. The individual SME has little scope to manipulate or strengthen its brand due to the ownership structure of both tourism SMEs and the destination brand itself. Because the brand belongs to everyone at the destination, and because one SME has little managerial influence over the next one, destination brands often evolve only slowly and with tenuous connections between the brand marketed by the Regional Tourism Organization abroad and the conditions on the ground. So, the importance of networking of different SMESs with tour operators, agencies and regional tourism offices becomes greater especially in the situation of Albania.

³⁶ Franke et al., 1991; World Economic Forum, 2001

³⁷ Lee et al., 1996

³⁸ Aaker, 1989: 105

Perspectives on Destination Competitiveness

Destination competitiveness would appear to be linked to the ability of a destination to deliver goods and services that perform better than other destinations on those aspects of the tourism experience considered to be important by tourists. But, not all the influences on competitiveness are objectively quantifiable. In the tourism context an important distinction will involve the reality of the situation, as indicated in objective measures of competitiveness (e.g. measures of price competitiveness, crime statistics involving tourists as victims), and traveler's perception (e.g. perceptions of relative price levels, perceptions of safety\ security, views about comfort levels and the aesthetic appeal of different types of tourism resources). Indeed, the importance of tourists' perception is such as to warrant separate recognition in a model of destination competitiveness.

From the first interviews of different actors of the tourism industry in Albania and some international tourists we have found that this second group of factors is influencing negatively because of missing knowledge about this country or even worse bad perceptions that exist because of not appropriate available information.

If we have to analyze these key principles for Albania, the first two are related more to strategy and governmental politics about tourism. Albanian government has strengthened the stress on tourism as a leading sector especially in certain areas which have great potentials from the natural and cultural point of view. While the distribution channels and the dynamism of the private sector depends more on the private initiatives although the role of special institutions is not to be neglected. In this globalization era the role of technology and networking is the priority to create the proper networks and distribution channels which can also affect the traveler perceptions about Albania.

General Assessment³⁹

Albania is a beautiful and fascinating country. It has a wide range of historic, cultural and natural attractions that are of great interest to international tourists. The country is safe, and its people are welcoming and friendly. Most importantly, the country is still "authentic." It remains largely unspoiled by foreign influence.

Albania is not an easy tourism destination for international markets to understand. It offers the potential for dozens of distinct tourism activities in dozens of destinations. Individually, all are interesting, but few are unique or sufficiently compelling by themselves to draw international tourists.

The understanding and appreciation – through the "discovery" of Albania – is how the country realizes its maximum tourism potential. Experiences that unlock new discoveries for visitors are the most valuable tourism products in the world.

"Discovery" is of interest primarily to educated, relatively affluent international tourists⁴⁰. This demographic segment spends considerably more for tourism products and their spending patterns are highly favorable for development, as they prefer to interact directly in the communities they visit (shops, restaurants, and other local businesses).

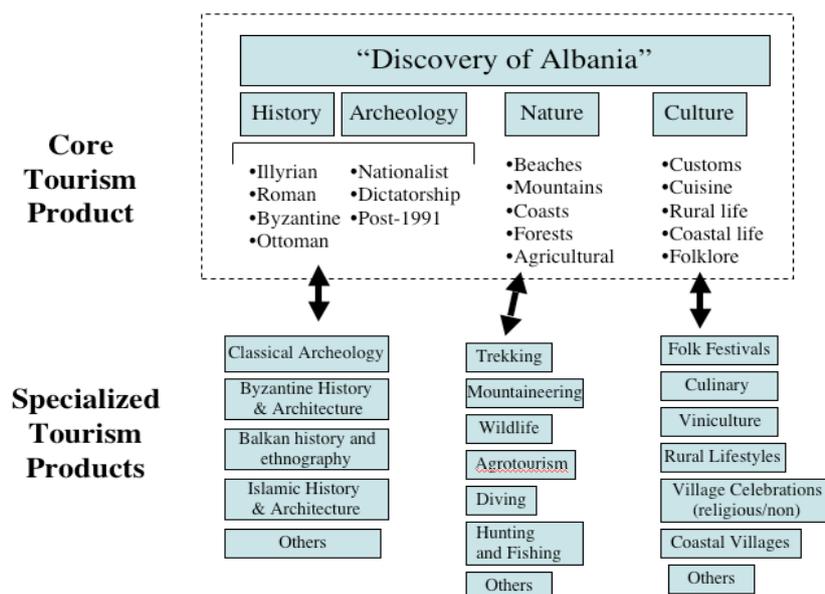
This segment does not make a strong distinction between cultural, natural and other tourism products. Visitors in this segment tend to combine many different activities during their visit, and usually see the various natural and cultural activities as part of the process of discovering the destination.

Albania's core (primary) tourism product must be a general one that encourages visitors to discover the many facets of Albania's culture and nature. Specialized tourism

³⁹ Based on the review of existing tour books, extensive documentation provided by the Ministry, U NDP, ngos and a number of other stakeholders, and site visits to Durres, Vlor a, Llogaraja, Himara, Saranda, Butrint, Gyrokaster, and Berat.

⁴⁰ In most countries, but particularly in wealthy western countries and Japan, there is a direct correlation between level of education and income.

products can and should be developed under the general umbrella, broadening the diversity of products for the core tourism market and specialty markets. Graphic one presents a simple schematic.



Graphic 1: Core and Specialized Tourism Products

Strategic Positioning of Albania Tourism Sector

"Albania is a safe, high-value tourism destination featuring an unparalleled variety of world-class natural and cultural attractions in a small geographic area, managed in an environmentally and socially responsible manner, easily accessible to European tourism markets"⁴¹.

Albania will seek to position itself as an attractive destination for tourists seeking a unique experience featuring high quality cultural sites and nature destinations presented in a truly "authentic" way.

Albania's central product will be the "discovery" of Albania. The product is a presentation of a broad cross-section of Albania's history, nature, archaeology, living culture, cuisine and hospitality. Visitors participating in this discovery will leave with a lasting impression of the diversity, complexity and beauty of the culture and the land.

Albania will specialize in attracting educated, independent travelers and specialized group travelers. The principal target markets will be upper-middle income individuals from Europe (primarily northern Europe and the United Kingdom) and North America. This segment represents the demographic segment with the highest willingness to pay for Albania's unique products, and whose spending patterns will most contribute to advancing development goals.

Albania's strength will be in creating value for tourists in a wide variety of geographic locations. This approach opens more of the country to "discovery", which:

- creates spaces for the diverse local culture to express itself, in particular the customs and traditions of the various regions of the country.
- allows more provincial and rural communities to participate in, and benefit from, tourism visitation and development.

In keeping with the concept of authenticity, lodging, dining and other hospitality elements will be developed wherever possible in small to medium-scale, locally-owned

⁴¹ "Toward a Strategy for Culture Tourism and Ecotourism Development." Ministry of Tourism, Culture, Youth and Sport. November 2005.

businesses. This approach reinforces visitor connections with the cities and sites and creates greater income generation in the communities.

Ensuring repeat visits and achieving “word of mouth” recommendations will be the key to sustainable tourism development. This ultimately will depend on the long-term quality of cultural sites and nature destinations and the overall experience of visitors based on the knowledge and interpretation of their guides.

Justification

Albania has excellent tourism development potential. Many cultural and natural resource attractions are of very high quality and would likely receive high levels of visitation if they were more widely publicized within target populations.⁴²

Albania can position itself successfully upon its impressive comparative advantages of high quality sites in a close geographic area, and create an identifiable position in the international market place based on the discovery of the country.

More important for Albania, however, are the trends in tourism preferences. Culture, adventure and “ecotourism”⁴³ are considered to be the fastest growing tourism markets worldwide. “Theme” travels centered on special-interest activities such as discovery and adventure, sports, and education are increasingly popular.

The experience tourists seek is increasingly valued not only on the quality of destinations or activities, but also on the conformity of the lodging facilities and management practices with environmental guidelines.

Albania appears to be ideally situated to meet the shifting demands of an increasingly nature and culture oriented tourism market.

Challenges

The development of Albania’s tourism sector presents a number of challenges. There are general tourism development that all countries face as they enter international markets, and specific challenges related to establishing a successful nature and culture-based destination. Three however, are particularly critical.

- Large-scale sun and sand tourism presented in all-inclusive packages in isolated tourism complexes will likely do great harm to the country’s efforts to build a high-value sector. The massive sun and sand tourism is a highly competitive segment that attracts primarily discount-oriented travelers. The arrival of large numbers of this tourism segment tends to make destinations much less attractive to higher-end tourists. A similar effect has been observed with the arrival of large cruise ships.

- Tourism growth can be slow in the early years. If successful, the sector will begin small, but grow rapidly as it gains a positive international reputation. While it will be possible to observe progress and measure advances with meaningful indicators, the tangible benefits critical for ongoing political support and commitment will be observed in the medium term.

- The concept of sustainability is built into the strategic position by necessity. Without aggressive efforts to ensure the sustainability of the natural and cultural resources, Albania cannot reasonably expect to maintain a market position capable of attracting international tourists. Without involving the local communities and providing real opportunities to participate in and benefit from the development process, the attractions will continue to be degraded, or converted to other economic uses – nearly all of which offer much less long-term development potential than tourism.

⁴² Albania: Guide to its Natural Treasures, ECAT-Tirana, Tirana 20 00.

⁴³ The International Ecotourism Society (TIES, at www.ecotourism.org) defined ecotourism as “responsible travel to natural areas that conserves the environment and improves the well-being of local people.”

Action Plan

This section presents a plan for the country to advance its tourism sector and tackle its principle challenges within the context of the strategy presented above and the existing policy, legal and institutional structure.

In operational terms, the country is ready to move forward with its tourism sector.

“The country has the capacity today to receive substantially more overnight international tourists than it is currently receiving. Although the country is not ready for aggressive marketing to broad international markets, it is absolutely ready to receive tens of thousands of additional adventurous, “pioneering” tourists who are willing to be flexible and “forgiving” in exchange for being among the first to experience a unique new destination”⁴⁴.

The numerous challenges that Albania faces must be addressed, but most need not be solved prior to beginning tourism promotion. However, due to the interrelated nature of the identified challenges, the country must begin work immediately in a number of areas in order for tourism to grow effectively.

The specific items of the Action Plan are presented as priorities in six different areas.

- Awareness and Marketing
- Product Development
- Investments in Nature Areas to Strengthen the Tourism Sector
- Investments in Culture to Strengthen the Tourism Sector
- Human Resources
- Enhancement of Tourist Experience

Awareness and Marketing

Albania must work at multiple levels to: increase awareness of the country, increase positive associations with Albania, consolidate a unifying theme to link the country’s tourism product with international markets, convince market opinion-leaders that the country is worth visiting, increase contact between specialized outbound travel companies in target markets and local tourism companies (inbound operators, outfitters, hotels, etc), establish a credible internet-based presence, and establish a sustainable structure for continued marketing efforts.

Awareness and Positive Association

This must be a diplomatic and political effort. Coverage in the international press continues to be neutral to negative. Albania has not managed this aspect of its public image very successfully. Tourism, nature and culture provide excellent opportunities for senior officials to communicate positive messages. Every time the Prime Minister or other senior officials visit a target market country (particularly Germany, UK, US and northern Italy), he or she should set aside time to promote tourism to select audiences and to the media.

Action Item 1.1 Development of a national tourism press kit and stand, with printed materials, video, scripts and other materials to permit easy presentation of the country in any priority location.

Action Item 1.2 Increase positive media coverage in target markets. Albania must be more aggressive in communicating positive messages in target markets. Positive news on natural and cultural issues should provide substantial benefits.

Action Item 1.3 Work closely with Albanian Diaspora. It is very important that Albanians abroad feel proud and willing to visit Albania with relatives and friends.

Consolidate a Unifying Theme to Link the Country’s Tourism Product with International Markets

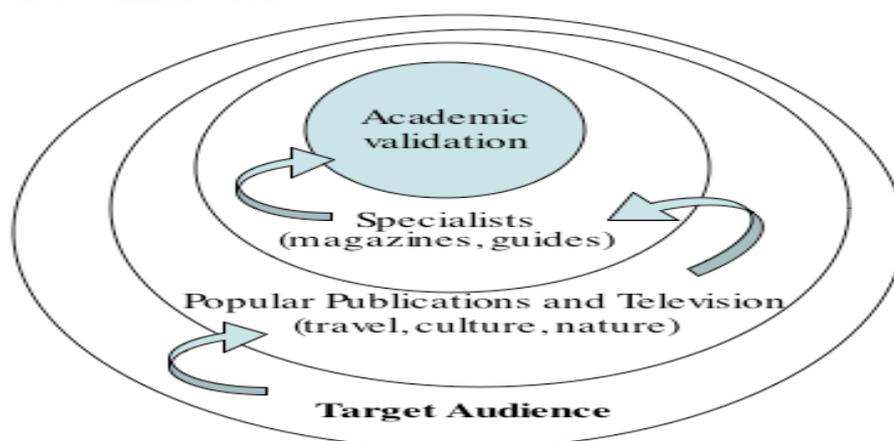
⁴⁴ “Albania: Integrated Coastal Management and clean-up Program: site management framework” SIM-Spa and iMed for World Bank 2005.

Today Albania is using a number of different themes to present itself – two can be found on the official tourism website and others in different promotional materials. This takes away focus and could eventually create confusion. The country needs professional assistance in selecting and designing a theme that reflects the national cultural and environmental strategy, and the image the country wishes to portray to the world, and connects these with a message that finds a proven resonance within the target market group that the country is seeking to attract.

Action Item 1.4 Hire an international public relations firm with experience in the strategic positioning of tourism destinations. This is imperative. There are decades of experience, knowledge, science and art behind the design of market positioning. The process includes creative design process, analysis of potential opens, testing of the concept in various target markets and other steps to guarantee the strength and clarity of the message.

Convince Market Opinion-Leaders that the Country is Worth Visiting

Specialized products are only successful in the tourism market if their qualities are “validated” by respected opinion leaders. For a destination such as Albania, the most important opinion-leaders are frequently writers and publishers of articles, journals, and guidebooks oriented toward nature, culture and travel. Occasionally they are travel companies known for “discovering” new destinations. The model of validation can be depicted as concentric circles (see Graphic 2), with each ring looking to the next inner ring for advice and recommendations.



Graphic 2: Concentric circles of information marketing Action⁴⁵

Action Item 1.5 Engage in an aggressive effort to increase Albania’s visibility in opinion-leader publications.

Sub-item 1.5.1 Albania must conduct a study, in conjunction with the public relations firm identified above; to determine which publications and information sources the desired target market uses to make decisions to travel to a destination. Since much of early-stage tourism development is by “word of mouth”, a secondary objective is to identify the decision processes of the “pioneering visitors.”

Sub-item 1.5.2 Increase coverage and currency of Albania in tour guidebooks directed at independent “adventurous” travelers.

Increase Contact between Specialized Outbound Travel Companies in Target Markets and Local Tourism Companies

Action Item 1.6 Increase presence at major fairs where nature, culture adventure and “alternative” tourism destinations are featured. Trade fairs are considered by most country-

⁴⁵ Albania: The Bradt Travel Guide (Bradt Travel Guides Ltd), 20 05

promoters as a “necessary evil.” Albania’s participation in these fairs must be coordinated under the unifying national theme to maintain focus on the message and with clear objectives to achieve as a country, not just individual organizations.

Action Item 1.7 Establish an International Tourism Fair in Albania. The best place to show Albania is Albania. International expertise on tourism fair organization should be secured.

Credible Internet-Based Presence.

Action Item 1.8 Strengthen Albania’s presence on the internet. The National Tourism Organization’s web site (<http://www.albaniantourism.com>) is a good initial effort to ensure ensuring that potential visitors can find basic information on the country.

Establish a Sustainable Structure for Continued Marketing Efforts

Action Item 1.9 Establish a permanent financial structure that ensures a consistent marketing budget each year and allocation of that budget toward nationally agreed-upon marketing priorities.

Product Development

The general tourism strategy establishes the overall framework for tourism centered on the discovery of Albania through its nature and culture.

Action Item 2.1. Establish mechanisms to support local efforts to bring culture and nature products to market. The first step of this process is to identify the needs of the tourism sector, local government and civil society sector in each region. The second step will be to design a support plan to assist the local actors in whatever way resources permit.

Action Item 2.2 Establish and publish recommended tourism routes and activities for each city-region. With the assistance of the national government, the private sector and NGOs, each tourism center must articulate recommended tourism itineraries for visitors – designed in blocks of half days, full days, two days, etc. The routes will be presented with detailed information, photographs and other materials in electronic and printed form, and distributed on the web and in print format to visitors. The recently published compact disk “Albania Nature Monuments,” produced by the Ministry of Environment with support from the Global Environmental Facility (GEF) Small Grants Program is an outstanding contribution to this effort.

Investments in Nature Areas to Strengthen the Tourism Sector

Albania has a long tradition in protected areas management, with substantial legislation and technical expertise. Budget constraints have led to institutional limitations that threaten the legitimacy of the system, and perhaps even its viability. Nature areas (in particular protected areas) are one of the three “jewels in the crown” of Albanian tourism.

Action Item 3.1 Establish long-term financial mechanisms. New mechanisms and structures must be established to ensure increased funding for nature areas’ protection and tourism development.

Action Item 3.2 Accelerate the development and approval of tourism plans for nature areas. Albania must establish an accelerated process for establishing tourism plans in a number of identified priority nature areas with tourism relevance (due to the attraction itself and its proximity to tourism centers).

Action Item 3.3 Instill a culture of “National Park” among Albanians, beginning with Dajti. This effort will focus on three particular aspects of Dajti to begin to educate Albanians on the importance of “enjoying and caring for parks.” De-militarization, reinvestment of entrance fees and waste management should be the program priorities.

Investments in Culture to Enhance Tourism Development

Albania has a long tradition in cultural preservation, with substantial legislation and technical expertise. The needs for cultural preservation in a country with such a rich history will always exceed its ability to protect and restore.

Action Item 4.1 Establish long-term financial mechanisms. New mechanisms and structures must be established to ensure increased funding for cultural site protection and tourism development.

Action Item 4.2 Improved cultural access in museums. The most common weakness cited by Albanian and foreign visitors to the country's museums is the lack of meaningful interpretive information. There are three complementary strategies to be explored as printed material for individual galleries, trained guides, and new electronic guiding systems.

Sub-item 4.3.1 Begin a pilot project in the National Historical Museum to implement an electronic guiding system.

Action Item 4.3 Support, enhance and publicize cultural events and folk festivals. Living culture is a highly sought-after tourism product. A great number of tourists seek to plan their travels to coincide with important folk events (dance and music competitions, religious events, feast days, local town celebrations, important dance and music performances, etc).

Sub-item 4.4.1 Publicize existing events. Albania has a great number of these events that should be, at a minimum, well documented and placed in an "official national calendar of cultural events." This information should be published on the national tourism website, and include history of the event, descriptions of the activities, photographs and sound-bites, and links to tourism companies capable of providing services.

Sub-item 4.4.2 Develop a long-term plan to direct government and private sector support to priority cultural events of interest to foreign visitors.

Human Resources

Albania must invest in several critical human resources for the tourism sector to develop effectively.

Action Item 5.1 Establishment of an "Elite" Tourism Guide Corps. Ensuring repeat visits and achieving "word of mouth" recommendations will be the key to sustainable tourism development. Because of the complexity of Albania, the knowledge and interpretation provided by the country's best tour guides will be perhaps the single most important factor for successful tourism development.

Action Item 5.2 Train hospitality professionals and staff. Albania will require many more well-trained individuals in order to support an international tourism sector.

Action Item 5.3 Enhance language skills. Albania is a remarkably multilingual society. Additional effort needs to be directed at ensuring that tourism industry personnel, particularly those in provincial and rural areas possess the basic foreign language skills to needed to effectively conduct their jobs.

Enhancement of Tourist Experience

Action Item 8.1 Prevent Physical Risk to Visitors.

Albania must avoid the death or severe illness of tourists at all costs. While tourists understand that there is some risk in all travel, they expect a country to take reasonable provisions for their safety.

The four greatest concerns identified by international visitors, tour guidebook authors and a number of local experts are:

Sub-item 8.1.1 Improve safety on roads.

Sub-item 8.1.2 Increase disease prevention awareness.

Sub-item 8.1.3 Improve food safety practices through education campaigns in the hospitality sector and vocational schools. Priority areas should include 1) personal hygiene, 2) application of best practices in the handling of meat, poultry, fish and shellfish, 3) water temperature and cleaning techniques.

Sub-item 8.1.4 Emergency medical attention. Albania must put in place a national system for treating visitors who become seriously ill or injured.

Action Item 8.2 De-militarization of tourism destinations. The heavy police presence on roads, in coastal areas and mountain destinations is a strongly negative factor. This presence sends a message of insecurity to foreign visitors in a country that is remarkably free of crime, violence, or political problems. "Visits always give pleasure; if not the arrival, the departure"

Conclusion

In our tourism development strategy, the objectives definition aims to achieve as follows:

Objective 1: To promote Albania as a touristic destination in order to attract attention of the touristic operators from the goal markets on their strategic level, giving opportunity to: - areas with natural and cultural inheritance, and - touristic products and images creation.

Objective 2: To continue the process of Albania promotion as a touristic destination by publication of promotional materials and notably of display advertising in all the media that attracts tourists.

Objective 3: The execution of politics for the promotion of preemptively tourism development areas. The purpose is to attract Albanian and foreign investments in these areas.

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Based on the review of existing tour books, extensive documentation provided by the Ministry, U NDP, NGOs and a number of other stakeholders, and site visits to Durres, Vlora, Llogaraja, Himara, Saranda, Butrint, Gyrokaster, and Berat.

Franke et al., 1991; World Economic Forum, 2001

Lee et al., 1996

Aaker, 1989: 105

CRUISING TOURISM: DIFFERENTIATION THROUGH THE CHARACTERISTICS OF CRUISING ROUTE

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Abstract

The problem of the research is to evaluate the impact properties of cruising routes to its differentiation. Perceived characteristics of routes by the target clients are defining valuation of the service, and the resolving dilemma for prices. The subject is the evaluating determinants of the cruising route's characteristics (functional, social, and emotional). Cruising product is no longer selected primarily for the cruising service, but for the content of cruising route. The approach called "the land sea cruising in product development" is increasingly becoming an area of interest. The authors want to determine the affirmative characteristics that contribute the perception of cruising route. The main objectives of research were: determining the direction of the effects of the individual cruising route characteristics on service value's perception, and providing an evaluation model of the route's characteristics, explaining the cruising product value's perception, and indicating significance variables of attraction. The following questions are offered to answer: What factors of cruising tourism are determining the value's perception for a guest in the selection of cruising route; What are the determinants of cruising routes that prospective customers consider when assessing its value; How does each of the identified determinants affect the overall perceived value of the cruise route; How the overall perceived value of the cruise route affects customer behavior intentions. Based on the research work, authors have offered a new evaluation model of the cruising route differentiation, which represents a contribution to the research.

Keywords: Cruising, value, perception

Introduction

The reason for this research is the aspiration for defining characteristics and relationship variables of cruising routes as an integrated tourist product, for better differentiation. The research will identify important features of cruising routes, which determine its choice, or the skepticism by potential cruise guests.

Preliminary research made by the authors reveals that tourist destinations provided by cruising route present variable of great importance. Managing these variables can result in positive or negative repercussions in the guest's selection. Insights from the research could, also, be used in the evaluation of value determinants in destinations selection. It is important to recognize factors that determine the perceived value of cruising routes. Systematic analysis of the authors and other's previous research are going to be used (Šerić, Luković, 2010) for designing a new model that would better explain the layered causal relationships among these variables. Such model can explain the formation of perceptual value of the destination product from the point of cruising guests.

In the cruise tourism marketing goes through operational and tactical processes and becomes an important organizational function of the cruising company. Marketing in cruising tourism not only represents a driving force to attract clientele, but also a mean of communication with the target population, so that nautical products can be offered and introduced across all its peculiarities and the component variables. The ship has become only a tool, while the offered route whose attractiveness highly influences the impression of the guests has become crucial.

Marketing managers are now making important strategic decisions such as: selection and promotion of the destinations features that cruising route includes; Selection and promotion of partial tourist products during the cruise; Balancing price policy for cruising route depends on destinations etc. A very important factor in understanding the competitiveness of offered cruising products is the guest's perceived value.

Perceived value when selecting a service provider

Consumer behavior in cruising segment includes all the activities and influences in the selection of the specific cruise route. These activities result in decisions and actions related to a defined price, selection and reselection of cruising company (Cannot, Brink and Brijball, 2006). The findings on facts how the target clients think, feel and on what basis make decisions, allow accurate analysis, forecasting, control and influence on the process of making strategic business decisions (Crouch, Perdue, Timmermans & Uysal, 2004). Mudi and Pirrie (2006) argue that there are two concepts related to the consumption of services, expectations and perceptions. Expectations reflect the customer's expectations of "what will happen", structured as a pre-experience of the future. Buyer perceptions are subjective evaluation of services, particularly in relation to prior expectations. Because of these proven facts cruising companies should be of primary importance to ensure a continuous flow of information about the behavior of their guests. This behavior represents an effective starting point for developing appropriate marketing strategies (Cravens & Piercy, 2003). Imperative for any cruising company should be required to consistently differentiate, or distinguish itself from its competitors by offering higher value to their customers (Cannot et al. 2006). Previous studies from many marketing researchers (Cravens & Piercy, 2003) agree that knowledge about the perception of the value is a key instrument in attaining a competitive advantage based on the offer differentiation. Understanding the difference between consumers' perceptions and their expectations will significantly affect the effort to improve the perceived value (Mudi & Pirrie, 2006). Gallarza and Saura (2006) argue that consumer behavior can be understood better if analyzed through the perspective of perceived value. Such an approach enables further explanation of the products selection and repetitive purchases. De Bono (1993) states that the cognitive value presents the main motivator of purchase intentions. Since it is proven that the consumer behavior can be influenced by marketing activities, cruising companies should be focused on activities that may contribute to a higher perceived value of the cruising route. The perceived value significantly depends on the destination and destination's offer that route covers. According to Zeithaml et al. (1996), there are favorable and unfavorable behavioral intentions. They found that positive perceptions of customer value have a positive impact on their behavioral intentions. Ultimately, it is obvious that understanding of perceived value may have significant practical advantages for cruising companies. It is necessary to evaluate the perceived value through the position of the cruising customer in the focus of selected marketing strategies. This approach focuses on the process of creating value for clients in order to gain competitive advantage. Understanding how existing and potential guests evaluate offered cruising routes in relation to competition will ultimately influence defining their selection.

Today, cruising companies are no longer passive observers trying to discover the intentions and desires of their clients relying on high quality accommodation and ancillary services offered. Increasingly, companies collaborate with the cruise guests as co-creators of the value of offered route. Acceptance of this concept has allowed the prediction of guest perceptions, analyzing their expectations and guiding their behavior to directly influence the decision-making processes (Lush & Vargo, 2006). Clients select a route (as a product) in order to meet some of their needs or desires, often without complete information about other similar products at the cruising market. Nevertheless, cruising customer is sometimes unsure of the overall quality of the product he evaluates if there is no experience with the same company. This uncertainty in the phase of selecting a product for purchase is a long-proven in the marketing (Nelson, 1970). Many decisions are taken as the optimization of some customer's dilemma. The customer is striving to achieve the highest possible value for money, and maximize benefits. In the cruising market, there are also imperfect and asymmetric information about the cruising routes, and the quality looking from the experiential aspect of perception. It is essentially important to perceive what cruising customer values, in order to recognize their intentions with respect to the selection offered cruising route. What does the cruising customer really expects of its overall shopping experience? Which offered attributes of cruising routes are the most important in perceptual evaluation of cruise offer? Some earlier studies (Luković, Šerić 2009) have indicated that the value perception of cruising routes is often related to the attractiveness of destinations and partial destination products that routes include.

Term of value in evaluation of cruising routes

Primarily it is important to define what presents value for cruising customer, of what kind it can be, and how he perceives the value of cruising, while taking into account the advantages and disadvantages of particular choices. Many authors define the concept of value at a general level. So Woo (1992) identified four fundamental significance kinds of value for the customer:

Value is what presents a true value in terms of welfare and life of the individual and society as a whole. This value is reflected in what the customers are trying harder in life.

Value refers to what society in general is considered as significant, regardless the way those values actually contribute to the betterment.

The value can be related to what the individual is considered worthy to own, in fact, what he yearns for. This meaning is individual and subjective.

Value refers to the degree or amount of properties that buyers consider essential for the specific object of observation that want to maximize the pleasure of purchasing or using the same. This value is derived from the purchase.

Starting with the platform in the cruise tourism can also be spoken about four categories of value for cruising guests: internal value, exchange or transaction value, use value, and utilitarian value. In making strategic business decisions, it is necessary to analyze whether these values are based on subjective assessments, or object-oriented (individual vs. collective valuation), and take into account whether the value is measured in terms of market characteristics, or customer sacrifices. The internal value of cruising routes is based on an objective assessment of the route value, regardless of market conditions. In cruising tourism, this value can be evaluated as the attractiveness and perception of experiential destination that route covers (Šerić, 2009). When is measured, value of the internal gains. In the case of cruising tourism, it would cover the number of destinations included in the route, each destination attractiveness, diversity of partial tourist attractions of those destinations etc. The exchange value of cruising routes are also based on the objective characteristics, but is influenced by the market conditions. In this case the value characteristics of cruising routes

will be evaluated through the tourism constants, which greatly depend on the availability of funds for tourism products of the target population. Use value of cruising routes is based on the subjective experience, and shows how individuals assess the route during, or immediately after sailing. It is affiliated with the benefits that cruising guest realize by choosing a route, and it is subjective because it depends on the individual assessment (photos taken on the route for one guest presents just a family souvenir, and for professional photographers are embodied financial capital). The utilitarian value is also subjective-oriented, and is tied to the point where the inner and usability of cruising routes are compared with the sacrifice of the client (money and time). According to Woodall (2003), the utilitarian approach is based on balancing the positive and negative sides. The value is considered as the outcome of the comparison of sacrifices and personal benefits, which is resulted in essentially utilitarian nature. The utilitarian approach assumes that the value of each customer is often different, because of personal subjective valuation of each guest.

Value in the case of cruising tourism is primarily determined and analyzed from the aspect of observed customer, and exists only in the terms of customers (Piercy 1997). Woodall's (2003) conceptual model represents different kinds of value and impact of human values on these types of values. It is assumed that consumers are leaded by human values (eg, quality of life, origin) in their daily decisions that affect the criteria by which decisions are taken. Human values defined in this kind are considered as factors affecting the valuation (Woodall 2003). These four types of values illustrate the differences in the meaning of value and difficulties in developing the concept of value. For the cruise tourism industry, different types of value may have more or less significant role in creating the total value of cruising routes, depending on various factors in the environment, but also the value systems of targeted guests.

Research: perceived value of cruising routes

The perceived value of cruising routes is a fundamental starting point for research that aims to improve the competitiveness of the cruise company. Perceived value of cruising route is one of the main determinants in the selection of cruise products, based on what is considered. It is important to create a superior perception of product value as an imperative of effective marketing communication. In order to make specific cruising route accepted on the market it is important that the value perceptions of the target clientele are based on its actual superiority. The same is, in addition to variable of quality and variety of accommodation on the boat, achieved through the components of the destination route. Incorrect perceptions regarding the selection of cruising routes as well as an excellent perception of the value of a new cruise route will not result in a long-term market success of the route, neither of cruising company.

There is always present a dilemma: how to recognize the value for cruising guests? Perceived value is a multidimensional concept that is difficult to define and measure. The perceived value of the cruising routes is affected by many variables that are part of the benefits perceived by the cruising guests. In a marketing theory, the compilation of Woodal (2003) about the evaluation value for the consumer is very interesting. The most commonly used terms for perceived value are: "perceived value" (Chang & Wildt 1994, as cited in Woodal 2003), "the value for the client" (Anderson & Naruse 1998; Holbrook 1994, 1996; Oh 2000, as cited in Woodal 2003), "value" (Berry & Yadav 1996; De Ruyter et al. 1997; Ostrom & Iacobucci 1995, as cited in Woodal 2003), and "value for money" (Sirohi et al 1998; Sweeney et al. 1999, as cited in Woodal 2003). Somewhat less used terms are: "the value for the customer" (Reichheld 1996, as cited in Woodal 2003), "the value for customers" (Treacy & Wiersema 1993, as cited in Woodal 2003), "customer perceived value" (Grönroos 1997, as cited in Woodal 2003), "perceived customer value" (Chen &

Dubinsky 2003; Lai 1995, as cited in Woodal 2003), “customer value” (Holbrook 1999, as cited in Woodal 2003), “the consumption value” (Sheth, Newman & Gross 1991, as cited in Woodal 2003), “the value of services” (Bolton & Drew 1991, as cited in Woodal 2003), “the transaction value” (Grewal et al. 1998; Parasuraman & Grewal 2000, as cited in Woodal 2003), “the net value for the client” (Butz & Goodstein 1996, as cited in Woodal 2003), “the perceived value of the service” (LeBlanc & Nguyen 2001, as cited in Woodal 2003), “the consumer benefits” (Brynjolfsson et al. 2003, as cited in Woodal 2003) and “the expected value” (Huber et al. 1997, as cited in Woodal 2003). By analyzing these approaches it can be well developed a potential cruising route that would be innovated, differentiated and competitive product on the cruising market.

In the conducted research of the author (Šerić, 2011) in the context of the open questions about the concept of the cruising routes value, which was conducted at the specialist sample (40 women and 40 men who were at least 5 times the visitors of different cruising routes) of reputable cruise company answers can be grouped as follows:

- The value of cruising route presents its content that attracts me (25 responses);
- The value of cruising route is the amount of new experiences and adventures (15 responses);
- The value of cruising route is its originality (14 responses);
- The value of cruising route is covered by the attractiveness of the covered destinations (12 responses);
- The value of cruising route is the quality of accommodation and experience for its price (6 responses);
- The value of cruising route is a lower price with more destinations covered (4 responses);
- The value of cruising route is the quality of accommodation and meals on boat (2 responses)
- The values of cruising route are the facilities for the passengers on board (1 response);
- The values of cruising routes are the facilities for the passengers on board and on land (1 response).

Starting from these insights, the perceived value of cruising routes can be defined as an overall assessment of its benefits through the all new experiences and costs. This definition is consistent with a universal definition of perceived value (Al-Sabbahy et al, 2004; Gallarza & Saura, 2006; Petrick, 2004). It is important to emphasize the importance of a destination as a partial variable that significantly determines the perceived value of cruising routes. Especially it is necessary to take into account the current trends in the cruise tourism industry, because the concept of cruising product quality that were used primarily (which was based on the higher quality of accommodation and related services) is today transformed into the content of cruising routes. Considering that the understanding of cognitive value is closely associated with understanding of consumer behavior, perceived value of cruising routes should be evaluated through the benefits and the price. That is also directly pointed as one of the prevailing responses in the conducted survey (Šerić, 2011). From the obtained responses, it is evident that the cruising customers evaluate a combination of perceptions about cruising route quality with the perception of prices for what it offers. Perceived value of cruising routes thus, greatly depends on the attractiveness of destinations and facilities that cruising route includes. In the context of the arguments that may result in unacceptance of the specific cruising route offer, conducted research (Šerić, 2011) obtained responses that can be summarized as follows:

- The distrust that the promised facilities of the route would be completely satisfactorily realized (26 responses);

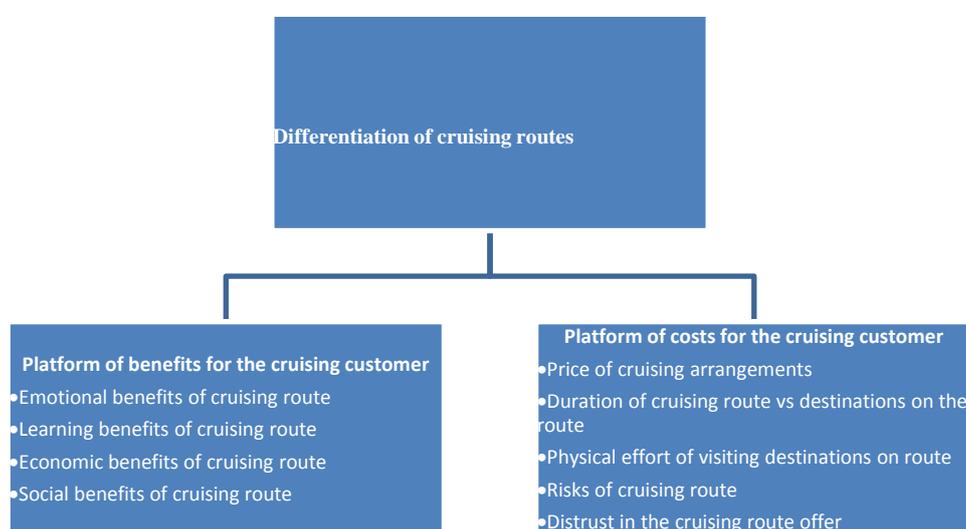
- Insufficient communication and responses to the customer queries about the route (18 responses);
- A small number of route destinations and additional contents considering the price (16 responses);
- Selecting a cruising route from a new cruising company for the first time (8 responses);
- Fear that the planned destinations tour and its facilities would be physically exhausting (6 responses);
- Various risks associated with cruising route (navigation conditions, bad weather, etc.) (6 answers).

It is interesting that in the explanation of these responses, destination was a very significant variable. Thus, the most common response to the argument of not accepting a certain cruising offer is that the program seems as inconclusive due to overly destinations that the route provides. The argument related to inadequate information in the communication about the route is often stated that they did not receive concrete answers to questions regarding the route of the destination. Apparent paradox is that some respondents emphasize a fear that the route would be exhausting due to a number of planned destinations, and for others disincentive acts too few destinations that the route provides.

Evaluation model of cruising routes differentiation

Starting from the findings presented in the designed model of estimating the perceived value of cruising routes it is necessary to evaluate two platforms: platform of benefits and the platform of costs for the customer. It is important to note that the cost platform for the customer should include the opportunity costs as well (time spent on the cruising route, physical effort, etc.).

Figure 1. Evaluation model of cruising routes differentiation



Source: Author's analyses, 2013.

The platform of benefits for the cruising guests that are associated with the perceived value includes:

- Emotional benefits (affective uses) of the cruising route - new experiences and adventures, attractive destinations, attractive partial destination products;
- Educational benefits of cruising tours (tours of new and unknown destinations, getting to know the local customs and cultural heritage of destination on the route);

- Economic benefits of cruising routes - the total cost of the destinations tour on the route compared with the same experience achieved from a different form of tourist travel and stay;
- Social benefits of cruising routes - the benefits associated with the recommendations of acquaintances to select route, tourism trends and fads, meeting new people with similar values and attitudes, etc.

Cost platform associated with the customer perceived value of cruising routes in the proposed model includes:

- The cost of the perceived cruising route price - the perception of potential cruise guest whether the price is higher than expected for the presented content (number and attractiveness of the destination that the route provides);
- The cost of the perceived duration of the cruising route compared with the destinations and facilities that the route assumes. In addition the customer evaluates the perception of time spent on transfers to certain destinations, etc.
- Perceived physical strain of a tour for the planned destination and destination content on the route - in accordance with the age of a target customer;
- The perception about different risks on the cruising route - internal (related to the cruising company, and the ship) and external (related to the environment along the route, weather conditions at sea, and all tour planned destinations);
- Perception about the lack of confidence in cruising route offer - confidence in the cruise company, lack of confidence in the quality of content implementation that the route provides (inconclusiveness regarding the amount of questionable quality and content of cruising route).

This variable has a significant relationship with previous negative experiences of the individual. The definition and evaluation of the cruising route value perception suggests a relationship between benefits and costs. In accordance with the findings of the study and proposed model, it is important to emphasize, that the price is not the only sacrifice that cruising customer pays for. In addition to monetary and non-monetary costs, the reputation of the cruise company and the expected quality of the cruising route are also important variables that affect the perceived value of specific offer. One of these special variables is also an emotional attitude of guests towards the offered cruising route (encouraging feelings, which are often connected with the destinations that are included in the offer and already experienced pleasure). Emotional reactions, costs, reputation and perceived quality of services are one of the most significant variables that affect the perceived value of the specific cruise route.

Conclusion

Influence of the cruising routes characteristics certainly affects its differentiation and competitiveness in their selection. These features are closely related to the perception of what is offered. Cruising route is no longer perceived only through the quality of the ship observed as an accommodation unit which includes related services, but primarily through the total experience of all cruising route components. In the totality of the content that the cruising route comprises, attractiveness and a number of destinations that the route includes have a particularly significant role in the selective decision making process.

Potential cruising customer is cognitively balancing between personal perceptions of the quality and the perceptions of costs in order to estimate the value of the tourism product. In other words, a potential customer's decision depends on the marketing communication that can significantly contribute to increasing the perceived quality of cruising route (by increasing the perceived benefits, or reducing the perceived costs). Different combinations can be used to increase the perceived value, but the most desirable is the one that involves

increasing the perceived benefits at the lowest level of perceived cost. Increasing the quality is the surest way to create superior value of cruising routes. The increase in quality should be implemented in the content of cruising routes. But also, it is necessary to be careful in order to avoid the complex and too rich content that could be rejected from certain segments of the route for which the unfolding dynamics of these contents can leave a negative impression. Benefits and costs are two mutually dependent elements in cruising tourism, because the perceived increase in benefits means reducing the perceived cost for the customer, but only to a certain extent, observing in the terms of specific cruising route content. Taking into account the aforementioned, it is recommended to make an evaluation of cruising route differentiation according to the proposed model. It can be stated that human mind perceives what it wants to look for, and decisions are usually made on perceptions rather than facts. Therefore, the evaluation of the target clientele perceptions is of crucial importance to the efficiency of operations.

The perception of the target customer is the process of interpreting stimuli and giving meaning to these stimuli. Each stimulus is received by some of the sensors. The level of influence on the customer's perception depends on the characteristics of a targeted customer, environment influences, and his mental condition. All these factors, and diversity of expectations, can explain variations in perceptions among the target customers. In the case of the cruising tourism, target clients need to compare the offered alternative options. Conducted study proposed in the context of cruising routes indicates that one of the most significant variables that influence the differentiation and competitiveness of cruising route are the number and specificity of destinations involved in the route. Finally, if it is not understood how the target clientele perceive offered goods despite the accepted standards of business, the final potential of success will be questionable.

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THE MANAGEMENT OF A PROJECT FOR THE IMPROVEMENT OF THE SERVICES QUALITY IN THE TOURISM SECTOR – THE CERTIFICATION EMAS/ECOLABEL OF A TOURISTIC STRUCTURE IN THE SOUTH ITALY

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Abstract

The environmental politics has assumed in the last times a wide and transversal dimension, focused on the problems and the relationships of a complicated system such as the environment, in whose inner different elements interact and put problems of balance and disbalance. With the new Strategy, the European Community means to pursue the integration of objectives of environmental sustainability (Goteborg Agenda) with those of the economical and social development (Lisbon Agenda), the environmental politics integrate therefore substantially to the problematics of social- economical development.

The adoption of eco-management systems, from a relevant number of firms also in the touristic sector and their certification according to international and european standards represents an important element of innovation, following this strategy aimed to conjugate the development with the environment protection. The systems of environmental management have by now become a distinctive element of the companies which want to cover a relevant role in the competitive national and international scenery, even because their nature itself makes them verifiable from independent third subjects, and suitable to stimulate the continuous development of the environmental and productive performances.

Object of the present work is the analysis of the management of a project for the improvement of services quality in the tourism sector, which allows to obtain the certification Emas/Ecolabel in a touristic structure in the south of Italy.

Keywords: Quality, tourism, services, project management

Introduction

The environment politics has assumed in the last times a wide and transversal dimension, focused on problems and relations of a complex system such as the environment, in the whose inner different elements act and put equity and disequity problems. With the new strategy, the European Community means to pursue the integration of environmental sustainability goals (Goteborg Agenda) with those of the economic and social development (Lisbon Agenda), the environmental politics integrate therefore substantially to the problems of social-economic development. The adoption of systems of eco-management from a relevant number of companies even in the touristic sector and their certification in conformity

with international and european standards represent an important innovation element, following to this strategy inclined to conjugate the development with the protection of the environment. The systems of environmental management have by now become a distinctive element of the companies which aim to cover a relevant role in the competitive national and international scenery, even because their nature itself makes them verifiable from third independent subjects and suitable to stimulate the continuous improvement of environmental and productive performances. Object of the present work is the analysis of the project management for the improvement of the quality of services in the tourism sector which allows to obtain the Emas/Ecolabel certification in a touristic structure in South Italy.

Scenario

The expressly declared goal of the programme of economical reforms, which was approved in Lisbon by the Chiefs of State and of Government of the European Community in 2000 was that of making the Community the most competitive and dynamic economy of knowledge within 2010. The document on the basis of the Lisbon Strategy sweeps through all the fields of economical politics such as innovation and company activity, welfare reform and social inclusion, human capital and work requalification, equal opportunities for the female work, liberalization of the markets of work and products and at last the sustainable development. Besides to conclude the course which had seen in 2005 the reexamination of the European Strategy for the sustainable development of 2001, and on the basis of the consultations occurred with the other communitarian organs and other stakeholders, the European Council had adopted, on June 16th 2006, a new European strategy for the sustainable development (Goteborg Agenda), for a widened European Community. The strategy underlines and strengthens the commitment and the necessity of cooperation which the EC will have to face, in consideration of the impact of the new countries on the global sustainable development. The adoption of such a strategy represents an act of great relevance, because the European Community puts itself the ambitious purpose of integrating the goals of environmental sustainability with those of economical and social development which on the other hand characterize the other communitarian priority strategy for the next years, the Lisbon Agenda (defined as “motor of a more dynamic economy”). The new Goteborg strategy lists seven challenger and related targets and actions: climatic change and energy, sustainable transports, production and sustainable consumptions, preservation and management of natural resources, public health; social inclusion, demography and immigration, global poverty and challenges of the global sustainable development, production and sustainable consumptions. A fundamental role in support of the diffusion and the achievement of the strategy goals is assigned to the formation, to the greatest investment in research and development, to the Local Agenda 21, to information and communication with citizens.

Ecolabel

In the area of the necessary requalification of touristic-receptive sector, the environmental quality and the communication of one's commitment for the resources safeguard have to be included as new elements of competitiveness among the organizations. The diffusion of numerous initiatives of ecological brands, turned to indicate on the market the receptive and more respectful of the environment structures, is a clear testimony of it, by giving to the operators the opportunity of conjugating the environmental commitment with the marketing goals and of image enhancement of its own service. On April 14th 2003, with the Decision 2003/287/CE the European Commission has officially extended the applicability of the brand Ecolabel to the services of touristic receptivity. On the basis of the initiative there is the aim of encouraging the structures as well as the same tourists to the respect of the

environment and to the saving of natural resources. The art.2 of Decision 2003/287/CE defines the service of touristic receptivity as “the fee-paying allocation of the overnight stay service in receptive structures gifted of adequately equipped rooms with at least one bed, offered as principal activity to tourists, travellers and guests. The overnight service can include the allocation of services of restaurant, fitness activity and/or green spaces”. In the service of touristic receptivity different typologies of receptive structures are included, among which hotels, mountain refuges etc, with the exclusion of the camping grounds which form part of the category “services for camping grounds”. The Ecolabel is the European brand of ecological quality, one of the concrete actions of declining the Lisbon Strategy to develop products and services with reduced environmental impact in its entire lifetime. It is a voluntary, selective device, spreading on a European scale, whose brand can be requested by the firms producing goods and services suppliers, by the wholesale and retail sellers of products and services which use its own brand and by the importers. In December 2010, 24 product categories and 2 services categories prove to be labelling with the exclusion of foodstuffs, beverages, pharmaceutical goods, dangerous products and preparations, products prepared with processes which can hurt to man or to environment.

Criteria

The Decision of July 9th 2009 (2009/573/CE) establishes the criteria for the assignment of the brand of ecological quality to the service of touristic receptivity. The criteria come into force since May 1^o 2003.

The criteria are divided in two sections:

- compulsory (for a total of 29)
- optional (for a total of 61)

All the 29 compulsory criteria have to be respected “if applicable”. This means “if not requested by the law”, for some criteria, or in consideration of the specific situation of the receptive structure.

The 61 optional criteria give the petitioner a range of criteria in which to choose those for the achievement of the requested minimum score for obtaining European Ecolabel. The minimum requested score to get the Ecolabel is 16,5 points for those structures which don't offer additional services in regard to the overnight stay service. The requested score rises in one point for each additional offered service which is under the direct control or ownership of the manager or of the owner of the touristic receptivity service.

The criteria aim to limit the principal environmental impacts connected with the three steps of service lifetime: purchase, service allocation, rubbish production. Particularly, their goal is of limiting the energetic consumption, limiting the hydric consumption, limiting the waste production, supporting the use of renewable sources and substances which result less dangerous for the environment, promoting the communication and the environmental education. For each criterion specific verification and evaluation requirements are provided. The documentation certifies the conformity to the criteria and, depending on the cases, it can concern directly the applicant or his own suppliers. It deals with: declarations, analysis, proof relationships etc, if necessary the applicant can even present a documentation which is different to that shown for each criterion, as long as it is considered equivalent by the Competing Organ which examines the application.

Project Case

The project case, subject of the present work, regards the management of a project for the verification of the correspondence of the requirements of products/services of a receptive structure, in South Italy situated, to the Ecolabel criteria, with the goal of the brand achievement. The activities to get to the draft of the documentation attesting the conformity

of the Relais farm to the Ecolabel criteria converge all of them to the reading and full knowledge of what was written in the Commission Decision. In it, in fact, are explicated the criteria to respect and the ways with which the criteria divide themselves in compulsory and optional. For each criterion, it is necessary to verify if it is applicable or if it results to be satisfied or not. The verification will consist in empirical proofs, handbooks consultations, attestations enclosures, etc. The dividing of the project in smaller parts according to a tree structure and the methodology typical of the Project Management, according to the PMBOK will allow us to follow step by step the procedure of the certification process.

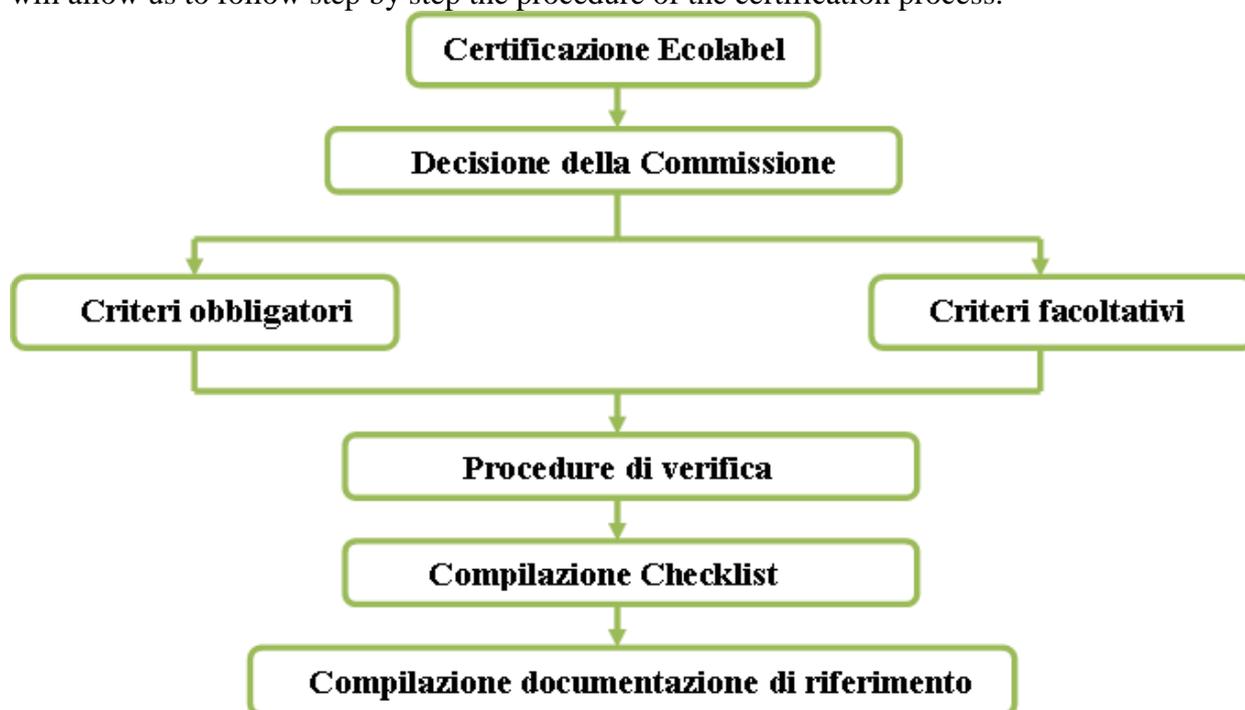


Fig. 1 Work Breakdown Structure of the Project

After verifying which criteria are applicable and satisfying, from the structure one will go on to the checklist compilation. The ticking off of checklist elements is the simplest and surest method to finish the verify activity which includes many steps and which requires particular attention. The checklist is a document for the “procedural verify” of the process itself. It has been organized, considering the single criteria and the actions to undertake to adapt to it. For each of these actions, therefore, are proposed specific verify questions of the products and/or services characteristics which, directly interacting with the environment, can consequently determine the efficacy of the criterion. The possible answers for the compulsory criteria are:

satisfying criterion	(C.S.)
not satisfying criterion	(C.n.S.)
criterion to value	(C.d.V.)
not applicable criterion	(C.n.A.)

Tab.1 compulsory criteria

In case the considered requirements are not positively checked, a possible solution is proposed, in support of the planning of modifications which are necessary (in the column: what to do to conform to the criterion), for the optional criteria the possible answers will consist of assigning a score to the criterion or of defining it as valuable criterion. Following up, we are reporting the ecological criteria and the requested ways for the verify contained in the Decision n. 287 of April 14th 2003, to which it is necessary anyway to refer for the

Ecolabel application. We will also define if the criterion is satisfied, not satisfied or not applicable.

Criterion n. Ecological Criterion to respect	It deals with a faithful reproduction of the Decision text, with some exemplification aimed to a better clarity and immediacy of the criterion
Criterion verify	Documentation to present to show the observance of the Ecological Criterion.
Notes & comments	Notes and comments which ease the understanding or suggest ways of adaptation to the criterion.

Tab.2 ecological criteria

Note: in the criteria description the term tree or receptive structure is used with no difference. We remember that the Ecolabel is applicable to the receptive service.

Compulsory criterion Nr	CS	Cns	CdV	CnA	Observations	What to do to conform to the criterion
1. Electric power from renewable sources		X			At the moment under contract with Sorigenia.	The receptive structure has to purchase at least 50% of electric power from renewable sources. At the moment the criterion results to be unsatisfied as the supply contract does not include any certificate about the renewable origin of the supplied power .
2. Carbon and heavy combustibles oils				X		To enclose: Declaration of the owner of not applicability of the criterion.
3. Yield and generation of warmth					Existence of 4 three stars steams. The unities of existing cogeneration must respond to the performance definition of directive 2004/8/CE. The steams which are not included in the directive 92/42/CEE must conform to the manufacturer's instructions and to the national and local legislation as regards energetic yield and they are acceptable only if they present a minimum performance of 88% (with the exclusion of biomass steams)	From the verification of steams performance and from control and maintenance relations, released by the technician, one can deduce a minimum yield higher than 88%. To enclose: - Installation booklets; - Steams' proof relations - Declaration of the steams maintenance responsible.

4. Conditioning system				X	Not disposed to the purchase of new conditioning systems	To enclose: Owner's declaration of not applicability of the criterion
5. Energetic efficiency of the buildings				X		To enclose: Owner's declaration of not applicability of the criterion
6. Windows' isolation					All the rooms' and common areas' windows supplied with heating system and/or mento devono presentare un livello sufficientemente elevato di isolamento termico, in funzione delle normative e delle condizioni climatiche locali, e un livello adeguato di isolamento acustico.	To enclose: -Owner's declaration of conformity to such criterion; -bioclimatic that is the document documento di descrizione climatica del posto in cui è situata la masseria.
7. Spegnimento dell'impianto di riscaldamento o di condizionamento				X	L'impianto di riscaldamento e/o riscaldamento non si spegne automaticamente quando le finestre sono aperte; nella stanza saranno presenti informazioni facilmente accessibili che ricordino agli ospiti di chiudere la o le finestre se l'impianto di riscaldamento o di condizionamento è in funzione.	Allegare: -Dichiarazione del proprietario di conformità al criterio -Piano di comunicazione ambientale all'ospite in cui si invita l'ospite a chiudere la o le finestre se l'impianto di riscaldamento o di condizionamento è in funzione.
8. Spegnimento delle luci	X				Nelle stanze non c'è un dispositivo di spegnimento automatico delle luci; saranno presenti informazioni facilmente accessibili che invitino gli ospiti a spegnere le luci quando escono dalla stanza.	Allegare: -Dichiarazione del proprietario di conformità al criterio -Piano di comunicazione ambientale all'ospite in cui si invita l'ospite a spegnere le luci quando esce dalla stanza.
9. Efficienza energetica delle lampadine		X			-Almeno l'80% di tutte le lampadine installate nella struttura ricettiva deve presentare un'efficienza energetica di classe A, ai sensi	Dalla verifica del catasto lampade interne il criterio risulta essere non soddisfatto. Allegare: -File catasto lampade . -Dichiarazione di non

					<p>della direttiva 98/11/CE della Commissione. Tale criterio non è applicabile se le caratteristiche fisiche delle lampade non consentono la sostituzione con lampadine a basso consumo energetico.</p> <p>-Il 100% delle lampadine che si trovano in punti nei quali è probabile che rimangano accese per oltre 5 ore al giorno deve presentare un'efficienza energetica di classe A ai sensi della direttiva 98/11/CE. Tale criterio non è applicabile se le caratteristiche fisiche delle lampade non consentono la sostituzione con lampadine a basso consumo energetico.</p>	<p>applicabilità per i punti luce le cui caratteristiche fisiche non consentono la sostituzione con lampadine a basso consumo energetico.</p>
10. Riscaldamento per esterni				X	<p>La struttura non è dotata di aree esterne adibite a zona fumatori o area di ristorazione.</p>	<p>Allegare: - Dichiarazione del proprietario di non applicabilità del criterio</p>
11. Flusso di acqua da rubinetti e docce		X			<p>Il flusso di acqua di docce e rubinetti è superiore agli 8 litri al minuto</p>	<p>Dalla verifica del flusso di acqua dai rubinetti e dalle docce il criterio risulta essere non soddisfatto. Allegare: -File rilevazione flusso rubinetti .</p>
12. Cestini per rifiuti nelle toilette	X				<p>Sono presenti cestini per i rifiuti in tutte le toilette della struttura ricettiva. Nel piano di comunicazione ambientale all'ospite è stato inserito l'invito ad utilizzare i cestini</p>	<p>Allegare: -Dichiarazione del proprietario di conformità al criterio -Piano di comunicazione -Foto con tipologia di rifiuti</p>

					al posto dello scarico della toilette.	
13. Risciacquo degli orinatoi				X	Assenza di orinatoi nella struttura.	Allegare: - Dichiarazione del proprietario di non applicabilità del criterio
14. Cambio di asciugamani e lenzuola	X				La struttura effettua il cambio asciugamani e lenzuola due volte a settimana. Poiché nella Regione Puglia per gli hotel a 4 stelle non c'è l'obbligo al cambio giornaliero di lenzuola ed asciugamani, predisporremo un modulo di accettazione del cambio lenzuola e asciugamani secondo le modalità descritte nella politica ambientale da far firmare all'ospite nel momento del check-in. Nel piano di comunicazione ambientale si invitano l'ospite a richiedere il cambio asciugamani e lenzuola secondo le modalità descritte nella politica ambientale.	Allegare: -Dichiarazione del proprietario di conformità al criterio - Informativa all'ospite sulla politica ambientale della struttura ricettiva. - Modulo di accettazione/autorizzazione da parte dell'ospite.
15. Corretto smaltimento delle acque di scarico	X				E' stata predisposta una lettera al Comune di Cisternino per richiedere il piano di trattamento delle acque reflue urbane e si occuperà dell'identificazione di tutte le sostanze che non devono essere smaltite con le acque di scarico ai sensi della direttiva 2006/118/CE.	Allegare: -Dichiarazione del proprietario di conformità al criterio - Informativa all'ospite sull'uso corretto degli scarichi..
16. Disinfettanti	X				E' stato stilato un catasto di tutti i detersivi, i disinfettanti e le sostanze pericolose utilizzati presso la struttura ricettiva ed è	Allegare: -Dichiarazione del proprietario di conformità al criterio - Registro carico-scarico disinfettanti

					stato predisposto un registro di carico e scarico di questi prodotti.	- Schede tecniche disinfettanti.
17. Raccolta differenziata dei rifiuti da parte degli ospiti		X			La struttura non dispone di contenitori per la raccolta differenziata da parte degli ospiti. Verificare la tipologia di differenziazione dei rifiuti da parte del comune.	Allegare: -Dichiarazione del proprietario... -Piano di gestione rifiuti rivolto agli ospiti
18. Raccolta differenziata dei rifiuti		X			Attualmente non viene effettuata alcuna raccolta differenziata dei rifiuti	Allegare: -Dichiarazione del proprietario.... -Richiesta piano gestione rifiuti; -Piano comunale della gestione rifiuti.
19. Prodotti usa e getta		X			La struttura offre ai clienti il kit di cortesia monodose.	Allegare: - Dichiarazione del proprietario in cui si riporta l'esatta sostituzione dei prodotti usa e getta. - Documentazione fotografica dei punti di ubicazione dei prodotti in confezioni ricaricabili.(report fotografico)
20. Prodotti monodose per la prima colazione		X			Sono presenti alcuni prodotti monodose per la colazione (fette biscottate).	Allegare: - Dichiarazione del proprietario di conformità a tale criterio nella quale si riporti la dettagliata spiegazione di come la struttura soddisfi tale criterio. - .Report fotografico
21. Divieto di fumare nelle aree comuni	X				Nelle zone comuni chiuse è segnalato il divieto a non fumare. Devono essere presenti cartelli informativi sul divieto di fumo anche nelle camere.	Allegare: -Dichiarazione del proprietario di conformità al criterio - .Report fotografico
22. Trasporti pubblici	X				Non esiste un sistema di trasporto pubblico adeguato.	Allegare: -Dichiarazione del proprietario di conformità al criterio - .Report fotografico bacheca - File
23. Manutenzione e riparazioni delle caldaie e	X				Verificato con personale tecnico	Allegare: -Dichiarazione da parte di

degli impianti di condizionamento						un tecnico professionista sulla frequenza e tipologia delle verifiche da effettuare sugli impianti. - Copia libretto caldaie
24. Definizione della politica ambientale e del programma di azione	X				E' stato elaborato un documento di politica ambientale e di un programma d'azione.	Allegare: -Dichiarazione del proprietario di conformità al criterio . -File Politica ambientale -File Programma azione
25. Formazione del personale	X				È stato effettuato un corso di formazione su energia, acqua, sostanze chimiche, gestione dei rifiuti e gestione generale.	Allegare: -Dichiarazione del richiedente di conformità al criterio . - Moduli sottoscritti dai dipendenti - Documentazione dettagliata inerente il corso di formazione effettuato, il contenuto, il calendario e i partecipanti al corso.
26. Informazione agli ospiti	X				È stato stilato un prospetto informativo del proprio impegno nei confronti dell'ecolabel e le relative azioni intraprese.	Allegare: -Dichiarazione del proprietario di conformità al criterio . - Questionario Ambientale - Dichiarazione trattamento dati; -Informativa agli ospiti sulla politica ambientale e sull'Ecolabel invitandoli a sostenere tali obiettivi.
27. Dati sul consumo di energia e acqua		X			Raccogliere le fatture relative all'ultimo anno di esercizio relative all'acqua.	Allegare: -Dichiarazione del proprietario di conformità al criterio -File consumi energia elettrica
28. Altri dati da rilevare	X				Verificare la documentazione relativa al registro di carico e scarico dei rifiuti. Per i detersivi e i disinfettanti rilevare il quantitativo in grammi acquistato.	Allegare: -Dichiarazione del proprietario di conformità al criterio -File consumi detersivi e disinfettanti
29. Informazioni da riportare sul marchio di qualità ecologica	X				Occorre riportare sui supporti quali biglietti da visita, pieghevoli, brochure e sito web, le seguenti informazioni: -La struttura ricettiva s'impegna attivamente a	Allegare: - Brochure

					utilizzare fonti di energia rinnovabili, a risparmiare acqua ed energia, a ridurre i rifiuti e a migliorare l'ambiente locale.	
Optional criterion Nr°	Points	Observations	What to do to conform to the criterion			
30. Electric power generation from renewable sources						
31. Energy from renewable power sources						
32. Steams' energetic performance						
33. Steams' Nox emissions						
34. Teleheating						
35. Thermic and electric power cogeneration						
36. Heating pump						
37. Heating recycling						
38. Thermoregulation	1,5					
39. Audit of energetic performance of the buildings						
40. Conditioning installation						
41. Authomatic switching off of heating installation						
41. Bioclimatic architecture	3	Built accordino to rules of bioclimatic architecture				
42. Fridges, ovens, dish washers, washing machines, clothers dryer and office equipment with low enrgetic consumption	1	The pcs are energy star				
43. Towels and hair dryers players with proximity sensor						
44. Fridges' positioning	1	Fridges are far away from heating sources				
45. Authomatic switching off of the rooms' lights						
46. Sauna timer control	1	Sauna is equipped with timer				
47. Pools' heating with renewable power sources						
48. Authomatic switching off of	1,5	External lights timer				

external lights			
49. Use of rain water and recycled water	2	Rain water is gathered in basins and used for the irrigation	
50. Automatic irrigation systems for external areas	1,5	Timer for irrigation	
51. Water flow from taps and showers	1.5		
52. WC's dumping	1,5	The WC consumes less than 6 l/minute	
53. Consumption of dish washers' water			
54. Consumption of washing machines' water			
55. Temperature and taps' water flow	1		
56. Timer for showers			
57. Pool's coverage			
58. Antifreeze			
59. Indication of water hardness			
Urinator with hydric saving			
Autochthonous species used for new external plantations			
60. Detergents			
Paints for the inside and the outside			
61. Support to alternatives to artificial firelighters for barbecue			
Dosage for pools' disinfectant or natural / ecological pools			
62. Mechanical cleaning	1	The structure uses microfibre clothes for cleaning	
63. Biological gardens and orchards			
64. Insecticides and repellents			
65. Composing	1	The structure makes the composing from green "sfalci"	
66. Containers for disposable beverages	2	Beverages in disposable containers are not sold	
67. Fat and oil removal			
68. Movable clothes and other used products			

69. Roofs			
70. Environmental communication and education	3	The receptive structure does not guarantee the environmental communication and education of the guests through notices about the local biodiversity, the landscape, etc.	
71. No smoking in the common areas and in rooms	1,5	To adequate the no smoking warnings, already present, to make them more visible and distinctive	
72. Bicycles	1,5	The structure declares to have bicycles at the guests' disposal	
73. Transfer service			
74. Reusable or returnable bottles	1	The water bottles have to be returned.	
75. Recycling products' use	1	The structure uses rechargeable ink toners	
76. Paper products	1	The structure uses printing paper with Ecolabel brand	
77. Lasting goods			
78. Local foodstuffs	3	The structure declare to use local foodstuffs. To verify which of them.	To indicate the products with local origin which are offered during lunch and/or breakfast in the receptive structure; to prove that they are of local origin and are not out of season;
79. Biological foodstuffs			
80. Air qualità in the inside			
81. EMAS registration of ISO 14001 certification of the receptive structure			
82. EMAS registration or ISO 14001 certification of the suppliers	1	The detergents firm is certificated ISO 14001	
83. Conformity of sub-suppliers to the compulsory criteria			
84. Meters for power and water consumption			
85. Other environmental actions			

Tab. 7.2: Checklist compulsory criteria

Conclusions

In the area of the necessary requalification of the touristic-receptive sector, the environmental quality and the communication of one's own commitment for the resources safeguard have to be considered as new elements of touristic competitiveness.

The spread of numerous initiatives of ecological brands, turned to indicate on the market the receptive structures which are more respectful of the environment is a clear testimony of it, by giving the opportunity to the operators to coniugate the environmental commitment with the marketing goals and of enhancement of the value of one's own service image. This work has showed up the picture of the acquisition of this awareness from a touristic receptive structure in South Italy, region of ex target one where a convergence strategy is in progress towards the most developed regions of the European Unity. The work of Project Work has showed the structure conformity to the compulsory criteria and to the optional ones, chosen through self-declarations of the applicant subject, declarations and certifications released by the suppliers or by third parts and other supporting documentation. At the moment of the writing of this work, the receptive structure has not yet finished the certification and therefore has not yet obtained the Ecolabel brand. To obtain the brand, it will be necessary to proceed to inspections from the Competing Organ. The applicant will therefore fill in the provided compilation form, will enclose the issue and will send the whole to the Competing Organ – the Ecoaudit Ecolabel Committee. APAT examines the documentation, requiring possible integrations and will carry out, if considered opportune, one or more inspections by the applicant structure. If the request has positive result, the Committee will assign to the applicant, with validity on the whole European territory, the Ecolable brand. The name of the structure will be then included in the communitarian on-line catalogue of Ecolabel products/services. The structure has the intention of following this procedure and of obtaining the brand.

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ACTIVATING HERITAGE TOURISM IN AKRE CITY BY APPLYING SUSTAINABLE ECOTOURISM APPROACHES

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Abstract

Kurdistan Region has almost integrated tourism elements. It is one of the few areas that have diverse aspects of tourism, cultural combination and natural resources. Akre city is a mountainous city in North Iraq/ Kurdistan it is related administratively to Duhok governorate. Akre is a good example of various types of tourism such as natural, cultural, historic, treatment and eco-tourism; as well as its distinguished character in design and buildings. Through the last two decades the city faced neglect in preserving its heritage specially, and its construction generally. This research is a study of Akre city from touristic aspect, trying to highlight the most important features in the city heritage in order to activate the heritage touristic activity as a major contributor to cultural, economic, and social activities of the city. The research will study the existing situation, and apply sustainable approaches by promoting heritage tourism as an attractive economic revitalization strategy, and one of the important means to develop historical, religious, and cultural tourism.

Research Problem

Lack of a clear planning vision and strategy for activating the heritage Tourism in Akre city.

Research Questions

What are the main aspects for tourism in Akre?

What are the positives and negatives of promoting Heritage Tourism in Akre?

What are the best steps to activate a heritage tourism plan in the city?

Research Hypothesis

Activating a heritage planning strategy in Akre city will lead to high touristic outcomes in Akre.

Research Methodology

The research will use the following methods in study:

Descriptive Analysis of data related to Heritage of Akre.

Statistical Data Collection & Analysis

SWOT Analysis of Current situation.

In-depth Interview & Questioner of beneficiaries.

Introduction

Heritage is the full range of our inherited traditions, monuments, objects, and culture. Most important, it is the range of contemporary activities, meanings, and behaviors that we

draw from them.(2) Heritage is an essential part of the present we live in—and of the future we will build. Heritage Tourism contributes to both preserving and activating heritage areas by emphasizing their importance to both present and future generations as well as visiting tourists. Today, there is no serious and ambitious country that does not prefer development of tourism in its development strategies as a planetary phenomenon and development sector, especially when there are historical and heritage areas within the country such as Akre city.

Akre city, Location and Historical background:

Akre (Kurdish Akre, ناکری); is a city and district in north Iraq. It is located in Dohuk Governorate. Before 1991 Akre was administratively affiliated to the province of Nineveh, but after the 1991 uprising, Akre became officially within the areas of the Kurdistan region. The total area of the district is (1134) km². It was formed in 1877 by the Ottoman Empire and the city of Akre became the center of the district. Akre district is the center of three sub-districts, (Dinarta, Kirdasin, and Bejail) with estimated population of 150,000 people (1). Fig.(1)

Akre is located north of latitude 37.4 and east longitude 44.8, height of 665m above sea level. Akre is about 110km south west of Erbil, 100km to the east of center Duhok and 90 km north of center Mosul, Ninewa. The Zab River borders the city from north, Amedi Qadha and Shaqlawa Qadha from east, Hamdania Qadha in Mosul to the south, the river Khazarand Shaykhan Qadha to the west. Akre is considered as one of the ancient cities in history, dating back to the Cretaceous period, the era of the early appearance of villages and towns. It is believed that Akre emerged about (700 BC) as a settlement, created by (Prince Zeid) who named it (Akre; 1742) related to the Zoroastrians and the name is derived from the Kurdish



word ناکری which means fire.

Fig (1) Akre location in Iraq and Duhok. Source: Akre Master Plan

Tourism and Heritage Potentials:

Kurdistan Region has almost integrated tourism elements. It is one of the few areas that have diverse aspects of tourism, cultural combination and natural resources. Akre is a good example for various types of tourism. Akre city mixes in its contents the heritage, religious sites as well as natural sites which makes the city a good attraction for tourism.

Religious sites: related to many holy sites visited by people such as;

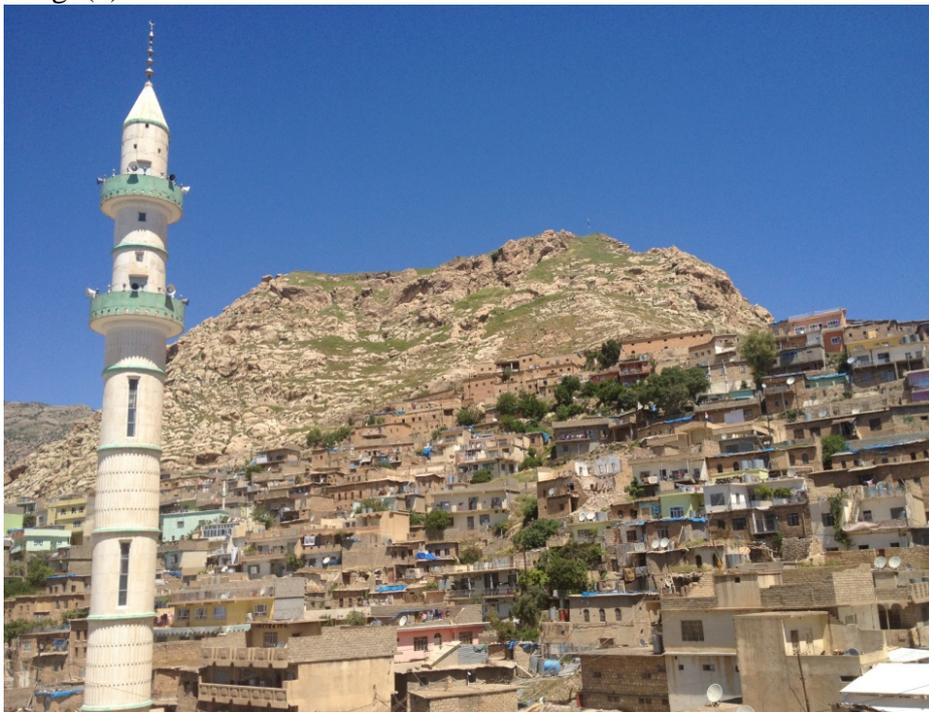
Sheikh Abdul Aziz al-Kilani, Sheikh Ismail Aluliani, Sheikh Ahmed, Sheikh Mohammed, Sheikh BadiSurja, Sheikhs Kula Ka, and Sheikh Abdul Qader al-Kilani. Fig.(2)

Natural sites: With beautiful waterfalls such as; Seiba water fall, KaniZark, KaliZanta resort, AlBajeel resort , and Dinarte. The mountain ranges in the north (Akre Mountains and Bashkal Mountains) theses with the valleysconstitute the natural potential”. (3: P25)



Fig. (2) Akre Townscape. Source: Researcher

Cultural sites: Akre possess excellent cultural features for developing tourism such as: “The structurally well preserved old city center on the southern slope of the castle hill (kalaAkre) as well as the exciting historical sites and religious locations constitute the cultural potential of the city. Cultural tourism is a complex of numerous activities that enables not only the affirmation of cultural-historic motives, but also provides important resources for renewal of cultural-historic monuments, tangible and intangible heritage and resources. (2) Akre has a wonderful old city, the topography of the city create very nice townscape of terraces houses with narrow streets, mosques, bazaar and traditional shops: See Fig. (3) and Fig. (4).





Akre Old city Fig.(3) Fig. (4). Source: Researcher

Tourism and sustainability:

There are a many definitions for Sustainable Tourism, including eco-tourism, green travel, environmentally and culturally responsible tourism, fair trade and ethical travel.

The most widely accepted definition is that of the World Tourism Organization. They define sustainable tourism as “tourism which leads to management of all resources in such a way that economic, social and aesthetic needs can be fulfilled while maintaining cultural integrity, essential ecological processes, biological diversity and life support systems.”

In addition they describe the development of sustainable tourism as a process which meets the needs of present tourists and host communities whilst protecting and enhancing needs in the future (World Tourism Organization 1996).

The World Heritage Sustainable Tourism Program:

The World Heritage Sustainable Tourism Program encourages sustainable tourism actions at World Heritage sites. The Program develops policies and processes for site management and for the state parties to the Convention to address this increasingly important management concern. It implements actions to preserve sites for future generations and contributes to sustainable development and intercultural dialogue. It focuses on seven activities:

1. Building the capacity of World Heritage site management to deal with tourism.
2. Training local community members in environment and culture preservation and tourism related activities to receive tourism's benefits.
3. Aiding communities around the sites to market their products and use the World Heritage sites as a lever for local economic social and cultural development.
4. Raising public awareness of World Heritage Outstanding Universal Values and building pride and intercultural dialogue with local communities and visitors through conservation education.
5. Using tourism generated funds to supplement site conservation and protection costs.
6. Spreading the lessons learned to other sites and protected areas.

7. Building increased awareness of the objectives of the 1972 World Heritage Convention and other UNESCO conventions to the Tourism Programs activities and policies for local and national public tourism authorities, tourism industry officials and tourists. (5)

Akre city is a city that consists a variety of touristic aspects such as; cultural, natural and religious tourism. In order to deal with these aspects, a holistic integrated planning model could be implemented to manage the different issues in the city in a sustainable planning strategy.

4. Eco tourism approach and its application:

Ecotourism is a concept that evolved in the past 20 years as the conservation community, people living in and around protected areas, and the travel industry witnessed a boom in nature tourism and realized their mutual interests in directing its growth (6:P2). It provides opportunities for visitors to experience powerful manifestations of nature and culture and to learn about the importance of biodiversity conservation and local cultures. At the same time, ecotourism generates income for conservation and economic benefits for communities living in rural or remote areas(7). The attributes of ecotourism make it a valuable tool for conservation.

5.The current situation of tourism Akre city:

The research will study Akre city from touristic aspects, starting from the Master plan of the city, and the Municipality steps in this aspect, in order to evaluate the current plans for the city setting the main potentials and limitations that affect the futurestrategy for cultural tourism planning of Akre city.

Akre Master plan 2010-2033/ Ingenierburo–Vossing:

The Master plan emphasized the need of urban development for Akre city and particularly to the old town and suburban outskirts. The population in Akre developed very irregularly. Fig. (5) shows steady growth in 1977-1978, disproportionate growth in1987-1996 with average annual growth of 12%. In 1997-2007 growth slowed to3.6%, and from 2007 on a renewed increase to 94pprox.16%(MUN 2009).This is due to high birth rates and immigration from rural to urban areas, as well as from other parts of Iraq to Akre, as expected by the city administration. The population of Akre city is (56000) inhabitants in 2009. (3: p19).

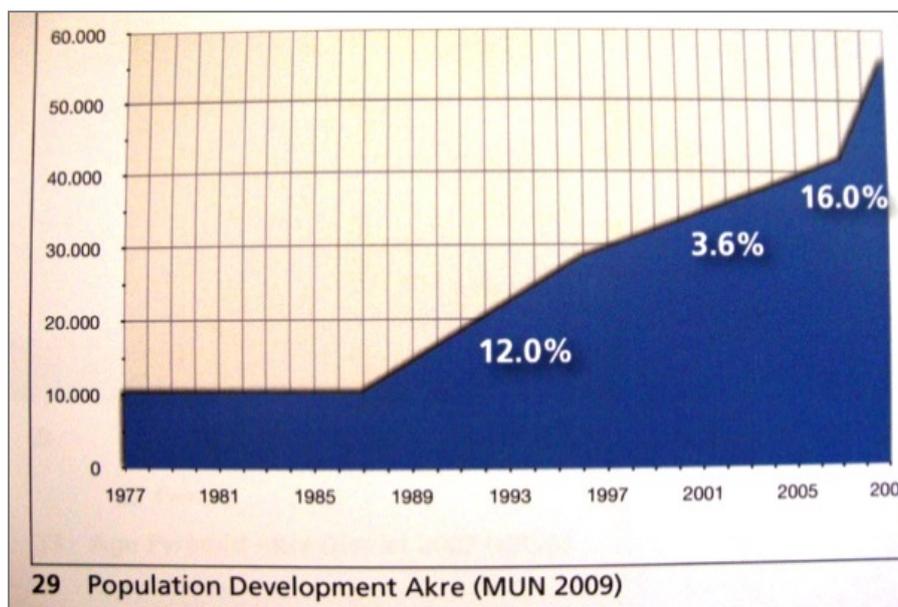


Fig. (5) shows population growth rate. Source: Akre Master Plan (P.29)

The Master plan emphasizes the tourism importance economically to Akre city ; however it doesn't refer to a certain strategy or plan for achieving it.: "Interesting tourism offers can increase the overall value of the residential, work, and investment location of Akre and thus its attractiveness. In turn, all sectors of the city can benefit from this." Investments to be at:

- Increase in number of beds
- Increase in the quality of hotels
- Preservation and development of historical sites in and around Akre
- Creation of opportunities for recreation
- Improvement of cleanness of city and countryside. (3: p24)

There are uncertainties in the statistics related to tourism in Akre. The Office of preservation of historic monuments and tourism of Duhok states that in the 1st half of 2007, 177000 tourists spent the night in Duhok governorate(62%) kurds (16%) foreigners with approximately 200 tourists for overnight stays). A very small share for Akre city. While the tourist office in Akre gives different data, as 2500 tourist per week in 2008 (2000 from outside Kurdistan, 500 from Kurdistan). This will amount to 130000 tourists for the year, which means the number of Akre tourists is higher than Duhokcity. (Ibid, P25)

Current situation of tourism infrastructure in Akre:

The only hotel in Akre (Sipa Hotel) has the lowest comfort standards with 28 rooms
 Few parking spaces at the outskirts of old city occupied mostly by residents
 No information system related to tourism

Lack of suitable restaurants, a part from those at Sepa waterfall. The restaurants in new Akre can't take this function and are hardly attractive.

Need for repair and renovation for historical buildings.

Low standards of cleanness and hygiene area surrounding touristic sites.

Local Municipality reports and actions:

The municipality succeeded in putting Akre in the Fifth year Touristic plan map of Kurdistan region as a city with special historical, touristic and religious characteristics. This includes: (Interview with Qaimmakam Akre, J. Ali Aziz)

An urgent plan for restoring the Chapel and Abdul Aziz Takya in old city

A yearly grant for 250000000 ID for the old city heritage rehabilitation.(as explained above)

Future natural tourism (Bakurman, Karesh, Kalezanta).

According to an interview with Akre Municipality officer " K. K. Abdulrahman", The municipality is working on a project of old Akre city renewal after forming a committee of members of municipality, heritage and agriculture. The plan consists of :

Short term plan: Conservation of old district

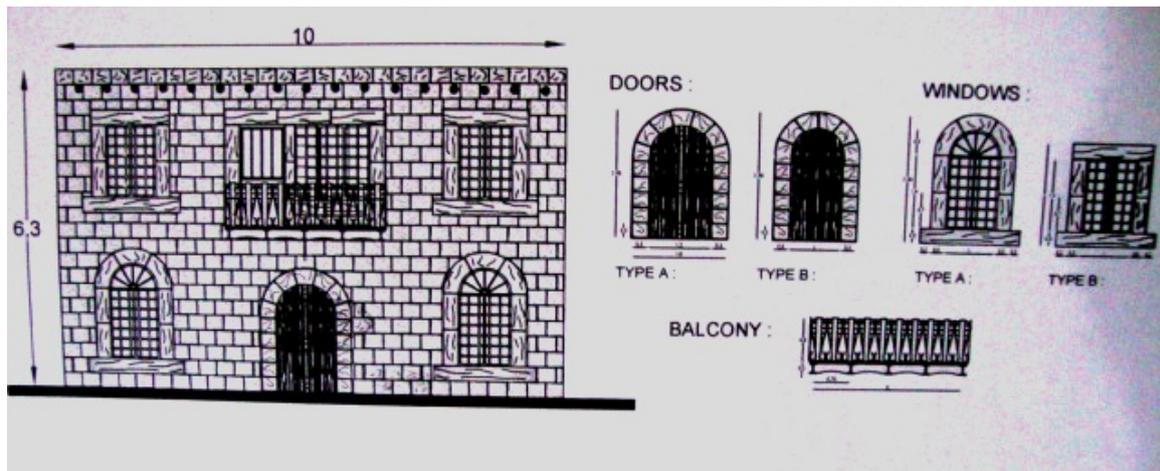
Long term plan: Rehabilitation and Revitalization of houses that were affected and damaged by residents.

Akre municipality is working on a project for the conservation of the architectural heritage style of old Akre as follows:

Giving building license to citizens who want to build or repair their old building according to certain conditions..

The person is given a financial support of 150000 ID/ m2 for stone covering of elevations, depending on the size of elevation.

A committee for supervision consists of(engineer, surveyor, accountant, law specialist, representative from heritage directorate) according to the order (3476) in 24/11/2010. See fig.(6) below for the suggested sizes, heights for elevation, doors, windows.



Challenges of Tourism in Akre:

According to the current situation of Akre city, Cultural heritage Tourism in Akre faces many challenges that must be addressed in order to build effective tourism strategies. These are:

Non long –term strategy with specific features for the development of tourism, cultural, natural, religious activities.(8: p5)

Limited financial resources allocated by the government for the activity

Poor infrastructure (roads, and fast transportation, hotels, and associated entertainment services) especially in tourist attraction area in addition to the retardation of banking services according to the international standards.

Absence of expertise to determine the needs and limited vocational centers for training alternative personnel

Limited private investment companies and corporations in the field of tourism

Poor database available on tourism, heritage, and cultural activities. See Figs. (7), (8)





Fig. (7) and Fig. (8) show the poor condition of houses and services in old Akre.
Source: Researcher

SWOT Analysis of the Tourism situation of Akre city:

The analysis of the situation of Akre city could help in defining the city's distinctive strengths in its present status and in predicting basic development weaknesses in its internal environment. Furthermore, this analysis creates the ability to stress potential development opportunities for cultural tourism and identify the threats from the external environment of the organization that are related to issues of its development, long-lasting viability and effective operation. Table 1 shows the analysis of the city's internal and external environment that defines its present status (2010-2013), and the difficulties of its development.

Strengths 2. Weaknesses } Internal environment
Opportunities 3. Threats } External Environment

Table 1.

SWOT Analysis of Akre Tourism aspects

Strengths

- Relative proximity to Duhok
- Uniqueness of the city, naturally and culturally
- Prominence of the social history of Akre and the natural potentials
- Willingness and support of local administrative for future:

-Dynamic website

- Development of Master plan for Akre
- Natural, cultural and religious tourism potentials in Akre

Limited Real Estate Loans to people for rebuilding historical damaged houses

Weaknesses

- Uncertain data and statistics number of visitors
- Uncertainties concerning the budgeting and finance
- Lack of tourism industry idea!
- Lack investment opportunities
- Low awareness of tourism among citizens
- Lack of significant actions to promote the city
- Inefficient cooperation between local factors
- Lack of autonomous/private resources
- Lack of a common vision from the local society for the city tourism development
- Lack of a enough infrastructure and uperstructure facilities for tourism such as; roads, communications, hotels, motels, recreation activities
- Lack of good information system for tourists (signposts, markers)

Opportunity

- a stable security in Kurdistan region
- KRG Policy to Encouraging international and local investors and businesses to invest in tourism sector in Kurdistan Region (new KRG Investment Law in Kurdistan)
- Enrichment of the city with exhibits from organizations inside and outside the region
- Strategic Project to improve the regional Infrastructure

Threats

- Long distance from other areas in region
- Lack of strategic planning in tourism development
- Not being incorporated enough in tourist packages of the wider area
- Low government subsidies
- Deterioration of heritage areas due to natural and negligence factors.
- Invasion of new architectural styles that doesn't relate to heritage areas.

See figure (9) for the most distinguished areas in old city of Akre.as strengths.



44 Old Synagogue



45 Sheikh Mave cave



47 Meriem Church



43 Grave Sheikh Abdul Aziz



46 Grand Mosque



48 Detail from the historic town

Fig. (9) shows some of the important heritage areas in Akre old city. Source: Akre Master Plan(p29)

In order to overcome the different challenges affecting an integrated sustainable ecotourism in Akre city a suggested vision and strategy was formed as follows:

The Vision:

- Developing and reconstructing the cultural and historical heritage as an essential element in the development of Akre Tourism.
- Continuing assumption of an advanced position within the cultural and historical heritage of the world
- Increase tourism contribution to GDP.

The Suggested Sustainable Eco tourism planning strategy :

An integrated approach is needed both in tourism planning and sustainable management. This could be applied by:

- Integrated tourism planning within and outside Akre city.
- Good governance of Tourism
- Development of effective administrative institutions, including the strengthening of decentralized environmental administration
- Creating an operational model for making the cultural, historic and architectural heritage of Akre city and its surroundings active and utilized for cultural tourism within the total economic development of the city.
- Adopting principles and criteria of sustainable integrative protection of Akre through proper utilization and management,
- Improving the authentic and recognizable identity of Akre, to be of prestigious and competitive attraction to tourists, by promoting the values and particularities of the old heritage city.
- Involvement and participation of Stakeholders and especially collaboration between the private sector, local communities and the site management authority in relation to planning for sustainable tourism.
- Improving the infrastructure of tourism and culture
- Establishing Information system
- Improving public awareness on the importance of tourism economically.
- Increasing the Media role in promoting Akre city as touristic city.

Recommendations and Actions

Activating an integrated Sustainable Eco Tourism Strategy approach in Akre city in:

Economic dimension: Real estate loans, investments

Social dimension: Public Awareness through Media

Environmental dimension: Conservation of natural sites

Establishing scientific and academic relations between Akre administrative and Academia.

Establishing joint cooperation between local organizations (Municipality, Physical Planning directorate, tourism agencies) and architectural department in Duhok university to support joint research and projects.

Starting detailed documentation and field surveys and studies of the historical part of Akre city in joint team works between Duhok/ and Akre administrative organizations.

The City Code in Akre should set out a long term vision for the Old City based on regeneration to create an internationally recognized heritage with historic urban building and houses in good condition.

Establishing a digitized Data system including all documents, maps data collection regarding historical, religious, natural aspects in Akre.

Communicating the significant culture value of Akre for inhabitants and tourists through:

Organizing creative events in the historic and culture places to make it visible and mirroring the culture value

Offering professional tour guides for the inhabitants and tourists

Integrating community Facilities (Cafes, art galleries, etc)

Improving the pedestrian access for connecting the green corridor from historic city center to the water fall .

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MONITORING OF DRINKING WATER QUALITY IN THE REFERENCE POINTS OF THE DISTRIBUTION NETWORK OF RWC "RADONIQ" GJAKOVA

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Abstract

Control and monitoring of water quality indicators in RWC "Radoniqi" Gjakova is carried out in compliance with the requirements specified in the Administrative Instruction nr.16/2012 for water quality for human consumption.

Regular internal monitoring of water quality for human consumption is carried out to check that the water is potable and that it meets the requirements of this administrative directive, and in particular, set parametric values.

Monitoring includes inspection, measurements, samplings or analysis either periodically or continuously.

Monitoring indicators of drinking water quality in reference points of the distribution network of RWC "Radoniqi" Gjakova is carried by two laboratories for monitoring of physical-chemical and bacteriological parameters.

In the laboratories for analysis of water quality indicators in the reference points of the distribution network of RWC "Radoniqi" Gjakova, is carried out water quality monitoring for physical-chemical and bacteriological indicators according to a particular timeline in the following locations: the Reservoir in Treatment Plant Radoniqi, Reservoir Qerim, City Ambulance, Hospital, the main reservoir in Rahovac, Health Center Rahovac, Petrol station in Krusha e vogël.

Parameters to be analyzed:

Physical-chemical indicators: determination of free chlorine, water temperature, m - alkaline, air temperature, pH value, dry residue, turbidity, total hardness, color, taste, electrical conductivity, iron, manganese, KMnO_4 (permanganate) value, NH_4 + ammonium, dissolved oxygen, nitrites, chlorides, etc.

Bacteriological indicators: these are analyzed bacteriological parameters such as: total number of coliform bacteria in 100 ml of water, fecal origin coliform bacteria per 100 ml, total number of viable bacteria in 1 ml.

From the results obtained in the laboratory can be concluded that the treated water of RWC "Radoniqi" is of good quality and that it meets standards according to WHO, EU and Administrative Instruction nr.16/2012 for drinking water quality for human consumption.

Keywords: Monitoring, parameters, water, network, methods, results

Introduction

Monitoring of water quality indicators in the reference points of distribution network of RWC "Radoniqi" Gjakova is carried out in compliance with the requirements specified

with Administrative Instruction no. 16/2012 for drinking water quality for human consumption.

Regular internal monitoring of water quality for human consumption is carried out to check that the water is potable and that it meets the requirements of this administrative directive, and in particular, set parametric values.

Monitoring includes inspection, measurements, samplings and analysis either periodically or continuously.

Monitoring indicators of drinking water quality in reference points of the distribution network of RWC "Radoniqi" Gjakova is carried by two laboratories for monitoring of physical-chemical and bacteriological parameters in the following locations: the Reservoir in Treatment Plant Radoniqi, Reservoir Qerim, City Ambulance, Hospital, the main reservoir in Rahovac, Health Center Rahovac, Petrol station in Krusha e vogël.

Material and methods

In order to control and monitor the water quality indicators in the reference points of distribution network of RWC "Radoniqi" Gjakova, numerous analyzes were carried out continually. Water samples were analyzed in physical-chemical and bacteriological laboratories of water treatment plant. Water samples were taken in 2012 at several points of distribution network where during laboratory analysis; various methods were applied like chemical or bacteriological methods. Following devices were used as Atomic Absorption Spectrophotometer (SAA), Nova 60 and Merck photometer, Turbidimeter Spectraquant 1500 T, pH meter, Conductometer and volumetric methods, whereas for bacteriological analysis has been used membrane filtration system with porous membrane filter \varnothing 045 μ m and associated devices such as incubator, autoclaves, sterilizer, etc.

Results and discussions

From the results of the water analysis carried out during 2012 in the distribution network of drinking water it was observed fluctuations of physical-chemical and bacteriological parameters starting from Turbidity, free chlorine, KMnO_4 value, Nitrites.

Also bacteriological parameters had an increase of total number of coliform and mesophilic bacteria the day when there was mixing of irrigation water with the drinking water in the network. Water samples at this point were taken immediately in polyethylene bottles of 500 ml which were initially thoroughly cleaned.

Important parameters to be discussed are: Turbidity, KMnO_4 value, free chlorine, nitrites, etc.

Turbidity: In terms of water turbidity on the critical day in location 8 in Krusha e vogël, due to mixing of irrigation water with the drinking water, has resulted with an increase in turbidity of 1.4 NTU.

Chlorine free - to this parameter also influenced mixing of irrigation water with drinking water which resulted in 0.0 mg/l of chlorine. In drinking water it is not allowed the quantity of free chlorine below 0.2 mg/l, and the absence of free chlorine resulted with increase of coliform bacteria that have penetrated from the lake water where they are present. There were also changes in other parameters like KMnO_4 value and nitrites. However, following the intervention of the maintenance team on the distribution network, we took again water samples that were sent to the laboratory and normal parameters resulted as required by guidelines and standards for drinking water.

Control of the quality of drinking water in the reference points or distribution network

Dt. 15.05. 2012									
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8-1	8-2
Physical-chemical indicators	Rez. S.F.	Rez. Qerim	Ambulanta e qytetit	Spiitali	Rez. Rahovec	Q. e fëmijëve-R.	Shërbëria Shëndetit-R.	P. e benz. Krush e v.	P. e benz. Krush e v.
Temperature T°C	10.4	10.6	10.7	10.7	10.5	10.8	10.7	11.1	10.8
Color	pa	pa	pa	pa	pa	pa	pa	pa	pa
Odor	pa	pa	pa	pa	pa	pa	pa	me	pa
Taste	pa	pa	pa	pa	pa	pa	pa	/	pa
Turbidity	0.18	0,20	0,21	0,20	0,24	0,21	0,22	1,4	0.37
pH value	7.42	7.44	7,42	7,43	7,47	7,45	7,45	7,53	7,46
Electr.conductivity	244	248	238	234	246	233	238	256	241
Free chlorine	0.5	0.36	0,32	0.3	0.36	0.33	0.32	0.0	2.2
KMnO ₄ value	2.8	3.16	3,16	2.8	3.16	3.16	3.16	6,54	3.2
Total hardness	7.28	7.28	7,28	7,28	7,28	7,14	7,28	7,5	7,28
Dry residue	146.4	148.8	143	140.4	147.6	139.8	142.8	153.6	144.6
Chlorides	6.38	6.38	6,38	6,02	6,38	6,38	6,02	7,09	6,38
Dissolved oxygen	11.5	11.2	11	10.8	10.5	10.4	10.3	9,5	9.9
Nitrites(NO ₂)	0.002	0.004	0.003	0.003	0.004	0.003	0.003	0,0052	0,0035
Nitrates NO ₃	0.07	0.09	0.08	0.09	0.10	0.09	0.09	0,34	0,09
Iron(Fe)	0.02	0.03	0.02	0.02	0.035	0.025	0.03	0,05	0,035
Manganese(Mn)	0.2	0.03	0.03	0.04	0.045	0.035	0.03	0,04	0,035
NH ₄ + ammonium	0.04	0.05	0.03	0.03	0.05	0.04	0.035	0,04	0,035
Bacteri.indicators									
Total no. coliform	0	0		0	0	0	0	90	0
E.coli	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	E-coli	0
Total no. of viable bac.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	120	0

Table no.1, Results of physical-chemical and bacteriological analysis

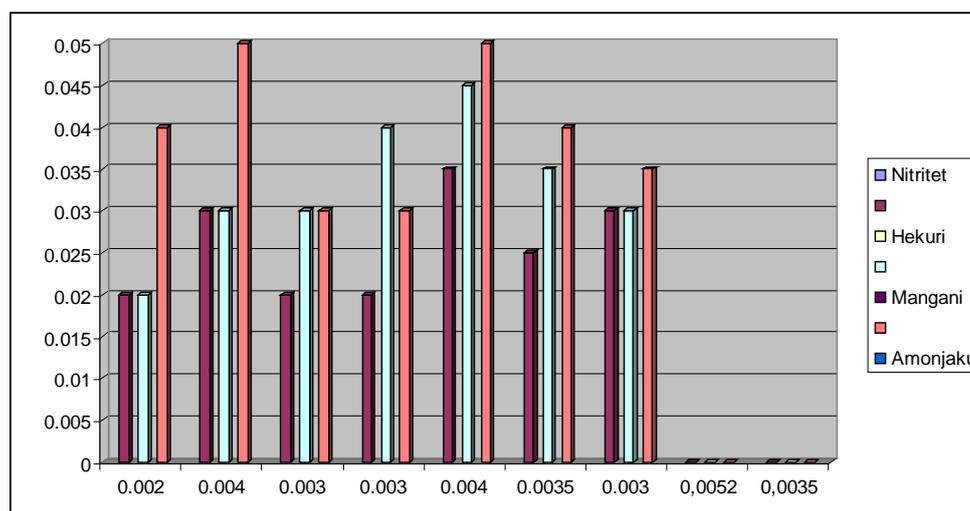


Diagram 1: nitrites, iron, manganese and ammonia.

Control of the quality of drinking water in the reference points or distribution network

2012								
Spring - Summer	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Physical-chemical indicators	Rez. S.F.	Rez. Qerim	Ambulanta e qytetit	Spitali	Rez. Rahovec	Q. e fëmijëve-R.	Shënpia Shëndetit-R.	P. e benz., Krush e v.
Temperature T°C	11.4	11.4	11.5	11.6	11.7	11.7	11.5	11.8
Color	pa	pa	pa	pa	pa	pa	pa	pa
Odor	pa	pa	pa	pa	pa	pa	pa	pa
Taste	pa	pa	pa	pa	pa	pa	pa	pa
Turbidity	0.16	0.19	0.19	0.2	0.2	0.21	0.2	0.22
pH value	7.49	7.45	7.48	7.45	7.46	7.44	7.48	7.52
Electr. conductivity	249	253	251	247	257	242	241	238
Free chlorine	0.5	0.38	0.33	0.31	0.35	0.32	0.32	0.2
KMnO ₄ value	2.8	3.2	2.8	3.2	3.47	3.2	3.2	3.63
Total hardness	7.42	7.28	7.42	7.28	7.42	7.28	7.28	7.42
Dry residue	149.4	151.8	150.6	148.2	154.2	145.2	144.6	142.8
Chlorides	6.38	6.02	5.67	6.02	6.38	6.02	6.02	5.67
Dissolved oxygen	11.5	11.1	11.0	10.8	10.4	10.4	10.2	10.0
Nitrites(NO ₂)	0.002	0.003	0.003	0.003	0.003	0.002	0.003	0.004
Nitrates NO ₃	0.07	0.08	0.08	0.09	0.11	0.08	0.09	0.13
Iron(Fe)	0.02	0.03	0.02	0.02	0.03	0.02	0.03	0.04
Manganese(Mn)	0.03	0.04	0.03	0.04	0.04	0.03	0.03	0.03
NH ₄ + ammonium	0.04	0.05	0.04	0.02	0.05	0.04	0.03	0.05
Bacteri. indicators								
Total no. coliform	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
E.coli	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Total no. of viable bac.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

Table no.2, Results of physical-chemical and bacteriological analysis

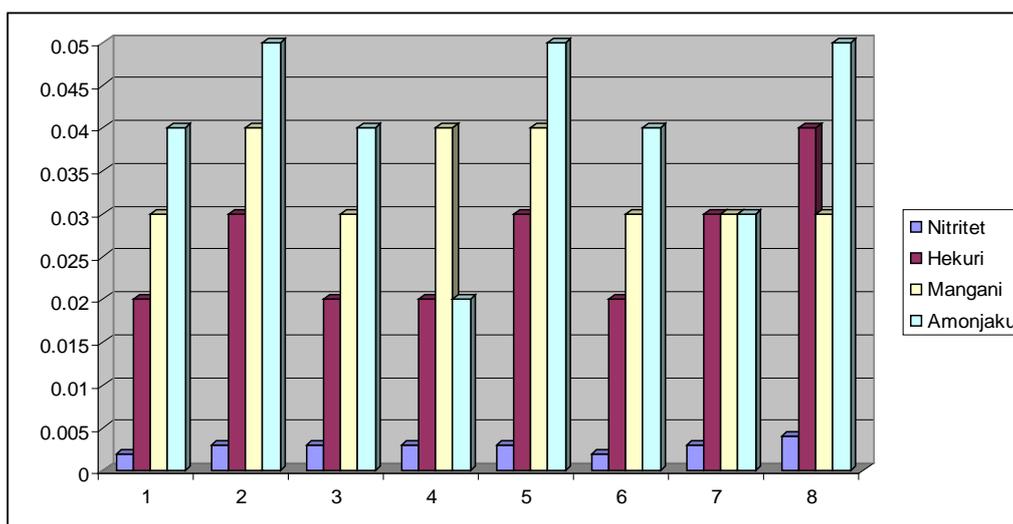


Diagram 2: nitrites, iron, manganese and ammonia.

Control of the quality of drinking water in the reference points or distribution network

Viti 2012								
Fall-Winter	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Physical-chemical indicators	Rez. S.F.	Rez. Qerim	Ambulanta e qytetit	Sptiali	Rez. Rahovec	Q. e fëmijëve-R.	Shëtitja Shëndetit-R.	P. e benz.. Krush e v.
Temperature T°C	8.5	8.6	8.7	8.8	8.7	8.8	8.7	8.9
Color	pa	pa	pa	pa	pa	pa	pa	pa
Odor	pa	pa	pa	pa	pa	pa	pa	pa
Taste	pa	pa	pa	pa	pa	pa	pa	pa
Turbidity	0.21	0.24	0.21	0.2	0.22	0.21	0.2	0.26
pH value	7.52	7.5	7.52	7.53	7.55	7.54	7.58	7.57
Electr.conductivity	251	254	251	249	257	259	249	247
Free chlorine	0.48	0.36	0.31	0.3	0.34	0.31	0.31	0.2
KMnO ₄ value	2.8	3.2	2.8	3.2	3.47	3.2	3.2	3.63
Total hardness	7.28	7.28	7.28	7.28	7.28	7.28	7.28	7.42
Dry residue	150.6	152.4	150.6	149.4	154.2	155.4	149.4	148.2
Chlorides	7.09	6.73	6.38	6.38	6.73	6.38	6.02	6.02
Dissolved oxygen	11.7	11.3	11.1	10.9	10.5	10.5	10.3	10.1
Nitrites(NO ₂)	0.0025	0.003	0.003	0.003	0.003	0.0025	0.003	0.004
Nitrates NO ₃	0.85	0.085	0.08	0.095	0.12	0.083	0.091	0.14
Iron(Fe)	0.025	0.032	0.025	0.025	0.032	0.023	0.03	0.04
Manganese(Mn)	0.031	0.04	0.031	0.04	0.04	0.032	0.034	0.035
NH ₄ + ammonium	0.042	0.052	0.045	0.024	0.05	0.04	0.032	0.05
Bacteri.indicators								
Total no. coliform	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
E.coli	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Total no. of viable bac.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

Table no.3, Results of physical-chemical and bacteriological analysis

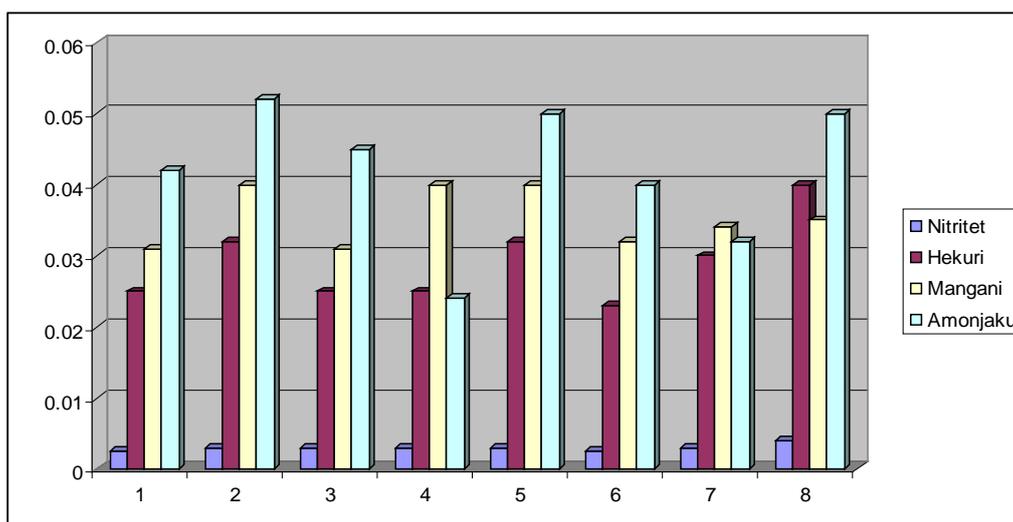


Diagram 3: nitrites, iron, manganese and ammonia.

Conclusions

The experimental results of water samples taken at the reference points of the distribution network of RWC "Radoniqi" Gjakova, were analyzed immediately in laboratory of treatment plant.

In table 1 and chart 1 in location 8-1 (Krusha e Vogel) are presented parameters with changes on organoleptic properties of water and some parameters beyond the permitted limit value as a result of mixing of drinking water with irrigation water due to installations made by the residents of the village. A warning is given immediately, and after the interventions 12 hours later analyzes have resulted according normative.

In Tables 2 and 3, as well as charts 2 and 3 are presented the results of physical-chemical and bacteriological parameters in 8 reference points of the distribution network during the spring - summer and fall - winter season, where all results are within the permitted normative limits.

Therefore, the results obtained on physical-chemical and bacteriological analysis in 8 reference points of the distribution network, show that the treated water of RWC "Radoniqi" Gjakova is high quality water, according to EU norms and Administrative Instruction nr.16/2012 for water quality human for consumption

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POST 2012 CLIMATE CHANGE AGREEMENT

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Abstract

Addressing climate change requires a thorough and sincere communication not only as to the scale of the challenge the world faces but also as to the international cooperation possibilities and countries willingness to commit to the challenge. Taking the lead in this group, European Union has acknowledged the fact that climate change is a serious social, political and economic challenge. Following the indications provided by the scientific rationale as to the urgent action that is required, European Community has involved itself in fight against the phenomena by engaging in working on a feasible solution to this problem. European Commission in particular has been taking upon its shoulders much of the workload in this field and has proved its dedication especially by involving stakeholders in constant dialogue on the subject. Sharing the ambitions of the European Commission in creating a cleaner world, the major goal of this paper is to provide the Commission with a series of recommendations from a development/political, environmental and economic perspective to ensure that the ambitions become a reality, and therefore a success. Accordingly, this paper provides an overview of sectoral and general approaches' effectiveness in terms of their economic and environmental as well as compliance prospects. Conclusion wraps up the paper providing a number of recommendations stemming mainly from stakeholders input's analysis.

Keywords: European commission, climate change, environmental policy, stakeholders, sectoral approaches

Abbreviations

APPE	Association of Petrochemicals Producers in Europe
CAN-E	Climate Action Network Europe
CCAP	Centre for Clean Air Policy
CCS	Carbon Capture and Geological Storage
CDM	Clean Development Mechanism
CE	Non-profit environmental consultancy
CO2	Carbon Dioxide
DG	Director General (Environment)
EAA	The European Aluminium Association
EC	European Commission
ECF	European Climate Foundation
ECJ	European Court of Justice
EP	European Parliament
ETS	Emission Trading Scheme
EU	European Union

EUROFER	European Confederation of Iron and Steel Industries
EurActiv	Online platform for Brussels and national professionals in EU policies
GHG	Green House Gases
GNP	Gross National Product
ICAO	International Civil Aviation Organization
IPCC	Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change
JI	Joint Implementation
MAELP	Master of European Law and Policy
NGOs	Non Governmental Organization
ODA	Overseas Development Assistance
TEA	Teachers Experiencing Antarctica and the Arctic
UNFCCC	United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change

Introduction

It has been widely recognized by the main actors involved in addressing climate change that the effective and economically efficient long term policy framework needs to be designed with cooperation of the majority of global actors in order to succeed the Kyoto Protocol. Addressing climate change requires a thorough and sincere communication not only as to the scale of the challenge the world faces but also as to the international cooperation possibilities and countries willingness to commit to the challenge. Taking the lead in this group, European Union has acknowledged the fact that climate change is a serious social, political and economic challenge. Following the indications provided by the scientific rationale as to the urgent action that is required, European Community has involved itself in fight against the phenomena by engaging in working on a feasible solution to this problem.

European Commission in particular has been taking upon its shoulders much of the workload in this field and has proved its dedication especially by involving stakeholders in constant dialogue on the subject. Sharing the ambitions of the European Commission in creating a cleaner world, the major goal of this project is to provide the Commission with a series of recommendations from a development/political, environmental and economic perspective to ensure that the ambitions become a reality, and therefore a success. Consequently, the objective of this paper is to:

provide an outline of the communication of the European Commission : “Communication from the Commission to the Council, the European Parliament, the European Economic and Social Committee and the Committee of the Regions - Limiting global climate change to 2 degrees Celsius - The way ahead for 2020 and beyond”,

define general and sectoral approaches which could effectively contribute to global emissions reduction,

illustrate sources of financing emission reductions and

provide strong arguments and advice for countries to comply with their commitments.

For many actors involved in the global climate policy process assessment of environmental policies starts from the perspective of potential environmental outcomes. This approach, however, is limited in a sense that it does not take into account such important factors as, for instance, economic aspects or the extent to which certain strategies are likely to be complied with. Keeping in mind all that, this paper has been structured in a way that allows for an overview of all the aspects related to the main environmental strategies appraisal. Accordingly, this paper provides an overview of sectoral and general approaches' effectiveness in terms of their economic and environmental as well as compliance prospects. Conclusion wraps up the paper providing a number of recommendations stemming mainly from stakeholders input's analysis.

Chapter two serves as a general introduction of the project. It describes the situation after Kyoto Protocol and current trends of the European Union environmental policy. It outlines the main points of the European Commission's climate change strategy as presented

in the Commission's Communication "Limiting Global Climate Change to 2 degrees Celsius: The way ahead 2020 and beyond". Chapter two describes also the stakeholders involved in the negotiation process and discusses the EU energy perspective.

Chapter three focuses on general and sectoral approaches of the climate change strategy. It analyses the advantages, as well as, disadvantages of both approaches and discusses the ones that have the potential of contributing effectively to a potential strategy. Furthermore, chapter three analyses methods of implementing the effective approaches to the EU policy.

Chapter four discusses the financial part of the climate change strategy. It analyses the costs of the climate change, explores different financial methods, and gives recommendations regarding cost allocation.

Chapter five deals with commitments of states and stakeholders at both EU and global level. It discusses the financial, political, and environmental perspectives and analyses the important sectors such as: aviation, industry and transport. Furthermore, chapter five deals with the role of trade unions and other stakeholders in making states comply with their commitments.

Chapter six presents the conclusions of our research and gives the Commission recommendations to improve the climate change strategy. Following solutions are being presented: alteration of the EU ETS; incorporation of the aviation sector in EU ETS; changing the focus of EU policy towards consumers, incorporation of the sectoral approach in a European agreement; sequential decision-making; and embracement of the opportunities stemming from innovation.

Chapter 2. Evaluation of the Commission Communication in the context of the EU action on climate change

Introduction

European Union proudly figures at the top of the list of global actors with the most advanced environmental policies. EU environmental action has begun with the summit held in 1972, in Stockholm leading to several environmental action programs that actually continue till the present day (Greenwood, 2003, p.186). It is not easy to summarize all the attempts that have been made in the field of environmental protection since that time. Certain key contributions to the current shape of the EU environmental policy, however, are worth mentioning:

- Single European market as a formal recognition of environmental policy

- Establishment of the precautionary principle

- Co-decision to apply to most areas of environmental policy

- Court of justice ground-breaking ruling in Danish Bottle Case where measures mainly intended to protect the environment were allowed even though they amounted to a trade barrier

- Environmental Fifth Program focused on sustainable development (Greenwood, 2003, pp.186-187)

The new millennium brings new fervor on the part of the European Union. The European Commission launches the first European Climate Change Programme. In 2005, EU's greenhouse gas Emission Trading Scheme and second European Climate Change Program are being initiated. In the meantime, global action is being undertaken as well. The Kyoto Protocol enters into force and the UNFCCC conference in Bali takes place initiating negotiations on potential post-Kyoto framework.

The European Commission remains to be particularly involved in the subject matter. As the EU struggles to keep up with the current commitments, the European Commission

begins preparations for a new environmental set of policies designed for the year 2012 and beyond (EurActiv, 2004, para.2). It perceives the EU as a global leader in addressing this issue. The Commission is aware of the fact that 2012 marks the year in which the Kyoto targets expire. Therefore, it is necessary for the international community to develop a new global agreement, including non-industrialised nations, to commit to an effective and lasting emissions reduction strategy. A new impulse must be given in order to achieve the 2°C temperature reduction, since the initial agreement of 5.2% below 1990 levels by 2012 could never achieve this goal. As a part of its plan, the Commission initiates communication which is to contribute to the ongoing debate on a future strategy for combating climate change. (European Commission, 2007, para3). This dialogue can be perceived as a "key climate change-related element of the Commission's integrated energy and climate change strategy".

There are several crucial points of the Commission's climate change strategy included in the above mentioned communication:

The group of developed countries should cut their emissions to an average of 30% below 1990 levels by 2020 under a new global climate change agreement

Developing countries – with the exception of the least developed countries - should slow the rate of growth of their emissions as soon as possible and then start reducing emissions in absolute terms from 2020 onwards. A major effort will also be needed to halt emissions resulting from deforestation.

The EU should continue to take the lead by committing autonomously to reduce its own emissions by at least 20% below 1990 levels by 2020. This figure should be increased to 30% as part of a satisfactory global agreement.

To control climate change effectively it will also be essential to halt tropical deforestation completely within the next two decades and then reverse it through afforestation or reforestation schemes.

By offering a 30% emissions reduction in the context of a satisfactory global agreement, and by committing autonomously to a cut of at least 20%, the EU would provide a clear basis for public and private investment in a low-carbon EU economy.

Stakeholders

It comes as no surprise that interest groups are one of the major actors in this Commission's consultation – "Towards a comprehensive and ambitious post-2012 climate change agreement". EU citizens, scholars, industry, trade unions, consumer representatives, NGOs as well as registered representatives from the European Commission's voluntary Register can be mentioned as examples. There are currently 354 interest representatives registered in the field of environment in the European Commission: professional consultants and law firms involved in lobbying EU institutions, NGOs, academic organizations and associations etc. The range of views of these groups represent facilitates recognition of main problems regarding implementation of existing EU proposals and undertaken actions. Recommendations provided by these groups have the potential of playing an important role in upcoming international negotiations on further action to combat climate change after 2012, when the Kyoto Protocol targets expire (Communication - Limiting Global Climate Change to 2 degrees Celsius, The way ahead for 2020 and beyond). Several stakeholders have been selected from among the interest groups to contribute to this research as it is believed that they represent a considerable cross-section of views on the subject (as the research unfolds, their opinions help to build conclusions on the appropriate approach towards climate change).

EU energy perspective

According to the Commission's findings, the measures foreseen in the Strategic EU Energy Review or EU Emission Trading scheme will facilitate delivery of a significant share

of the EU expected reductions. How could these reductions be achieved in particular, though? Industries that are covered by the EU ETS, for instance, have to lower their emissions significantly by means of emission trading. The system is to stimulate industries to reduce their CO₂ emissions in order to stay under the quota, provided by the European Commission. If a company has surpassed the quota it can buy 'emission rights' from cleaner companies which did not surpass their quota. In this way 'clean' companies are to be rewarded for their environmental policy, while polluting companies are to be penalized. As an outcome of this EU policy, industries should be encouraged to implement innovation as well as triggered to work together to acquire more energy efficient ways of production. Furthermore, the Communication and the energy package demonstrate that tackling climate change and energy policies go hand in hand. Integrating these policies is essential for reducing the EU's greenhouse gas emissions and makes the European economy more competitive. By building a low-carbon economy Europe will reduce its dependence on energy imports and continue to lead in low-carbon technologies such as renewable energy sources, energy efficiency and insulation, thereby stimulating EU growth and employment.

Chapter 3 ,General Sectoral approaches

Favoured approaches for the climate change strategy establishment process

When in the 1980s the climate change issue was brought to the international community's attention for the first time, the appropriate approach towards this problem had to be decided on. Two options were considered, namely, the sectoral approach and the comprehensive approach. Tracking policies adopted by the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC) as well as those agreed on in the Kyoto Protocol, one comes to conclusion that initially countries opted for the latter by choosing "economy-wide emission targets covering major GHGs, rather than separate protocols on energy, transportation, forestry and so forth (in Bodansky, 2007, p.1).

Both the UNFCCC and the Ad Hoc Working Group established by parties to Kyoto have recently shifted away from this initial approach. Consequently, they placed sectoral approaches in the climate change strategy planned for the post 2012 period (Bodansky, 2007, p.1). It has been acknowledged that sectoral agreements have the following advantages over the comprehensive ones (Bodansky, 2007, p.5):

They offer practical solutions for developing countries since they allow them to commit to the sector "where emission trends are well understood and can be forecast" (in Bodansky, 2007, p.1) as well as indicate corresponding climate change priorities as, for instance, air quality and, therefore, expand the scope of the state's commitment to climate change. They are relatively easy to reach "among a smaller number of parties, with greater commonality of interests" (Bodansky, 2007, p.5)

They allow countries to target sectors in which actions are most critical or sectors in which progress can be easily achieved in contrast to the comprehensive approach, sectoral approach has the potential of resolving some of the problems related to competitiveness since particular sectors cannot be given "competitive advantage vis á vis their foreign counterparts" (in Bodansky, 2007, p.5)

Approaches effectively contributing to global emission reductions

Many actors involved in environmental policy issues advocate sectoral approach to post-2012 climate policy as the one that should be adopted by the European Union. In the recent publication, the Center for Clean Air Policy has argued that under sector-based approach developing countries "would pledge to achieve a voluntary sector GHG intensity target (e.g. GHG/ton of steel) and would receive technology incentives from developed

countries in exchange” (in EurActiv, 2007, para.2). Major heavy and energy industries that were to be covered, for instance, electricity, steel, cement, oil refining, metals, were to contribute to emission reductions at a global level. Furthermore, the CCAP has indicated particular advantages for European industries by noticing that “the system would address concerns about competition by encouraging the participation of all the major operators in a sector in both developed and developing countries” (in EurActiv, 2007, para5).

According to the results of the research, sector-based approach is predicted to resolve "the continuing arguments in the European Union's Emissions Trading System over the fairness of individual Member State allowance allocations to individual companies as a result of the different implementation of sector targets between countries" (in Centre for Clean Air Policy, 2006, p.6). Most importantly, however, the report has gathered support from many developed and developing countries.

The sectoral approach, however, stands partly in opposition towards the European Commission's stance on the issue. The Commission favours an “inclusive approach where all industrial sectors are covered under a single CO₂ emissions trading scheme” (in EurActiv, 2007, para.8). The Emissions Trading Scheme which forms the basis of European Union Strategy on cutting greenhouse gas emissions is built on the principles included in the Clean Development Mechanism (CDM), Joint Implementation (JI) and international emissions trading (European Commission, 2007, p.5). Currently, the Clean Development Mechanism awards certified emission reduction units solely on a project basis. Some scholars have put forward a proposal to redesign the mechanism to allow states to:

“Establish sectoral baselines and to grant emission reduction credits for emission reductions relative to these sectoral baselines. In essence, a sectoral crediting mechanism would serve as a sectoral no-lose target: if emissions in the sector exceeded the baseline, there would be no legal consequences; but if emissions were below the baseline, then the state would receive emission reduction credits that could be traded internationally” (in Bodansky, 2007, p.4)

In light of the above, it seems promising that the Commission has recognized sectoral approach as a solution that developing countries can undertake in order to reduce their emissions. Generally, the Commission recommends:

"...the introduction of sector-wide company-level emissions trading in sectors where the capacity exists to monitor emissions and ensure compliance, particularly for energy-intensive sectors such as power generation, aluminium, iron, steel, cement, refineries and pulp and paper, most of which are exposed to international competition. Such schemes would be either global or national; if national schemes in developing countries should be linked with schemes in developed countries, with targets for each sector covered being gradually strengthened until they were similar to those set in developed countries. This would also limit the transfer of high-emission installations from countries where they are subject to reduction commitments to countries where they are not." (Commission, 2007, p.6)

Mainstreaming

Several scholars such as Richard Klein (2008) refer to mainstreaming as a useful tool to address climate change to ensure continuous feasibility and sustainability of sectoral and development investments. And see it as an effective mechanism for using financial and human resources more efficiently than managing climate policies separately from sectoral ones (Klein p.3). According to Klein, mainstreaming under the traditional understanding of adaptation is quite simple, but it is important to realize that adaptation can be only partly effective if it does not address non-climate factors, suit local conditions, and consider relevant social and environmental processes (p.4).

In his presentation on the stakeholders' conference Klein emphasized the importance of the aid from the developed countries. He highlighted the article 4 of UNFCCC: "the developed country Parties ... shall ... assist the developing country Parties that are particularly vulnerable to the adverse effects of climate change in meeting costs of adaptation to those adverse effects" (UNFCCC, article 4.4). Klein recommended the developed countries to give an additional funding to the developing ones, beyond what they already plan to provide as ODA. But he also suggested that there should be a clear understanding of how ODA and additional funds can match together. Klein also discussed two ways of adaptation: stand-alone and mainstreamed one. Although he highlighted the effectiveness of mainstreaming in adaptation and development, Klein suggested that the choice between these two should be an outcome of a national planning process (pp. 8-14).

Adaptation requires a lot of funding, but there is still no consensus between the stakeholders of the Commission's communication whether to significantly increase the funding or stick to the practical restraints. It is clear though, that the additional funds are needed, and innovative fund raising instruments should contribute to that. Adaptations tax can be one of such instruments, but it is important for the states to increase it beyond the CDM tax, and apply the principle of 'polluter pays'. And to further enhance the financing, it is important for the states to improve the role of the private sector, especially for risk sharing and financing new technologies.

Chapter 4 Financing emissions reductions

The cost of climate change

What seems to be a characteristic feature of the global climate change dilemma is the uncertainty connected with estimating not so much its benefits as primarily its costs. This uncertainty contributes effectively to decision-makers being hesitant towards any investment-related decisions. When it comes to financial issues, decision makers, even though already aware of the dangers of climate change lurking on the horizon, cannot turn a blind eye on such problems as, for instance, the higher energy expenditure associated with compliance to existing emission reduction programs. These costs would "reduce world energy demand, depressing oil and coal prices. Countries without emissions commitments would consume more fossil fuels, offsetting some of the emissions reductions by countries with commitments" (in Aldy et al, 2003, p.4). On the other hand, however, one cannot forget that delaying the action in the field will make any future actions even more costly.

Financing methods

When globally financing any future programs, it is imperative that an analysis of possible international distributions of the benefits and costs is being made for the purpose of identifying reasonable climate strategies. Certain criteria emerge from this type of assessment:

Criterion of responsibility – the nations that pollute the most should take on the biggest burden for fighting climate change. In this way "the polluter pays".

Criterion of ability to pay – the lead to tackle climate change should be taken by the wealthier nations.

Criterion of the distribution of benefits – the nations which will benefit most from the actions that are taken should take a greater share of the burden. (Aldy et al., 2003, p.6)

Finally, it is important to note that not only mitigation but also adaptation is expected to constitute an economic burden on those committed to emissions reduction. "Since future climate change is unavoidable, given the accumulation of greenhouse gases in the atmosphere that has already occurred and their relatively gradual decay rates, individuals, institutions, and ecosystems will need to adapt" (Aldy et al, 2003, p.7).

What can be assumed logical is that financing is one of the main components of ensuring global efforts. Thus it is important for it to be based on a clear mutual understanding of policy aims and requirements. It is true that the EU underlines a global responsibility in sharing the costs for actions which are in Europe's best interest, but it is also important to realize that sharing costs will considerably assist developing countries. Due to its high significance, there should be clear criteria for using common resources, so that the Commission has to make sure that the funds are well-organized, since it will have a huge effect on the overall commitments (Pietras, p.5).

Private and public sectors have to play a significant role in financing climate action, especially in terms of inducing and facilitating the process. International governance should be improved in order to increase the efficiency, and the pre-existing financial instruments that address climate change should be used effectively; for this, the Commission has to make a clear task and labour division (Pietras, p.6).

Currently there are several proposals concerning the mobilization of additional resources, such as: a top-up of the global 0,7% of GDP figure, budgetary contributions on the basis of certain criteria, auctioning of allowances at the global level, part of ETS auctioning revenues, and global carbon tax proposals. It is important for the Commission to work on these proposals, but at the same time on governance in developing countries, financial institutions and instruments (Pietras, p.6).

While having discussed several ways to finance emissions reductions the cost of the allowances is an important factor. According to the POLES calculations, the global carbon price per ton of CO₂ will reach 37 Euros by 2020 and 64 Euros by 2030. Due to investments in low carbon technologies, the costs are estimated to decrease around 0.5 % of global annual GDP up to 2030. Reduction targets are supposed to increase up to 30 % in 2020 and 50 % in 2030, and the scholars assume that this would generate carbon trading, achieving cost-effective emission reductions on a global scale. Moreover, reaching the targets of the developed countries in relation to trading, is supposed to reduce the global cost by three quarters (Commission Staff working document, ch.6).

The low costs as a result of additional investments in low carbon technologies should not be confused with the impact on economic development. Scholars used the GEM E3 model for the entire economy to assess the impact on economic development, and calculated that the world's GDP will almost double in 25 years in case if the emissions profile is well-matched with the 2°C objective. According to the Commission, national GDP will differ according to the reduction commitments, but the GDP change for the EU in annual terms is predicted to be larger than the global one around -0.19% by 2020, and -0.24% in 2030 (Commission Staff working document, ch.6.2.4-6.2.5).

Cost allocation

Having discussed several financing methods, a conclusion has to be made in relation to what the best way is of financing emissions reduction. The trading scheme of the European Commission is a fair way of distributing the costs of exhausting GHG. In respect of the three criteria mentioned above, we believe that they are equally important. Of course it seems more than fair that the polluter pays. Heavy polluting industries should pay more than other industries. Additionally countries with a higher GDP should take up the lead to combat climate change. But it is also necessary to search for new ways to reduce emissions. In this regard one should not forget that innovation might play a very important role in the future. So in addition to "punishing" heavy polluters with fines, industries that put much effort in innovation and reduce their emissions through it, should be rewarded.

What one also should not forget is the impact of deforestation and degradation on climate change. While creating a market for carbon trading and stimulating innovation, we

should not underestimate the impact of deforestation and degradation. According to mongabay.com deforestation and degradation accounts to approximately a fifth of global anthropogenic GHG (mongabay.com, 2008). Deforestation is currently not included in the EU ETS. To stimulate the fight against deforestation the European Commission should push for a Global Forest Carbon Mechanism. In the absence of such an agreement the European Commission proposed to allocate a share of the incomes from the auctioning of carbon emission permits for forest conservation. A 5% percent share could generate about €2.5 billion annually (mongabay.com, 2008) and this can be invested in forest conservation in developing countries where deforestation and degradation is taking place on a large scale.

Chapter 5, Commitment to Climate Change

Past experiences

The Kyoto Protocol's major feature is that it sets binding targets for 37 industrialised countries and the European Community for reducing greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions. Although the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change encourages participation, the Kyoto Protocol commits its participants to take action. In order to ensure its integrity, the Kyoto Protocol introduced a so-called compliance committee to enforce compliance with commitments under the protocol. Initially, there were a number of points of controversy surrounding the Kyoto Protocol:

No penalties for non-compliance / Withdraw

"Emissions reduction" not clearly defined

Methods for the actual use of Kyoto Mechanisms need finalisation

Exclusion of developing countries (India and China)

Costs and economic implications

Getting the reluctant supporters (Australia, Russia, USA and Canada) on board

The majority of these have been addressed and interesting proposals have been put forward. In the spirit of support for commitment to the terms of the Kyoto Protocol, the below views towards global commitment from financial, political and environmental perspectives should provide additional feedback for a successful climate change exercise.

Global commitment

Financial and Political Perspective

Beyond doubt, efficient as well as cost-effective climate change agreement has the potential of securing involvement of global actors, "with each and every country mitigating its emissions to the point where its own marginal abatement costs equalled the sum of marginal benefits globally" (in Aldy et al., 2003, p.6). According to Aldy, professor at the Department of Economics of Harvard University:

"Each country can do better by mitigating only up to the point where its own marginal benefit equals its marginal cost. As long as global marginal benefits exceed every nation's own marginal benefits, countries will either want to avoid participating or avoid complying fully, if they do participate. Successful international cooperation must change these incentives" (in Aldy et al., 2003, p.6).

Full participation as well as compliance is essential but not sufficient conditions for an efficient and cost-effective environmental policy. Possibly, an international agreement's conditions might be watered down to such an extent that most countries agree to comply and participate, and nevertheless, such an agreement does not achieve any significant objectives. The idea is, however, that such a treaty should not only make countries comply and contribute actively but also implement the dynamically effective degree of climate mitigation.

Here's where the political obstacles occur. The constraint of sovereignty, for instance, can make this ultimate goal unachievable (Barrett, 2003).

Two solutions have been suggested as an answer to this problem. A “narrow-but-deep” agreement presents an alternative by achieving considerable per-actor mitigation, however, attracting rather little participation. Another approach, so called “broad-but-shallow” agreement, is on the other hand expected to achieve relatively little per-actor mitigation, though it is expected to attract more participation among countries involved. In terms of satisfying both benefit and cost requirements, the latter agreement is anticipated to be a better solution. According to Barrett, "since marginal emissions control costs increase steeply, a broad-but-shallow policy would result in lower overall costs. Moreover, a broad-but-shallow policy could mitigate emissions leakage" (in Barrett, 2002).

While evaluating possibilities of ensuring countries compliance from the environmental perspective itself, one should have a look at correlations existing between countries willingness to comply and possibilities of actions being successful. As it has been mentioned above, benefits and costs of climate change policies are characterized by high degree of unpredictability. It sounds more than logical, therefore, that the risks of unnecessary or hasty action in the field are being measured up to the risks of failure to take any action that consequently turns out necessary (Goulder, 2000). Several studies have recently indicated that a so-called sequential decision-making approach to environmental policies diminishes uncertainties stemming from vague scientific information provided at certain point and allows for policy alteration as well as avoidance of such results as policy measure turning out inadequate. Contrary to rigid policy measures, sequential decision making approach allows new information to bring potentially beneficial hints with regards to policy mechanisms being implemented (Arrow et al., 1996). As countries are obviously hesitant to risk funding inflexible environmental policies due to financial risks involved, a global agreement based on policies that are to adapt to upcoming information might increase their willingness to comply.

Stakeholders recommendations concerning possibilities of compliance within potential environmental agreement

Interest groups are one of the major actors in the Commission's consultation – “Towards a comprehensive and ambitious post-2012 climate change agreement”; their recommendations will play a big role for a progress in the international negotiations on further action to combat climate change after 2012, when the Kyoto Protocol targets expire (Communication - Limiting Global Climate Change to 2 degrees Celsius, The way ahead for 2020 and beyond).

The interest groups of the Communication include: EU citizens, scholars, industry, trade unions, consumer representatives, and NGOs and other organizations. They can express their views on the different building blocks of the Bali Road Map that would enable the world to limit global warming to no more than 2°C above pre-industrial temperatures (Environment Consultations). The interest groups also include the registered representatives from the European Commission's voluntary Register. There are currently 354 interest representatives registered in the field of environment at the European Commission. These are: professional consultancies and law firms involved in lobbying EU institutions, NGOs, academic organizations and associations, representatives of religions, churches and communities of conviction, association of public authorities, and similar organizations (Register of Interest Representatives).

Industry

As a major contributor to climate change and towards combating climate change, industry can and must play a major role. Pollution caused by heavy industries is a principle negative factor in the climate change process. Inclusion of industry in the EU ETS is perhaps

one of the most important steps to combat climate change. Many MS, however, have taken a tough stance on the issue in the negotiation process. The economy seems to play an important role in the whole process of coming to a common environmental policy. Some Eastern European countries fear that the proposed carbon dioxide curbs will stunt economic growth. They also fear that electricity costs will rise dramatically as power generators are forced to pay for all their CO₂ permits from 2013. Germany, on the other hand, is trying to protect its industry from added costs. However, not only the states have expressed their concerns about the proposal of the European Commission. Heavy industries, such as, steel, aluminium and chemicals have also raised opposition to the proposal, arguing that their competitiveness with regards to industries in neighbouring regions will suffer due to less strict environmental regulations in those areas. Therefore, France proposed opt-outs for industries facing competition from unregulated overseas rivals and for some countries' power sectors. For the purpose of the research, the following industries' stance on the proposals of the European Commission needs illustration.

Steel industry

The European Confederation of Iron and Steel Industries (EUROFER) states in its position paper on ETS that the steel industry is willing to contribute to the reduction of greenhouse gas emissions (GHG) as proposed by the European Commission, but argues that there is a need for framework in a global context. EUROFER emphasizes the need for a Climate Change policy with implemented global CO₂ prices to avoid unequal conditions for competing industries. It furthermore calls for strengthening of the research and development. EUROFER fears that the current proposal of the European Commission might bring many disadvantages to the European steel industry, as for instance the threat of a full auctioning regime, penetration of the home market by non-EU competitors and complete exclusion from export markets, etc. On account of these threats, EUROFER calls for enhancement in the introduction of sufficient provisions in order to:

- ensure a sustainable development by a fair balance between climate change measures and the competitiveness of EU industry,
- allow the steel sector to remain internationally competitive through the continued allocation of free allowances as long as no international or global sectoral agreement which provides for an equal footing of industrial competitors is in place,
- secure sustainable investment and high quality jobs in the European steel industry to maintain the European Union as a region with a strong industrial backbone in which the steel industry remains a driver of technological innovation and added value. (EUROFER, October 2008)

The general guideline for improving the proposal should be a balanced recognition of social, economic and environmental aspects to secure sustainable progress towards the climate stabilisation whilst attaining a high level of employment, high social standards and the well-being of European citizens. (EUROFER, October 2008)

Petrochemical industry

The petrochemical industry is a very energy-intensive industry. As a result, the petrochemical industry has been investing in energy efficiency improvement for decades through innovation and better management. Due to economic and environmental policy conditions, the chemical industry has set its objective to reduce emissions with 30% by 2010. In its position paper, the Association of Petrochemicals Producers in Europe (APPE) argues that the European Commission and Member States should acknowledge the needs of industry. Furthermore, a stable environment to do business should be created.

The petrochemical industry is particularly concerned about the auctioning tool of the EU ETS. Although they support the aim of the CO₂ emissions' reduction, they believe that the auctioning system might negatively affect the competitiveness of the European industries. Therefore, they recommend “benchmarking” based on performance, which is in their view much more cost effective and beneficial with regards to the EU ETS goals and competitiveness of the European industries. Petrochemical industry argues further that benchmarking would “provide a strong motivation for continuously improving CO₂ performance while a generalised auctioning mechanism would penalise everybody, including the best performers” (APPE, October 2008). With benchmarking, the petrochemical industry will be allowed to use their investment capacities in order to produce new emission reduction techniques and to maintain stable competitiveness.

Aluminium industry

The European Aluminium Association (EAA) believes that the EU ETS could have a very negative effect on the European aluminium industry. Just like other industries and some Member States they fear that costs of CO₂ emissions will be incorporated into electricity prices. Furthermore, they express their concerns regarding possible negative effects that the EU ETS might have on the competitive position of the European industries in the global market. With almost the same arguments as the other industries that have been previously mentioned, the aluminium industry is in favour of protection of the industry through “free allocation of permits to benchmark for direct emissions and electricity induced cost increases, including those in self-generation” (EAA, 2007).

Currently electricity amounts to around 30 to 40% of the production costs. TEA believes that the costs of CO₂ allowances will rise after 2013. With the proposal of the European Commission, the aluminium industry cannot pass these costs in their product prices, in view of the global market. If they do so, they will lose their competitive position. Although the aluminium industry supports emission trading as an appropriate mechanism, it argues that the EU should adopt certain provisions to preserve the competitiveness of energy industries. They believe, otherwise, it would not be possible for them to maintain their current operations or to invest in new technologies to reduce emissions.

To conclude, the three above mentioned industries have more or less the same position regarding the proposal of the European Commission. They argue that the costs of CO₂ allowances might result in a steady increase of electricity prices, in this way distorting the market. Furthermore, the industries fear for their competitiveness in the global market and argue for the possibility of including benchmarking into the EU ETS as an alternative to the proposal of the European Commission.

Road Transport

Road transport as the second biggest source of greenhouse gas emissions in the EU, contributes to one-fifth of the EU's total emissions of carbon dioxide (CO₂) which is the main greenhouse gas. The transport industry is a branch that occupies an important position in the European Union, “accounting for 7% of its gross national product (GNP), 7% of all jobs, 40% of member states' investment and 30% of Community energy consumption.” In order to reduce greenhouse gas emissions as well as meet the Kyoto Protocol targets, the EU has agreed that average CO₂ emissions from new passenger cars should not exceed 120g CO₂ per km by 2012 (EurActiv, 2008, Transport in Brief, para. 2).

In order to improve the situation, the Commission has proposed introducing new binding legislation instead of the voluntary commitment of the sector to reduce CO₂ emissions. The car industry has rejected the plans, arguing that they have already achieved strong cuts through technological progress. Progress was made but “average emissions fell

only from 186g/km in 1995 to 161g/km in 2004” (EuroActiv, 2008, Cars and CO₂, para 5). The Commission therefore decided that the voluntary commitments would not achieve their target and binding legislation was necessary to be adopted. Consequently, in December 2007, the European Commission proposed binding legislation for vehicle manufacturers to cut the average emissions of new cars by improving vehicle technology. As a result of extensive lobbying from both the car industry and green NGOs (especially the German car industry, which is the world's global leader in heavy luxury cars but also the industry with higher CO₂ emissions), the presentation of the Commission's strategy was postponed, however, finally took place on the 7th of February, 2007 (EurActiv 07/02/07).

Lately, a compromise agreement to reduce CO₂ emissions from new vehicles was reached on the 1st of December, 2008 after significant pressure from the car industry, which is actually being influenced by the economic crisis. After a month of tri-partial discussions (EurActiv 04/11/08), member states settled for a compromise based on a French proposal to limit CO₂ emissions gradually. Most manufacturers are expected to meet the target set by the legislation, so significant penalties should be avoided.

Aviation sector

The exhaustion of carbon emissions from the aviation sector have currently not been included in the EU ETS. Despite this fact, the European Commission is currently working on including the aviation sector within the scope of the EU ETS. EU Commissioner Stavros Dimas underlined the importance of including the aviation sector in the EU ETS in a press release from the EU at the end of September, 2007:

“In order to fight climate change, all sectors must contribute in a fair way, including aviation, whose emissions are increasing very rapidly. It is a great pity that ICAO has not been able to reach an agreement on the way forward. The EU has set up an ambitious and comprehensive emissions trading system and it is in the process of agreeing legislation that would extend it to aviation emissions (in Alice Bows et al., 2009. p. 64).

Considering the growth of the aviation sector in the recent years and the growth prospects in the future, it seems not only fair, in comparison to other sectors, to include the aviation sector in the EU ETS but also quite important for the EU to achieve their ambitious targets. The EU has to implement a set of measures to reduce the impact of climate change caused by aviation. In the absence of a global agreement concerning cutting down emissions from the aviation sector, several ways of covering those emissions were recommended. CE Delft, a Dutch non-profit environmental consultancy investigated the issue and proposed flight coverage options. According to CE Delft, three options to include emissions in the EU ETS seem promising:

- “emissions from all flights departing the EU
- emissions from all intra-EU flights
- the emissions from flights passing through EU airspace”
(Alice Bows, Kevin Anderson, Paul Upham, 2009. p. 65).

The aviation sector itself can try to lower the exhaust of emissions by improving technologies, for instance, by modifying the engine and airframe designs. The reduction of aircraft weight is predicted to improve the fuel efficiency. Currently most airplanes are built of aluminium. The use of carbon composite materials, as those used by manufacturers in the new Boeing 787 and Airbus A350, is to effectively reduce the weight of aircrafts and improve fuel efficiency (Alice Bows, Kevin Anderson, Paul Upham, 2009. p. 50). Reduction of the exhaust of carbon emissions can additionally be achieved through the use of ‘low-carbon fuels’ like bio-diesel, bio-kerosene or hydrogen (Alice Bows, Kevin Anderson, Paul Upham, 2009. p. 50-52).

What can be concluded from the above-mentioned is that there are many opportunities for the aviation sector and consequently for the EU to reduce the exhaust of carbon emissions. Real efforts, however, need to be made by all parties involved in order to create an effective EU climate policy based on the research and existing proposals.

Trade Unions

When looking at climate change from a trade union's perspective one cannot deny the importance of its main goal of maintaining and improving employment conditions. Trade unions therefore see great potential for improving workers' conditions not only on an EU scale but on a global scale when member States commit themselves towards active participation in a global emission reduction strategy.

"Employment and workplace issues are at the top of our agenda, as is the need to ensure worker and trade union participation in climate decision-making to implement change at the point of production as well as in communities around the world. Attention should be given also to programmes for greening workplaces and communities" (Pearson, 2007)

From an employment perspective, there will be an increase in employment resulting from new jobs to be created due to the so-called new green industrialization force. This green industrialization force is committed to developing new low carbon technologies and renewable energy sources. From a health and safety perspective this is a welcome change, mainly for developing nations as those workers are by far more susceptible to negative effects of climate change due to emissions. In addition, they are also more vulnerable to the damages caused by the non-environmental friendly industries they work for, in comparison to their counterparts in developed nations.

"As the nature of what is produced changes that is going to affect workers on a day to day basis as their jobs vanish or move, around the country or to the other side of the world. It is a trade union issue because by the nature of what workers do on a day to day basis they are producers of carbon emissions - not by will but by default" (Kearns,2008)

The Trade Unions would like to warn the global actors for failure to comply with the terms of the new strategy. The severe environmental conditions (such as Katrina or Tsunami) and the negative effects they have had on employment, leaving thousands and thousands still unemployed to this day will continue to affect societies if no action is taken. Moreover, employment shifts due to adverse environmental conditions can be found in relation to specific sectors. For example, a shift is predicted in the tourism sector where in regards to coastal areas and islands, due to raised water levels will disappear into the seas. As for mountainous areas, global warming results in less frost, meaning less snow meaning fewer jobs. With this in mind, trade unions have listed six climate change priorities:

- Undertake research to establish climate change linkages to employment;
- Establish climate change linkages to sustainable development;
- Promote worker participation as a key to determining sustainability of climate change policies;

- Recognize the workplace as a key field of action for climate change;

- Consider technology options that strengthen social engagement by favouring sustainable and labour-intensive energy solutions;

- Fashion a long-term agreement for equitable sharing of the burden of emission reduction between developing and developed countries to extend beyond 2012. (World of Work Forum, 2007)

It is evident from a trade unions' perspective that the climate change strategy will provide workers and their societies with new opportunities. Trade unions would like to raise awareness among governments and societies of the benefits to compliance to the proposed strategy. Job creation will benefit societies globally as well as the incentive to create

healthier, safer and more secure working environments, which will prove to be major success factors.

Other Opinions

According to the agreement made by the European Council in 2007, European Union agreed to "cut overall greenhouse gas emissions by 20% compared to 1990 levels" (EurActiv.com, 2008, para 1, "EU Emissions Trading Scheme"). This agreement belongs to the main points mentioned in the EU's Emissions Trading Scheme (EU ETS). Central and Eastern newcomers to the EU has already objected to this plan arguing that it places an extensive burden on their economies and might potentially diminish competitiveness of their coal-oriented industries. "Instead of using 2005 as the reference year for the basis of the European Commission's calculations, they advocate a uniform 18% reduction of emissions for all member countries" (EurActiv.com, 2008, para 5, "Poland proposes price band for CO₂").

Poland took the leadership of this group and came up with the plan to set "upper and lower limits for CO₂ permits within the EU's Emissions Trading Scheme" (para 1). Polish government expects 2.7 billion euro of deficit stemming from "the discrepancy between the auctioning revenue accruing to the government and the number of allowances the industry will have to buy" (para. 13). Authorities use the argumentation put forth by the main Polish energy companies which have the following standpoints on the issue:

- "Auctioning foreseen by the Commission after 2013, but with only a quarter of the costs" (para. 9)
- "ETS would raise costs for Polish industries by 65%" (para. 11)

Regarding financial part of European Union proposals, new member states consider it favouring the old member states. Therefore, they perceive the "principle of sharing the costs of common solutions according to the financial capacity of individual member state" as more appropriate one (para. 7).

Not only new EU Member States perceive the need to alter the existing concepts related to the Emission Trading Scheme. In order to maintain the continuity of the negotiation rounds and to push the Member States to come to a climate policy agreement, France recently has proposed some measures to revise the current EU ETS proposal. In its most recent proposal France opts for "free emission rights for coal plants, financial compensation for energy-intensive industries and extensive use of third country emissions reductions to meet CO₂ 'effort sharing' targets" (EurActiv, 27 November 2008). In determining the qualification for receiving free emission rights France proposes that the threshold for free emission rights in coal industry intensive countries should be 30% of their national energy production, as recent proposals mentioned 60% as the threshold for free emission rights.

The details of a 'trialogue talk' held on 25 November between France, representatives of the European Commission and the European Parliament are yet to be revealed, albeit slowly. But there are signs that the three are negotiating for a financial aid for energy-intensive industries that will face high energy costs due to the EU ETS. As part of a way to deal with sectors that do not fall under the scope of the current EU ETS there are signs for a proposal that would give Member States the opportunity to invest in clean development projects in third countries. By doing so, Member States could book up to 70% of the emission reductions (EurActiv, 27 November 2008). Environmental NGOs and green groups argue that if the above mentioned proposals are to be accepted as such, it would mean that the current climate package is to be effectively ruined. Furthermore it is argued that the proposed compensation for energy-intensive industries would seriously undermine and damage the EU ETS (EurActiv, 27 November 2008).

Environmental perspective

Looking at climate change from an environmental perspective, several weak key areas can be distinguished. According to the European Environmental Agency's report 'Impact of Europe's Changing Climate – 2008 indicator based assessment' those key areas are water, ecosystems, food, coastal areas and health. The physical effects of climate change on the earth can be seen in the rise of water levels, disturbance of ecosystems, vanishing of coastal regions, and an increase in weather-related deaths. Although these results have not been quantified, there is reason enough to believe that these physical effects will change the earth as we know it today. In order to determine what exactly the physical effects will be, it is necessary for the relevant scientific institutes to provide more research in these vulnerable areas.

Those countries most affected by these changes are the developing countries. The poorest countries do not have the ability to make the necessary changes to adapt to the situation. According to the IPCC, the principle of adaptation can be defined as the "Adjustment in natural or human systems in response to actual or expected climatic stimuli or their effects, which moderates harm or exploits beneficial opportunities." The developed nations need to step up to their moral obligation to support the developing nations in their aim to adapt, as we live in a global environment and the negative effects of climate change will eventually spill over from the least developed to the most developed countries.

From an environmental perspective it is not only necessary for countries to prevent the negative effects of climate change but to provide more research on and quantify the physical climate change effects on the earth and help each other, by means of adaptation to cope with the changes brought about by climate change.

Commitment within the EU

Enforcement action against Member States constitutes a possibility of ensuring that countries belonging to the European Union comply with their commitments. Article 10 clearly provides all Member States with the duty to fulfil the specific obligations placed on them by both the Treaty and secondary sources of Community law. It also provides the Member States with a general duty not to do anything that could jeopardize the aims of the Community. The Treaty itself ensures that all Member states comply with their Community obligations (Davies, 2003, p.68).

Enforcement procedures, particularly the administrative stage of Art 226 EC, play an important role in ensuring that Community aims are achieved and Community law is upheld.

Although no official figures are available relating the success of the informal investigative stage followed by the Commission, the administrative stage as a whole is particularly successful in resolving breaches, as reference to the following table demonstrates:

Year	Formal letters issued:	Reasoned opinions issued:	Referrals to the ECJ:
1999	1,075	460	178
2000	1,317	460	172
2001	1,050	569	162

(In Davies, 2003, p.71)

As the above figures demonstrate, the vast majority of breaches are resolved without the need to refer the matter to the ECJ. This suggests that the administrative stage of enforcement produces is particularly successful in that it allows the Commission to "educate" Member States and ensure that they are aware of their EC obligations (Davies, 2003, p.71).

It needs to be emphasized, however, that as of 2005, environmental cases continued to make up almost one quarter of the number of cases open with regards to enforcement

procedures of Articles 226 and 228. Various attempts have been made to address the problem of overload and delay. The Commission has begun to emphasize mechanisms and alternative methods of resolution, to prioritize certain kinds of breach, and to identify cases involving widespread, general, or persistent breaches (Craig & De Burca, 2008, pp. 428-429)

Chapter 6, Conclusions and Recommendations

Based on the findings of our paper, we would like to reaffirm the priority of reaching European environmental agreement based on efficient and economically effective long-term policy framework. In relation to that, we would like to emphasize the importance of communication between the main actors involved in shaping policy frameworks as well as the significance of rapid action in the field as the costs of future action are expected to be more costly. Since the European Union has acknowledged the implications of inaction, it has the potential of playing a major role in reaching a much needed global agreement in the near future. Taking advantage of its potential, it can provide an incentive for major polluting countries like China or the United States which have not ratified the Kyoto Protocol.

Prior to linking together the European and international policies into an efficient international framework, general and sectoral approaches towards reducing emissions should be explored. As stems from the analysis of international agreements that have been made throughout the years, sectoral approach has lately gained recognition due to several advantages over general approach. Based on that, our research has been focused on benefits of sectoral approach, and has provided a detailed analysis of particular sectors involved in the negotiation process of coming to a common European environmental agreement. Based on the opinions of stakeholders mentioned in the paper, the following recommendations can be suggested:

Incorporation of the sectoral approach in European agreement:

Sectoral approach has several advantages that have been acknowledged by, for instance, UNFCCC and the Ad Hoc Working Group established by parties to Kyoto. This approach facilitates addressing competitiveness concerns within the potential framework. As confirmed by scholars, it offers practical solutions for developing countries in particular. As it is more functional among a smaller number of parties, with shared aims, it might turn out to be problematic to implement it within a global agreement where many actors with different views and interests clash. However, sectoral approach gives countries discretion to target sectors in which actions are most critical and in which progress can be easily achieved. In this way it respects the prerogatives of national governments and allows them to employ policies that are best suited to their own national circumstances.

Alteration of the Emission Trading Scheme:

It seems beneficial to establish sectoral baselines and to grant emission reduction credits for emission reductions relative to these sectoral baselines for energy-intensive sectors such as power generation, aluminium, iron, steel, cement, refineries and pulp and paper. In essence, a sectoral crediting mechanism would serve as a sectoral no-lose target: if emissions in the sector exceeded the baseline, there would be no legal consequences; but if emissions were below the baseline, then the state would receive emission reduction credits that could be traded internationally.

Incorporation of the aviation sector into EU ETS:

As stems from a thorough analysis of the EU Emission Trading Scheme, not all sectors currently fall under its scope. This can be perceived as a weak point of the above mentioned strategy. The aviation sector, for instance, is currently not included in the scheme.

Taking into account the fact that the aviation sector is a fast growing sector in the EU it seems more than logical to include it in the EU ETS. To give an example of why is it important to include aviation in the scheme, here are some percentages: while the total green house gas emissions in the EU dropped 3% in the period between 1990 and 2002, emissions from aviation increased significantly in the same period with almost 70% (European Commission, 18 November 2008).

Change in focus of EU policy towards consumers:

Environmental and consumer dialogues have produced concrete recommendations to the governments on important issues such as climate change but decision makers have not always granted these civil society groups the opportunity to express their concerns in person. The Post Kyoto Agenda should be shaped and driven with the full participation of people from all walks of life. European consumers have to know that they can effectively contribute to the progression of environmental preservation if future EU initiatives are to have any real impact. It is important that any potential change is not only visible, but also that consumers feel they are part of that change. Recently, there has been an evolution in the way people think about the environment but it can be stronger if they are more involved as real actors instead of as feedback providers solely.

As indicated in our paper, combating climate change is characterized by the uncertainty connected with estimating costs. An agreement within the field of environment constitutes a challenge as countries are obviously reluctant to invest in policies that are unsure to bring desired outcomes. These two issues link the financial aspect of a potential agreement with a compliance element.

Sequential decision-making as a potential solution:

The so-called sequential decision-making has the potential of increasing certainty regarding policy outcomes in cases whereas scientific information does not provide it. Furthermore, it allows policies to be altered in order to meet the desired objectives. As the new information comes about, policy makers have the chance to embrace the findings in the planned measures. In conclusion, sequential decision making encourages countries to comply with the framework they commit themselves to as they do not face the risks of losing financial means.

Having discussed the decision making within the financial framework, it is important to further elaborate shortly on the cost allocation related issues. The criteria of responsibility, ability to pay as well as distribution of benefits shed some light on the importance of cost allocation. It seems more than logical to assume that the factors such as GDP or emission levels (polluter pays) have to be taken into consideration while allocating the burden of financing. In this regard, developed countries in Europe should take the responsibility of helping those developing countries which may not be able to assume absolute emission targets in the short run. We are of the opinion, though, that the mechanism based on penalizing heavy polluters and countries with highest GDP do not constitute a sufficient enough mean of achieving emissions reduction on its own. The following recommendation can be perceived as a possible solution to the problems arising in conclusion to the mentioned above:

Embracing opportunities stemming from innovation:

Innovation might be a positive incentive for industries to reach the emission targets set by the Commission. Consequently, the Commission can play a major role in stimulating industries towards innovation. Encouraged effectively, it could create a great degree of positive impact on many fields such as economy (job market in particular). Abundance of examples can be provided of business success' stories stemming from innovation and

adaptation to the new market opportunities. As an alternative to punitive policies, rewards can be provided by the European Union to those industries that are willing to implement innovative technologies. The current economic crisis could create possibilities of enforcing incorporation of novelty solutions by the European Union institutions on companies that find themselves in financial distress. Industries that are in financial trouble could apply for subsidies that would be granted after certain conditions were met. One possibility for the EU would be to demand incorporation of an innovative factor that has a potential of facilitating emission reductions before a subsidy is being granted.

Regarding the possible compliance measures, this paper has provided an insight into two types of solutions, namely, “broad-but-shallow” and “narrow-but-deep”. Implementation of the latter can be perceived as an appropriate solution in achieving the Commission’s objectives. The former, on the other hand, seems to create a possible solution to a global agreement as it has to be ratified by many countries with different views on the subject matter. The global framework should accommodate the diversity by allowing variation in the magnitude and timing of countries’ commitments, providing that the overall framework is capable of meeting the agreed intermediate and long-term goals. A comprehensive framework has been developed within the EU itself that deals with non-compliance. It has been incorporated into the EC Treaty, namely, into article 226 (infraction procedure). This method of making countries comply has been efficient, though, has also created problems regarding workload of the European Court of Justice.

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IDENTIFYING AND UNDERSTANDING THE PATTERNS AND PROCESSES OF FOREST COVER CHANGE IN ALBANIA AND KOSOVO

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Abstract

Forests are important resources for local livelihoods and the economy. Forests regulate climate by sequestering and storing carbon and harbor significant biodiversity. Yet, forest cover can be significantly affected by changes in institutional and political framework conditions such as induced by the collapse of socialism in Eastern Europe and the war in Kosovo. This study analyzes the patterns of changes in forest cover for a period from 1988 to 2000 and from 2000 and 2007 for Albania and Kosovo. The methodological approach applied geographically weighted regression using remote sensing forest data. Three models were developed and fitted using these forest data: one based on the environmental factors and two models associated with demographic and policy variables. The decomposition of local variation of the relationships of the forest cover change and variables was undertaken to built-up a hierarchy of determinants. Policy model included protected areas, commune forests, accessible determinants and obtained the lowest Corrected Akaike Information values, and accessible variables were the determinants explaining the patterns of forest cover changes in the study area. It is demonstrated how the results of the descriptive statistics and models can be incorporated to investigate the changes of forested landscape at country-level and village-level. Descriptive statistics demonstrated deforestation in protected areas and the modeling in the surroundings of protected areas. These results show clearly forest reforms, institutions and users contribute to the changes of forested landscape, indicating the importance of collaboration between institutions and users to monitoring of all activities in forests.

Keywords: Forest cover change, local variation, patterns, post-socialism, processes

Introduction

Timber harvesting activities such as logging, forest overuse and mismanagement may lead to forest habitat fragmentation (Lindenmayer & Fischer, 2006), which is one of the key drivers of global species loss (Fischer & Lindenmayer, 2007). The development of infrastructure e.g., roads, human settlements can encourage habitat loss and degradation (Lambin & Geist, 2006). A lack of enforcement (of law) and weak institutions contribute also to the loss of forest cover (Arun Agrawal, Chhatre, & Hardin, 2008; Taff, Müller, Kuemmerle, Ozdeneral, & Walsh, 2010).

Deforestation and forest degradation contribute up to 20% of global greenhouse gas emissions (IPCC, 2007) and are among the prime causes of global biodiversity decline due to habitat loss (Gaston, 2005; Loiselle, Graham, Goerck, & Ribeiro, 2010; Pimm & Raven, 2000; Sala et al., 2000). These consequences of forest cover change have manifold implications for ecosystem functioning and human well-being (Hooper et al., 2005; MA, 2005). Hence, understanding the patterns and processes of forest cover change may help us better comprehend the acquisition of natural resources by humans, as well as their consequences on forest-based ecosystem services.

Yet, forest cover is also expanding in many areas around the globe. Forest increases are attributed to a variety of pathways that are reactions to changes in the exogenous boundary conditions such as industrial development or state policy measures, or are caused by endogenous reactions of land users to changing forest product scarcities (Lambin & Meyfroidt, 2010; Rudel et al., 2005).

The regions of Eastern Europe and the former Soviet Union harbor significant forest resources, however, they experienced considerable illegal logging, and significant natural expansion of forests on formerly used agricultural lands (Kuemmerle, J. Kozak, V.C Radeloff, & Hostert, 2009; Müller & Munroe, 2008). However, estimations shows that political regime changes could also offer opportunities for biodiversity conservation (Radeloff et al., 2013). Therefore, it is interesting to see the forest cover changes from this perspective in the studied area.

An increase in forest cover may positively affect forest-based ecosystem services by, e.g., sequestering carbon from the atmosphere, decreasing surface runoff, and altering landscape habitats. However, the particular effects are place-specific and better knowledge of the patterns of forest increase may provide valuable inputs for the analysis of forest cover changes because these changes could be difficult to analyze with linear models. For example, the analysis of landscape change in Latvia emphasized the 'non-linearity of changes' observed after the collapse of socialism (Vanwambeke, Meyfroidt, & Nikodemus, 2012).

In this study, the GWR technique is used to explore the spatial heterogeneity using fine resolution data of forest and two distinctive datasets. The datasets were largely composed of disaggregated determinants for Albania and Kosovo. For the first time, the spatial heterogeneity of the relationships between the forest cover change and determinants are studied in two different periods from 1988 to 2000 and from 2000 to 2007 for two countries of the Southeastern Europe, filling gaps of literature on the land use change in post-socialist and post-war countries. The research questions were firstly to identify determinants that explain the strong patterns of forest cover change examining the extent to which policy factors and environmental factors explain these changes by selecting the best model using the concept of inference statistics of the parsimonious model (Burnham & Anderson, 2002; Johnson & Omland, 2004b), and secondly, exploring local variation of relationships between determinants and forest cover change, and building a hierarchy amongst determinants calculating the decomposition of the local variation of forest cover change and determinant relationship (Kamar, Partridge, & Olfert, 2007; Kmeta, 1986) using the GWR (Stewart A. Fotheringham, Brundson, & Charlton, 1998). Deductively, I assumed that minimum distance to human settlements (villages, towns) have a negative, ambiguous sign with forest cover change, and I focused my interpretation and discussion around the selected determinant and model. The analysis of generalized least squares (GLS) identified most significant determinants that had the largest value of variance of the relationships, demonstrating information about the spatial heterogeneity of relationships of forest cover change and determinants. Finally, this study provides a clear and new workflow of a GWR application focusing not simply to identify patterns of forest cover change, but also to identify determinants that explain the strong patterns of the changes of forest cover.

Methods

Study area

The study area has a total area of 39,284.9 km² and consists of the countries Albania and Kosovo. The two countries in the study area have been under socialist regimes from the end of the Second World War until the early 1990s. Kosovo was originally part of Yugoslavia, which split into seven countries due to conflicts and political disputes.

This resulted in Kosovo being created in 2008. In 2007, the area consisted of

Albanian forests and woodland (approximately 27 percent) and Kosovan's (40.3 percent), (Suess, 2010), (Fig. 1).

Forests and pasturelands were 100 percent state-owned in socialism in Albania. In 2005, the forests consisted of public-owned forests (98 percent) and private-owned forests (2 percent), (FAO, 2010). The change of forest ownership from the state to private and from the central government to local government started after the collapse of the socialism in 1990s in Albania. In socialism, forests were public-owned forests and private-owned forests in Kosovo. In 2003, forests consisted of public forests of 41 percent, private forests of 33 percent and unknown-ownership of 26 percent based on Kosovo Forest Inventory 2003 (MAFRD, 2007; SOK, 2008). The network of protected area consisted of 10 percent of Albania in 2006, and 8.3 percent of Kosovo in 2008. The multiple uses of oak and beech forests, and the deforestation caused by clearing land for agriculture, have caused their massive degradation, the reduction of biodiversity and severe soil erosion (FAO & Dida, 2003; Meta, 1993). The conflict in Kosovo led to high migration of population to neighboring countries such as Albania, The Former Yugoslavia Republic of Macedonia, Montenegro and Serbia (ICBL, 2000a, 2000b), to the reduction of agriculture production (Ogden, 2000) and unexploited objects and mines. The process of clearing mines started immediately after the end of the conflict of Kosovo, lasting for several years.

Forest cover data

Forest data of resolution 28.5 m derived from Landsat TM and ETM+ satellite images for ~1988, 2000 and 2007 were processed in the Geomatics Lab at the Humboldt University of Berlin with an overall accuracy of 93% and a kappa indices agreement of 0.85, and were provided by Stefan Suess (2010). The forest class consisted of forest patches greater than 7 pixels of Landsat. This class was composed of deciduous forests, coniferous forests and shrubs (with a height of greater than 3 m) and covering above the 50 percent of a Landsat pixel. The non-forest class consisted of all non-forest land cover (urban land, agriculture land, pastureland, waters), (Table 1). The sources of images were Eurimage and the Global Land Cover Facility (GLCF) of the University of Maryland. The GLCF provided large blocks of orthorectified and geodetically accurate global land data sets of the National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA). These data had a geodetic inaccuracy less than 15 m, (Suess, 2010). A ground truth data were collected by Suess (2010) in August and September 2008 in the study area for training and validation purpose measuring approximately 600 control points using the Global Positioning System (GPS) and photographing these spots. To validate the results of satellite images, Suess (2010) used the Quickbird images of resolution of less than 3 m, and the Google Earth. Topographic maps of the scale of 1:50 000 of the University of California were partly geo-referenced for the land cover of Albania in 1980s (Suess, 2010). He used the approach of Support Vector Machine (SVM) chain classification approach (J. Knorn et al., 2009) for the satellite images of 1988, 2000 and 2007. The SVMs represent a group of non-parametric algorithms (Huang, Davis, & Townshend, 2002), and is considered as one of the most recent developments in the field of machine learning (Janz, Linden, Waske, & Hostert, 2007). All images and vector layers were projected to UTM Zone 34 N, datum WGS84.

The masks of the analysis were the country boundary of Albania and Kosovo. This allowed the data within the country boundary to be processed. The forest and non-forest pixels were reclassified as '1' and '0', respectively. The pixels (forests, non-forests) were intersected with the village boundaries to count the number of forest pixels for each village. The number of forest pixels was multiplied by the pixel resolution (28.5m) and divided by 10,000 to give the forest cover in hectares for 1988, 2000 and 2007. The forest cover 1988 was subtracted from the forest cover 2000 presenting the forest cover change from 1988 to

2000 (in hectares). The forest cover 2000 was subtracted from the forest cover 2007 presenting the forest cover change from 2000 to 2007 (in hectares), (Fig. 2). The forest cover change had negative and positive values. The negative values of the forest cover change presented a change of land cover from forests to non-forests, a forest decrease, (designated as “deforestation” process of the forest cover change) and the positive values of the forest cover change presented a change of land cover from non-forests to forests, a forest increase, (designated as “forestation” process of the forest cover change in this study). Forestation consisted of afforestation, reforestation and the natural expansion of forests (FAO, 2000) in this study.

Biophysical, demographic and policy data

Elevation for the study area was derived from a Digital Elevation Model (DEM) of 25 m resolution for Albania and 50 m resolution for Kosovo. The data of elevation, the boundaries of Albania and Kosovo, ecological regions (Pindus Mountain Forests, Balkan Mixed Forests, Dinaric Mountains Mixed Forests and Illyrian Forests), road networks (main roads, major roads, seasonal roads, highway, first roads and secondary roads), human settlements (towns, villages and sub-urban areas), population data (1989, 2001, population estimation 1991, and projected population 2004), protected areas (strictly protected areas, national parks, natural monuments, nature resource management, landscape protection, managed resource protected area) were provided by provided by the Environmental Legislation and Planning Albania, Kosovo Ministry of Agriculture, Forestry and Rural Development, the Institute for Nature Conservation Albania, Kosovo Agency for Environmental Protection, Kosovo Statistical Office (publications). Soil data (Eutric Regosol, Calcaric Regosol, Cambic Arenosol, Eutric Cambisol, Regosol, Cambisol, Dystric Planosol, Luvisol and Ranker) were provided by the European Soil Database. The vector layer of village and commune were transformed into a layer of geographic locations of villages (X, Y) and a layer of geographic locations of communes (X, Y), respectively, by calculating the coordinates of a point that was located at the center of gravity (centroid) of villages and communes in ArcGIS.

Albania commune forests presented a new forest reform after the collapse of socialism aiming at the regeneration of degraded forests governed by the central government in the socialism (state forests). This post-socialist reform allows now the administration of forests by communes (local government) and the use of forests by villagers. In this study, I considered 364 villages consisting of villages of 1996 (14), 1997 (4), 1998 (18), 1999 (185) and 2000 (143).

The unexploded ordnance and mines (UXOM) consisted of the depleted uranium bombs and mines remained of Kosovo conflict of 1998-1999. The coordinates of approximate bombed areas and mines (point data) were geo-referenced using (UNEP, 2001), and the reports on mine clearance in cross-border Albania-Kosovo and Kosovo-Macedonia (ICBL, 2000a, 2000b), respectively.

All data used in the forest cover change modeling were aggregated to village boundaries using Zonal statistics in ArcGIS (with the aggregated pixel taking the mean value lower resolution pixels), resulting in total of 52 layers consisting of 29 layers for Albania and 23 layers for Kosovo. The total number of villages was 4,352 consisting of Albania (3,054) and Kosovo (1,298). All data were projected to UTM Zone 34 N, datum WGS84 and prepared in ArcGIS using Arcmap 9.3, (ESRI, 2009), (Appendix, Table S1, Table S2).

Descriptive statistics

The raster layers depicting elevation, slope, Euclidean distance to human settlements, Euclidean distance to roads, Euclidean distance town and commune center, Euclidean

distance to major roads, Euclidean distance to protected areas, Euclidean distance to asphalted roads were transformed into a set of new layers by applying a “reclassification” operation in ArcGIS. This involved recalculating the value of a given focal cell into five quintiles (0 percent, 25 percent, 50 percent, 75 percent, 100 percent). The input raster layer of forest cover change from 1988 to 2000 (and forest cover change from 2000 to 2007) overlaid to new layers of these explanatory variables (elevation, slope, Euclidean distance to human settlements, Euclidean distance to roads, Euclidean distance town and commune center, Euclidean distance to major roads, Euclidean distance to protected areas, Euclidean distance to asphalted roads) to calculate the percent of forest cover change in five quintiles using “cell statistics” in ArcGIS. This involved recalculating the value of a given cell based on the mean value of forest cover in five quintiles (ESRI, 2009). This allowed the number of forest pixels (in a quintile) to be multiplied by the resolution of forest pixels of 28.5m and divided by the total number of forest pixels.

The vector layers depicting soil type, protected areas, and ecological zones were intersected with forest raster layers using “Zonal histogram” operation in ArcGIS. This involved forest cells intersected soil vector data generating a histogram, which was an output table consisting of a number of forest pixels for each soil type. This operation (Zonal histogram) was applied to calculate the percentage of deforestation and forestation to years of establishment of commune administration.

Models and determinants

The forest cover change models were based on information-theoretic methods, which focused on the search for a parsimonious model as the primary philosophy of statistical inference (Burnham & Anderson, 2002; Johnson & Omland, 2004a). First, I set a priori hypotheses on forest distribution that describe natural conditions required for forests to grow based on the literature of land use and forests in Albania. For example, elevation and soil type are expected to be positively correlated to the forest cover, the forests is denser in the elevated topography (Deininger & Minten, 2002; Müller & Zeller, 2002). For example beech forests grows naturally in certain soils and in elevated landscape than oak forests in Albania (Agrotec.SpA.Consortium, 2004). Hence, the variables capturing soil types are expected to be statistically significant for forest cover (changes) in some regions. But the direction of influence is a priori, because the forest cover change data does not contain information on the composition of forest species that may have allowed anticipating the effect of soil types. The geographic location of villages, measured as the centroid coordinates of a village (X, Y), serve as proxies for climatic conditions in this study. Albania has a Mediterranean climate in the west and south and a more continental climate in the east and northeast. Therefore, villages further north and villages further east tend to have a cooler (lower temperature) and a more humid climate (more rainfall) than villages further in the south and the west. For instance hotter and drier climate will result in increased risk of forest fires that negatively affect forest (cover), the forest ecosystem productivity and lead to biodiversity loss (of village forests), (IPCC, 2001; Thuiller, Lavorel, Araujo, Sykes, & Prentice, 2005).

Ecological zones are useful information to understand the changes of forests based on the natural characteristics of forests (vegetation), because ecological zone provide insights on the changes of forest resources at large-scale (region), (FAO, 2000). Forests in Albania and Kosovo are respectively subtropical dry forests rich of evergreen oak species and temperate continental forests (ecological zones) having different deciduous broadleaved forests e.g., oak, mixed oak-hornbeam and mixed lime-oak tree specie, (FAO, 2000). Therefore, more broadleaved forests are expected to grow naturally in Albania and Kosovo.

The vicinity of forests to markets, the presence of roads are all used as determinants that have an impact on deforestation (Deininger & Minten, 2002; Mertens, Forni, & Lambin,

2001; Nelson & Hellerstein, 1997). Euclidean distance to road and markets serve as a proxy for prices and transaction costs (Deininger & Minten, 2002) and access to political centers (Müller, 2003). Higher lagged population is often cited as a major factor influencing deforestation (Deininger & Minten, 2002). Forests in protected areas are better-protected from the deforestation, which means that less deforestation occurs in protected areas forests (Deininger & Minten, 2002; Geist & Lambin, 2002).

Literature tends to focus more on the selection of determinants of deforestation than to explain the causes of forest cover change. In case of forest cover change, the focus is on the selection of determinants that explain both deforestation and forestation as the processes of the changes of forest cover. Therefore, I set hypotheses of deforestation and forestation for Albania and Kosovo as follows: deforestation is caused by logging activities including illegal logging (WB, 2004, 2007), legal logging for industrial wood, firewood for heating, the grazing of forests (WB, 2011) charcoal production and open-up lands for pasture (own observations in the study area) and industrial wood. The long-term forest resources assessment database of European Forest Institute (EFI) shows the removals of forests were for firewood and industrial wood in socialism in Albania and the Former Yugoslavia (EFI, 2009) and still forests are removed for firewood and industrial wood in post-socialist Albania (FAO, 2010). The number of forest fires increased from 342 in 1996 to 1182 in 2007 in Albania (FAO, 2010). Forest fires are usually set by local people mainly for pasture improvement that could cause forestland clearing (own observations).

Both Albania and Kosovo have experienced high outmigration from rural to urban areas and abroad (Calogero, Benjamin, Stampini, & Zezza, 2006; UNDPKosovo, 2004), which could mean less pressure to forests and allow forests to grow. The post-socialism reform of agriculture in 1992 was associated with the refuse of marginalized and non-high quality agriculture land in Albania (WB, 2002). The decline of agriculture cultivation may potentially lead to the natural expansion of forests in Albania and therefore to the increase of forest cover (Müller & Munroe, 2008; Taff et al., 2010). The new reform of commune forests started in 1994 (WB, 2011). It was expected local people let forests regenerate (Arun Agrawal & Chhatre, 2006; WB, 2004, 2011). Some villages planted trees (afforestation) to protect soil from the erosion (WB, 2011). The natural regeneration of forests and afforestation in communal forests could lead to the increase of forest cover. The forests near Unexploited Objects and Mines (UXOM) sites are expected to be abandoned because they could still be dangerous to be utilized (Machlis & Hanson, 2008). The author observed land abandonment in previous mined areas of the conflict 1998-1999 in Kosovo in border with Albania (own observations).

It is also known that forests are accessed by institutions users (villagers, companies, illegal users) using the network of roads, markets, institutions and homes. The Euclidean distance to human settlements, Euclidean distance to roads, Euclidian distance to commune and city centers, Euclidean distance to forest edge were thought to be a surrogate for 'accessibility of the forests' by villages, town, communes, markets, and institutions affecting the forest cover either by increasing it (this is a case of well-managed by institutions and well-used forests by users) or by decreasing it (this is the case of mismanagement by institutions and overuse of forests by users). The remote forests (forests away from roads, markets and commune centers) and old-grown forests are likely more distributed in elevated topography and accessed because of their high quality of timber.

I split the variables for forest cover change modeling into three categories, which are labeled 'biophysical', 'demographic' and 'policy', where biophysical variables were thought to be a surrogate for forest natural growth and demographic and policy were thought to affect the forest cover changes. Demographic and policy factors were divided into category of 'demographic' and 'policy' to further understand factors that explained the observed changes

of forest cover. The biophysical model consisted of layers of elevation, soil type, ecological zones, village locations, demographic model consisted of populations and model of policy determinants consisted of policy variables: roads, human settlements and mined and contaminated sites from Kosovo war and institutional: the new established post-socialist administration for communal forests and for the management of forests in protected areas and for the protection of environment and biodiversity in protected areas and environmental protection in forests. The setting-up of new post-socialist institutions (of communal forests and protected areas) is interlinked to the changes of political regime. Years of establishment of communal forest administration is an institutional variable, which also implies a political decision to give forests from central to local government and local people to manage and use forests, respectively. Protected areas entails the institution that are established to plan, design, establish and manage existing and new protected areas and it also implies the political decision for planning, management and the expansion of protected areas. The policy and institutional variables is designated as 'policy' model in this paper.

Tests for variables were conducted to remove those that were highly correlated (Pearson correlation test >0.7).

Forest cover change model were created using Geographically Weighted Regression (GWR) technique (Stewart A. Fotheringham et al., 1998) to identify and understand the patterns of the relationships of forest cover change and explanatory variables, and how these relationships varied across space (e.g., spatial heterogeneity between environment and vegetation (Kupfer & Farris, 2007), socioeconomic and vegetation (Ogneva-Himmelberger, Pearsall, & Rakshit, 2009), access to infrastructure and forests (Deininger & Minten, 2002). The forest cover change from 1988 to 2000 and forest cover change from 2000 to 2007 were the dependent variables, and the independent variables were made up of combinations of either biophysical, demographic or policy variables. An adaptive kernel (Gaussian function) was used because of non-uniformly dispersed data selecting 30 neighbors (villages), (S. A. Fotheringham, Brunson, & Charlton, 2002), after many tries of GWR using different number of neighbors (30, 60, 90, 150 and 350). Model selection was undertaken using the Corrected Akaike's Information (AICc) (Burnham & Anderson, 2002; Kupfer & Farris, 2007) and Moran' I of residuals, local R^2 , standardized residuals, the significance of local coefficients using Monte Carlo test (Moran, 1948) and the variance of local coefficients using a cut-off of 0.50 as Kamar et al. (2007). A variance of local coefficient was considerable above 0.50, high at 0.60, considerably high at more than 0.70, and non- considerable under 0.50. Generalized least squares (GLS) is used to calculate the spatial relationships of observations and examine the variance structure function of relationships between determinants and forest cover change, (Zuur, Ieno, Walker, Anatoly A., & Smith, 2009). All GWR models were fitted using R (version 2.9.0) (RDCT, 2009).

Results

The patterns of forest cover changes

Albania shows more absolute changes of forest cover from the first to the second period compared to Kosovo. Deforestation dominates in the first period and forestation in the second period in both countries. Forest distribution of observed disturbed forests (forest increase and forest decrease) in the study area is shown in the Fig. 1. The patterns of forest cover change altered from north to south and from east to west of the study area. The forests have massively been reduced in the first period (1988-2000). The forests have increased mostly in southern and north-central area of Albania and southwest of Kosovo in the second period (2000-2007). Over the same period, forests have been decreased in the northern and western Albania and in northern and central Kosovo, (Fig. 2).

Descriptive statistics of forest cover change

This analysis enabled us to distinguish differences and similarities of the forest cover changes in Albania and Kosovo from 1988 to 2007. Firstly, the forest covers have changed from the first period (1988-2000) to the second period (2000-2007) in the study area. Secondly, the patterns of forest cover change in Kosovo differed from Albania. For example, deforestation is stronger and more spread in higher elevations, steep slopes, and long-distance accessibility areas or in remote forested lands (away from roads and/or human settlements and commune and town centers). Forestation is higher in low elevations, gentle slope areas, and close to roads, markets and human settlements in Albania, (Fig. 3a). In Kosovo, deforestation is encountered in high elevations, steep slopes, and far from roads, protected areas, communes, UXOM sites and in remote areas. Deforestation is encountered in the first quintiles of the nearest distance to protected areas, commune centers, and human settlements from 1988-2000. Forestation occurs in low elevations, gentle slopes, is accessible from roads, close to protected areas, and close to populated areas and commune centers, (Fig. 3b).

Models for forest cover change

The policy models of forest cover change were the one with the lowest AICc values for Albania and Kosovo, the lowest values of Moran' I of residuals, (Table 2), statistically significant values of Monte Carlo test of GWR coefficients, and considerable high values of the variance of GWR coefficient (>50 percent), (Table 3), and low values of standard errors of GWR coefficients (0.0; 0.03), (Fig. 5, Fig. S1). The values of model-fit local R^2 of these policy models ranged up to 0.72 in the first period and 0.80 for the second period, (Fig. 4) indicating the presence of the high local variation of the relationships between policy variables and the forest cover change in the study area in both periods. Top-hierarchy determinant of Euclidean distance to human settlements explained the strong patterns of forest cover change. The patterns of Euclidean distance to human settlement (in average per village) were positively correlated with forest increase in Albania in the second period. In Kosovo, the negative patterns (negative values of the GWR coefficients of Euclidean distance to human settlement) were correlated with forest decrease and positive patterns (positive values of the GWR coefficients of Euclidean distance to human settlement) with forest increase (in the same period). The distinct patterns of the estimated GWR coefficients of the Euclidean distance to human settlements and forest cover change relationships were concentrated in northern, southern and western Albania, and in northern and southern Kosovo (Fig. 5). Forest increased closer to human settlements and tended to decline more in remote areas in Albania and Kosovo. Despite forest increase nearer human settlements, the pressure for wood collection concentrated towards stable forests in remote areas (forests were more abundant, well-grown and old-grown) from the first period to the second period.

Discussion

This study showed a workflow starting with the descriptive analysis of the forest cover change, applying the GWR combined with the decomposition of local variation and the information theoretic using two unique datasets to explain the patterns and processes of the changes of forest cover. This study examined forest cover change in two post-socialist countries of Southeastern Europe for two periods of 1988-2000 and 2000-2007. It was the first country-wide study for Albania and Kosovo that investigated the influence and the spatial variation of the determinants of forest cover change at the village level by applying GWR. The statistical modeling allowed both to draw comparisons across the two countries and over time. The results demonstrated the substantial differences in the patterns of determinants of forest cover change for distinct areas in both countries. Three models of biophysical, policy and demographic determinants, respectively, were estimated and the most

parsimonious model was selected for the interpretation of the results. The variable selection in all models was based on the academic work on land use change, forests in Albania and data availability to conduct this research. The decision criterion for the most parsimonious model was the Corrected Akaike's Information Criterion. GWR was used to estimate patterns and processes and therefore to reveal the information at the local level for the relationships of forest cover change and determinants. GWR allowed the calculation of the decomposition of local variation of the relationships, which defined the importance of the influence of GWR coefficients of determinants obtained by GWR to the response variable. GLS further allowed calculating the spatial relationships of observations and hence to investigate the variance structure function of relationships between determinants and forest cover change (Table S3). The calculation of the variance of local coefficients and of the spatial relationship of observations was apparently two steps frequently neglected in GWR studies.

The determinants of forest cover change in Albania and Kosovo

This study demonstrated interesting results on the determinants of forest cover change, namely Euclidean distance to human settlements, Euclidean distance to war-sites, protected areas, commune forests and climate. Firstly, one of these results was the decrease of forest cover inside of protected areas and their surroundings, indicating these forested areas were utilized for their resources. This also indicated responsible institutions of forestry, environmental protection and nature conservation institutions for the management and protection of forests were unable to survey, monitor and control any forest activities inside of protected areas and their surrounding areas. Protected area could ensure better forest protection, but they cannot guarantee a full protection and halt entirely the deforestation within these areas (Deininger & Minten, 2002). In case of Romania, the high logging rates were likely triggered by rapid changes in institutions and ownership resulting in the reduction of the forest cover, and causing an increasing fragmentation of forest cover in protected areas (Jan Knorn et al., 2012). Secondly, forests close to war-site spots have not been used by people in the first period of 1988-2000, indicating these forests were not safe. These forests were utilized by people in the second period indicating these forests were harmless. Thirdly, the policy variable of Euclidean distance human settlements had clear effects to forest cover changes. It was estimated deforestation was more spread in Albania compared to Kosovo (occurred in more quintiles of Euclidean distance human settlements). This shows that forests accessed by human settlements tended to be used more in Albania compared to Kosovo. The observations of forest cover derived from the satellite images and the descriptive analysis of forest cover change demonstrated clearly forests have been reduced in the first period (particularly Albania), indicating firewood collection and logging have been intensive near roads and human settlements. Over the same period, the institutions entailed for forest management and environmental protection were unable to halt the spread of forest cutting activities. During the second period, forest loss was encountered in the highest quintiles of the Euclidean distance to human settlement telling us that forests grown in elevated topography and away from the populated areas were under pressure for firewood and industrial wood. Euclidean distance to human settlements was very much associated with deforestation at high quintiles in Kosovo, indicating the collection of woods for heating of houses was still important for rural areas. Fourthly, the descriptive analysis showed a slight increase of forest cover change in 364 communal forests. Forest cover increased from the first period (-3,013 ha) to the second period (5,350 ha), demonstrating commune forests increased unevenly in communes, (Table 5). However, deforestation was present in commune forests indicating these forests were unsustainably used in these communes jeopardizing the forest reform. Fifthly, the location of village and therefore the condition of climate had clear

effects to the forest cover changes in Albania and Kosovo, demonstrating influence varied over space on forests, (Table 6).

The drivers of forest cover change in Albania and Kosovo

This study demonstrated clearly that forests differed spatially and temporarily in the study area because of the extraction of woods and regeneration of forests. The principal finding of the current study was the accessibility of well-grown and old-grown forests likely spurred a larger extraction of wood for firewood and export, the production of charcoal and the grazing of livestock including pasture open-up areas and war in Kosovo. It is highlighted that forest clearing in Albania was mainly driven by the subsistence necessities around populated areas in the years after the collapse of socialism, while more commercial clearing patterns dominated in later stages of the post-socialist period, indicated by the changing influences of the determinants of accessibility cf. (Müller & Munroe, 2008). Also, forest cover decreases and increases were higher at medium and high elevation terciles while closed forests persisted at higher altitudes cf. (Müller & Sikor, 2006; Taff et al., 2010). For example, forests tended to decrease in remote areas, in protected areas and commune forests due to these drivers in the second period, indicating institutions were unable to control logging and land-use activities (pasture) contributing to the loss of forest cover in northern Albania and in northern and southern Kosovo.

Conclusion

This study demonstrated that the change of regime in two countries was associated with massive changes of forest cover after the collapse of socialism in Albania and war in Kosovo. It was estimated that most of pressure would be on stable remote and protected forests in distinct local patterns of forests, indicating that present day management and use of forests had strong implications on the protection and conservation of forests.

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Support information

Appendix Table S1 Dataset of Albania at village level

Appendix Table S2 Dataset of Kosovo at village level

Appendix Table S3 The summary of GLS results and model selection estimators

Appendix Fig S1 Standard errors of coefficients of the Euclidean distance to human settlements of the policy model 1988-2000

Appendix Table S1 Dataset of Albania at village level

Variables	Unit	MEAN	STD	MIN	MAX
Forest cover change 1988-2000	hectare	-5.6	69.38	-901.11	467.78
Forest cover change 2000-2007	hectare	18.12	56.1	-562.48	397.35
Pindus Mountain Forests	percentage	41.38	48.56	0.00	100.00
Cambisols	percentage	26.19	40.78	0.00	100.00
Regosols	percentage	28.90	43.01	0.00	100.00
Protected areas	percentage	3.44	15.35	0.00	100.00
Population 2001	number of inhabitants	1137.9	3867.7	2.00	98792.00
Population 1989	number of inhabitants	1166	3492.4	15.00	82719.00
Eutric regosols	percentage	28.8	43.01	0.00	100.00
Calcaric regosols	percentage	0.09	1.88	0.00	80.29
Eutric cambisols	percentage	17.74	35.88	0.00	100.00
Cambic arenosols	percentage	0.99	8.62	0.00	100.00
Elevation mean	meters	520.2	432.05	0.74	2024.76
Balkan Mixed Forests	percentage	2.36	15.17	0.00	100.00
Dinaric Mountain Forests	percentage	3.44	18.22	0.00	100.00
Years of establishment of communal forest administration	percentage	11.91	32.4	0.00	100.00
Strict nature reserve	percentage	0.29	4.19	0.00	100.00
National parks	percentage	2	12.39	0.00	100.00
Natural monuments	percentage	0.18	3.2	0.00	99.65
Habitat/species management area	percentage	0.98	7.7	0.00	100.00
Protected landscape/seascape area	percentage	2.69	15.29	0.00	100.00
Managed resource protection area	percentage	0.54	5.94	0.00	100.00
Distance to nearest roads	meter	612.64	544.12	69.65	5214.46
Distance to nearest major roads	meter	1400.2	1326.9	92.14	9969.53
Distance to nearest asphalted road	meter	2371.4	2262.1	119.67	16357.20
Distance to nearest human settlements	meter	1070.8	539.52	318.12	5714.65
Distance to nearest city and commune centre	meter	3442.3	1494.8	369.52	10995.20
Distance to nearest forest edge 1988	meter	220.79	254.6	3.37	3602.54
Distance to nearest forest edge 2000	meter	185.76	201.95	3.80	2074.16

Appendix Table S2 Dataset of Kosovo at village level

Variables	Unit	Mean	STD	Min	Max
Forest cover change 1988-2000	hectare	-0.42	36.03	-358.77	218.41
Forest cover change 2000-2007	hectare	9.12	32.51	-176.91	323.27
Population estimation 1991	number of inhabitants	1471.26	6400.38	0.00	155499.00
Population projection 2004	number of inhabitants	1621.41	7489.05	0.00	188776.00
Luvisols	percentage	3.17	15.93	0.00	100.00
Rankers	percentage	8.01	25.62	0.00	100.00
Cambisols	percentage	54.43	46.30	0.00	100.00
Dystric Planosols	percentage	1.81	12.06	0.00	100.00
Elevation mean	meters	703.49	276.04	308.09	2234.79
Pindus Mountain Forests	percentage	1.60	11.82	0.00	100.00
Balkan Mixed Forests	percentage	97.28	14.31	0.00	100.00
Dinaric Mountain Forests	percentage	1.11	8.14	0.00	100.00
National parks	percentage	1.12	7.86	0.00	99.00
Proposed national parks	percentage	2.29	13.53	0.00	100.00
Protected landscape/seascape area	percentage	0.02	0.50	0.00	13.00
Distance to nearest roads	meter	556.05	496.79	54.73	7461.87
Distance to nearest major roads	meter	2899.8	2448.95	90.44	16833.2
Distance to nearest highway	meter	5013.71	4242.58	223.1	30095.8
Distance to nearest UXOM	meter	7942.44	6811.32	183.81	45737.3

Distance to nearest city and commune centre	meter	7636.47	3375.58	742.08	21782
Distance to nearest human settlements	meter	1011.4	444.8	271.36	5146.68
Distance to nearest forest edge 1988	meter	141.22	181.25	2.163	1927.26
Distance to nearest forest edge 2000	meter	114.24	122.72	2.46	1138.42

Appendix Table S3 The summary of GLS results and model selection estimators:

Corrected Akaike's Information Criterion (AICc), variance structure, likelihood ratio, df, p-value. Levels of significance for p-value is 1 percent, 5 percent and 10 percent

Model, Albania	GWR	GLS		Likelihood ratio	df	p-value	Determinant significance at p-value <.0001	
1988-2000	AICc	AIC	Weights					
Biophysical	33320	33109	Elevation constant power structure variance	91.70	2	<.0001	Elevation, Mountain Cambisols	Pindus Forests,
Demographic	33926	34498	Population exponential structure variance		1			
Political-institutional	33176	32574	Euclidean distance to forest edge 1988 power structure variance	1970.84	1	<.0001	Distance to nearest: asphalted roads, roads, forest edge 1988	
2000-2007								
Biophysical	31886	31926	Elevation constant power structure variance	79.00	2	<.0001	Elevation, Cambisols or Cambisols, Regsols	
Demographic	32250	33200	Population exponential structure variance		1			
Political-institutional	31650	31774	Euclidean distance to human settlement power structure variance	1487.96	1	<.0001	Landscape protected areas and Managed resource protected areas; distance to nearest: roads, asphalted roads, human settlements, city and commune center, forest edge 2000, protected areas	
Model, Kosovo								
1988-2000	AICc	AIC	Weights					
Biophysical	12474	12393	Elevation constant power structure variance	23.85	2	<.0001	Elevation, mountain forests, mountain forests, Luvisosl	Pindus Dinaric
Demographic	12655	13003	Population exponential structure variance					

Political-institutional	12358	12397	Euclidean distance to human settlement power structure variance	208.80	1	<.0001	Euclidean distance to highway, Euclidean distance to nearest roads, distance to nearest protected areas
<hr/>							
2000-2007							
Biophysical	12395	12641	Elevation fixed structure variance function				Elevation, Pindus mountain forests; Rankers
Demographic	12440	12700	Population exponential structure variance				
Political-institutional	12317	12523	Euclidean distance to human settlement power structure variance	70.75	1	<.0001	Euclidean distance to nearest city and commune center, distance to nearest protected areas

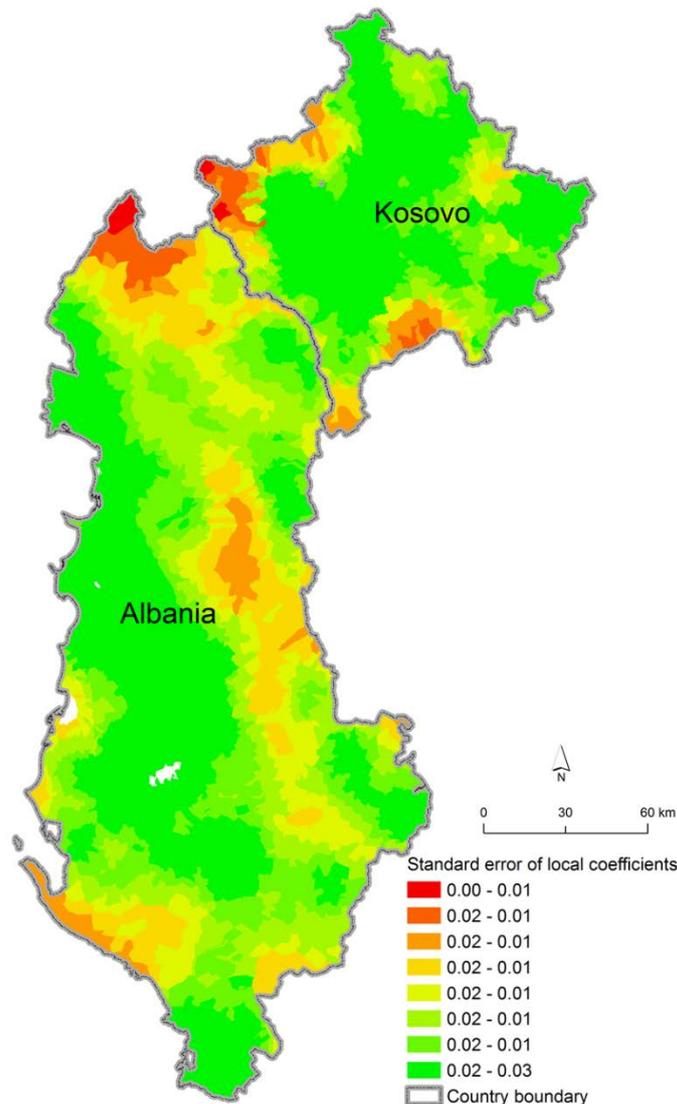


Figure S1

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Table 1 Description of land cover classes

Class name	Description
Forest	(Semi-) natural terrestrial vegetation (broadleaved evergreen forest, broadleaved deciduous forest, coniferous forest and mixed forest), cultivated terrestrial (broadleaved arboriculture, fruit trees, orchards, groves, nurseries, vineyards) and shrub forest
Non-forest	All others: built up areas, urban and industrial areas, artificial and natural perennial water bodies, aquatic vegetation, beaches, bare rocks/soils, sparse trees and shrubs; rock outcrops, (herbaceous) crops, vegetated urban areas, grassland

Source: (Suess, 2010)

Table 2 Percentage of forest cover change by protection status

Forest cover change	Protected landscape	Habitat management	Proposed national park	National park	Strict protected areas
Albania	-0.5	0.3	-	0.8	-0.7
Kosovo	0.03	-	-0.02	-0.02	0

Table note: Habitat management category of protected areas is only in Albania and proposed national park category is only in Kosovo.

Table 3 The summary of the best biophysical, demographic and policy GWR models for forest cover change and model selection estimator: Corrected Akaike Information (AICc), Moran's I of the residuals

Model 1988-2000	AICc	AICc	Moran's I of the residuals	
Albania	OLS	GWR	OLS	GWR
Biophysical	34298	33320	0.38	0.18
Biophysical including climate determinants	34285	33209	0.38	0.15
Demographic	34566	33926	0.44	0.26
Policy	34462	33176	0.48	0.14
Kosovo	OLS	GWR	OLS	GWR
Biophysical	12894	12474	0.39	0.06
Biophysical including climate determinants	12826	12456	0.31	0.03
Demographic	12991	12655	0.41	0.16
Policy	12908	12358	0.36	0.0004
Model 2000-2007	AICc	AICc	Moran's I of the residuals	
Albania	OLS	GWR	OLS	GWR
Biophysical	33121	31886	0.48	0.20
Biophysical including climate determinants	33046	31748	0.46	0.15
Demographic	33259	32250	0.50	0.26
Political-institutional	33178	31650	0.48	0.13
Kosovo	OLS	GWR	OLS	GWR
Biophysical	12694	12395	0.30	0.08
Biophysical including proxy climate determinants	12687	12370	0.29	0.046
Demographic	12720	12440	0.33	0.16
Policy	12722	12317	0.32	0.03

Table 4 The summary of the best biophysical, demographic and policy GWR models for forest cover change. For each model the variance of GWR coefficients is shown along with their statistically significance of Monte Carlo test

Model, Albania	Determinant	1988-2000		2000-2007	
		Variance of local coefficient	Monte Carlo test p-value	Variance of local coefficient	Monte Carlo test p-value
Biophysical	Elevation	0.69	0.0	0.66	< 0.01
	Pindus Mountain Forests	0.60	0.0	0.61	< 0.01
	Balkan Mixed Forests	0.49	0.0	0.45	< 0.01
	Cambisol soil type	0.56	0.0	0.56	< 0.01
	Regosol soil type	0.58	0.0	0.56	< 0.01
	Cambic Arenosols soil type	0.50	0.1	0.50	< 0.01
Demographic	Population 2001			0.47	0.06
	Population 1989	0.53	0.02		
Policy	Years of establishment of communal forest administration	0.53	0.0	0.52	0.0
	Strict Nature Reserve	0.47	0.6	0.51	0.0
	National parks	0.50	0.0		
	Natural monuments	0.48	0.5		
	Habitat or Species Management Area	0.50	0.0	0.48	0.0
	Protected Landscape or Seascape	0.51	0.0		
	Managed Resource Protected Area	0.50	0.0		
	Distance to nearest road			0.69	0.2
	Distance to nearest major road	0.67	0.0	0.68	0.0
	Distance to nearest asphalt road	0.67	0.0		
	Distance to nearest human settlement	0.79	0.0	0.83	0.0
	Distance to nearest city and commune center	0.86	0.9	0.80	0.9
	Distance to nearest forest edge in the beginning of the period	0.60	0.0	0.58	0.0
	Distance to nearest protected areas	0.74	0.0	0.74	0.0

Model, Kosovo	Determinant	1988-2000		2000-2007	
		Variance of GWR coefficient	Monte Carlo test p-value	Variance of GWR coefficient	Monte Carlo test p-value
Biophysical	Elevation	0.89	<0.01	0.87	<0.01
	Pindus Mountain Forests	0.49	<0.01	0.47	<0.01
	Dystric Planosol soil type	0.49	<0.01	0.44	0.06
	Luvisol soil type	0.51	0.04		
	Ranker soil type	0.48	<0.01	0.52	<0.01
	Dinaric Mountain Forests	0.50	<0.01		
Demographic					

	Population estimation 1991	0.51	0.99		
	Population projection 2004			0.40	0.92
Policy					
	Protected areas	0.49	0.01	0.51	<0.01
	Distance to nearest road	0.67	0.36	0.69	<0.01
	Distance to nearest highway	0.70	0.00	0.71	<0.01
	Distance to nearest human settlement	0.86	0.02	0.86	<0.01
	Distance to nearest protected areas	0.75	0.00	0.73	<0.01
	Distance to nearest UXOM	0.70	0.00	0.70	<0.01

Table note: Levels of significance for Monte Carlo test p-value: 1 percent; 5 percent; 10 percent; high local variation is above the cut-off value of 0.5 for variance of local coefficient. Variance of local coefficient (the decomposition of local variation of the relationship between forest cover change and determinant) is calculated to build-up a hierarchy of determinants. The Euclidean distance to human settlements have statistically significant values of Monte Carlo test and the highest value of the variance of local coefficients (in bold).

Table 5 Forest cover change by Albanian commune forests

Forest cover change in percent	Year 1996	Year 1997	Year 1998	Year 1999	Year 2000
1988-2000	3.57	-0.2	-2.11	4.37	-31.08
2000-2007	1.38	0.14	0.08	6.38	-0.06

Table 6 Sign of village location

Village location	Sign of village location, median, Albania	Sign of village location, median, Kosovo	Period
x	negative	negative	1988-2000
y	positive	positive	
x	positive	positive	2000-2007
y	positive	negative	

Figures

Fig. 1 Observed stable and disturbed forests in Albania and Kosovo from 2000-2007

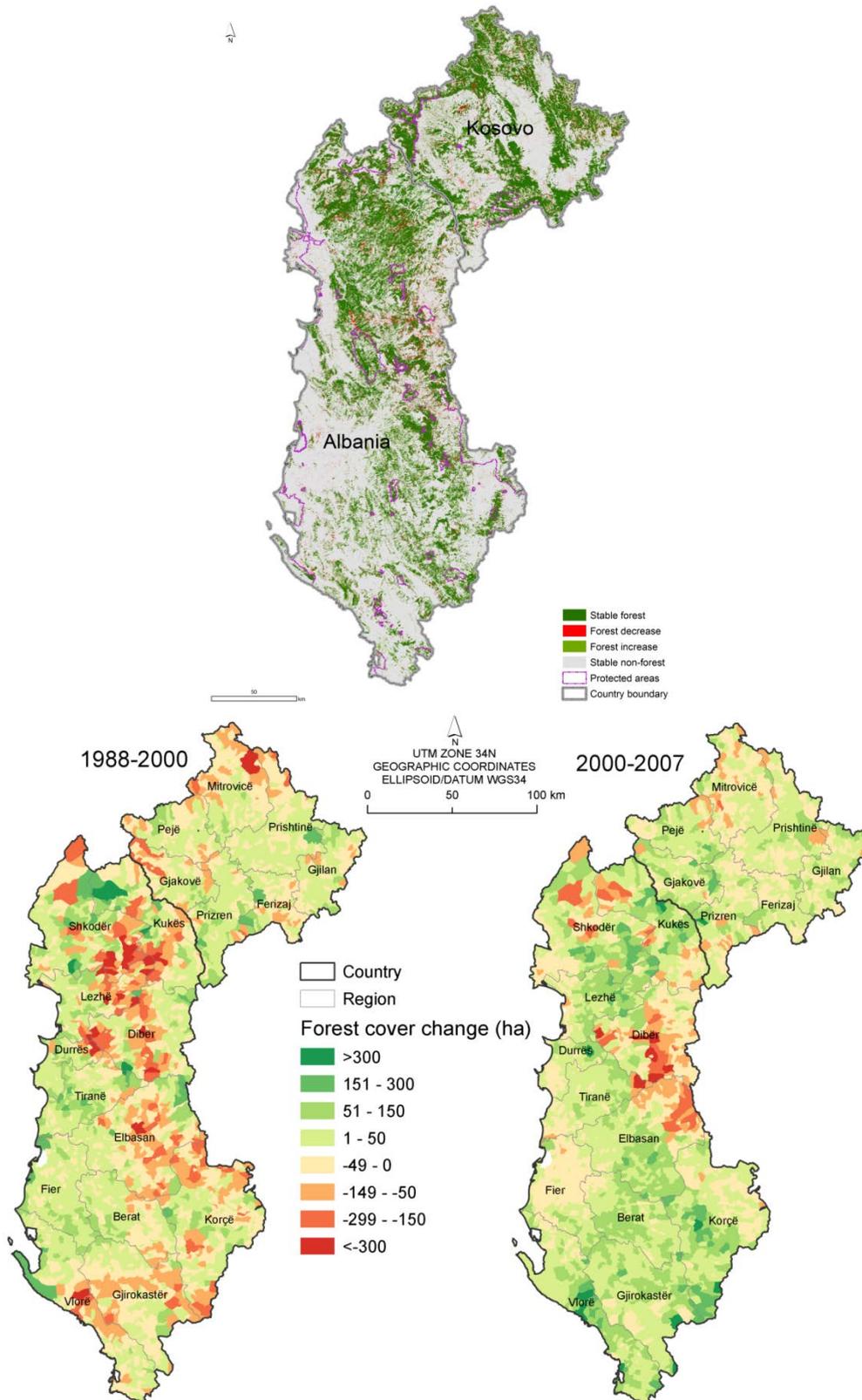
Fig. 2 Forest cover change a) in thousand hectares, b) at village level

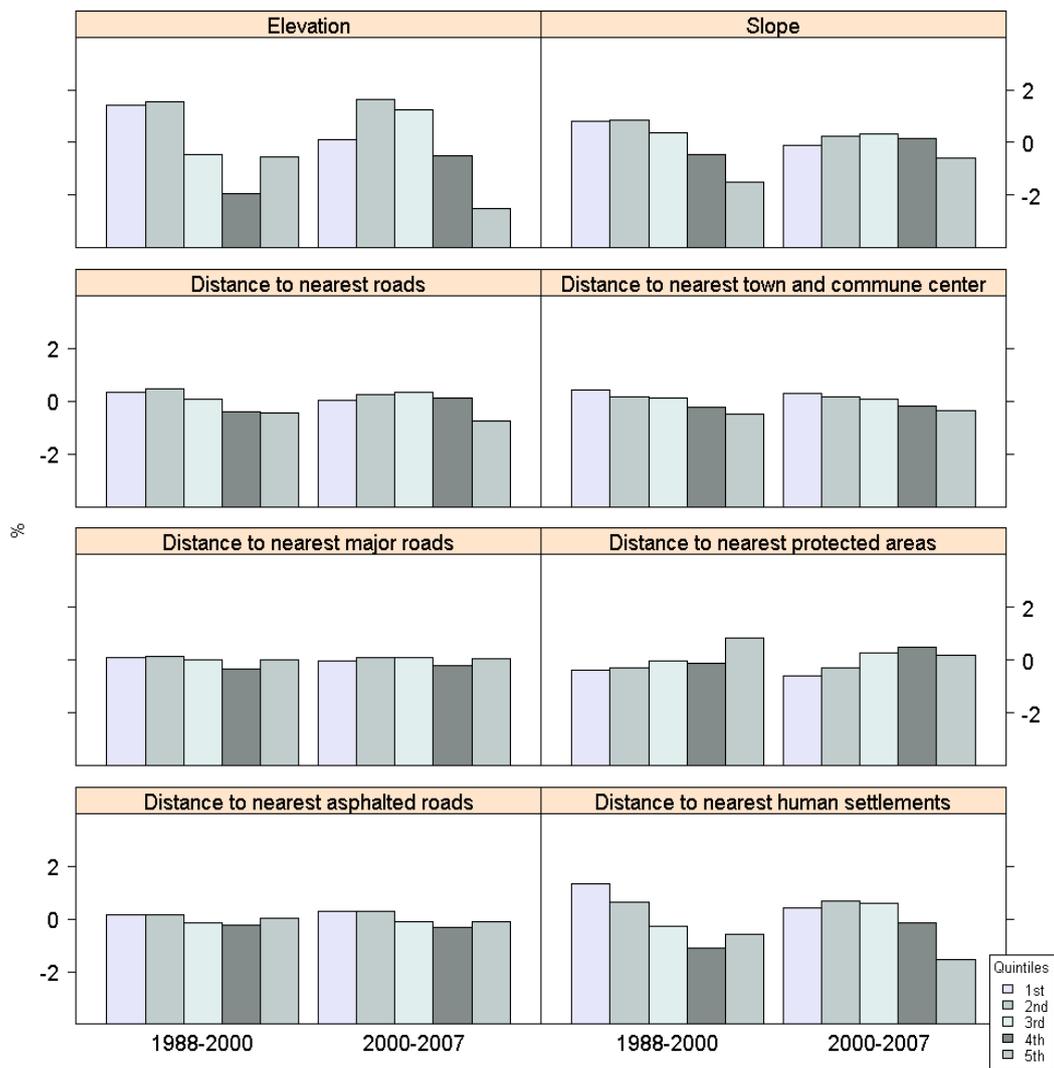
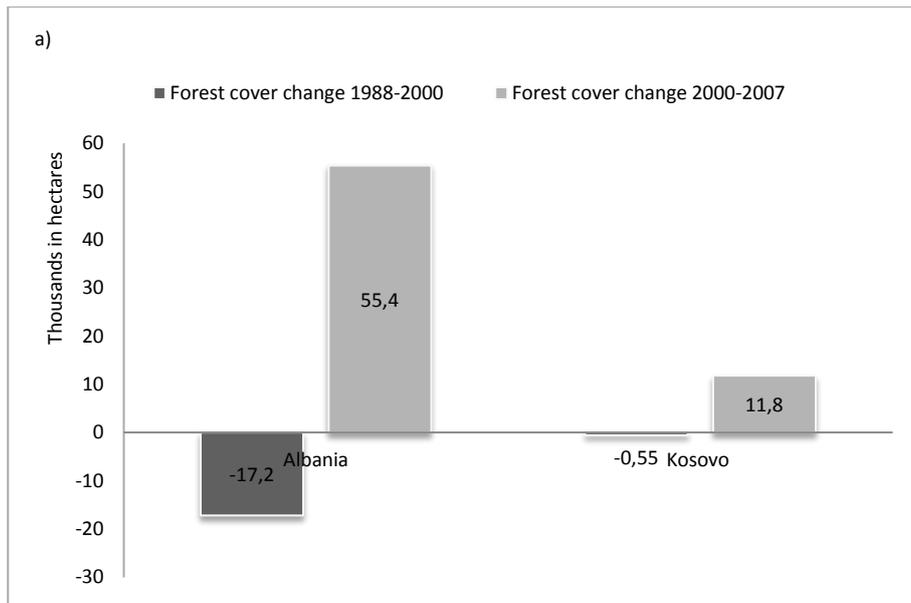
Fig. 3 Forest cover change in percentage in determinants quintiles a) Albania, b) Kosovo

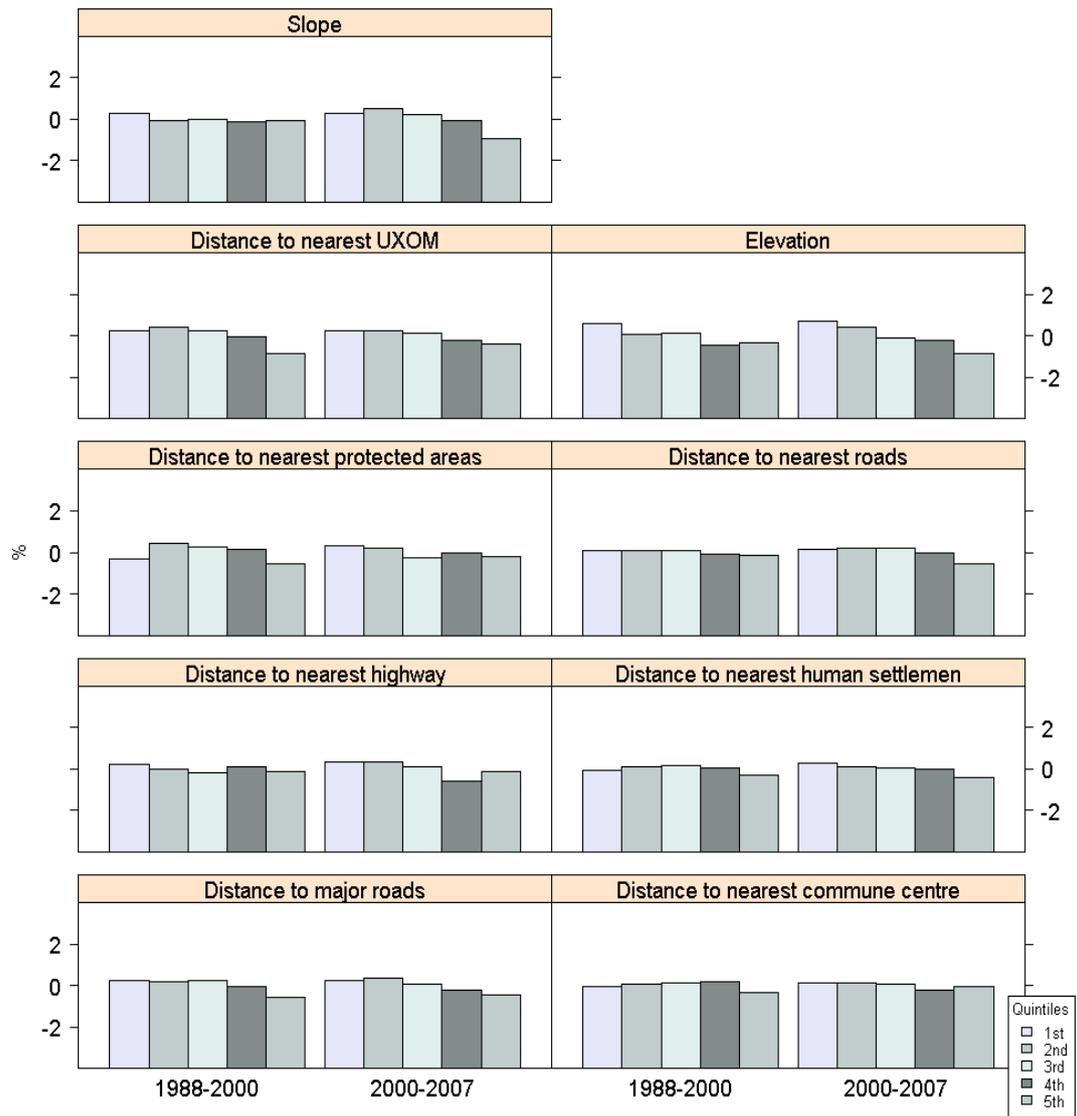
Fig. 4 Local R^2 of policy models a) 1988-2000, b) 2000-2007

Fig. 5 Spatial distribution of estimated local coefficient of Euclidean distance to human settlement for the period of 2000-2007

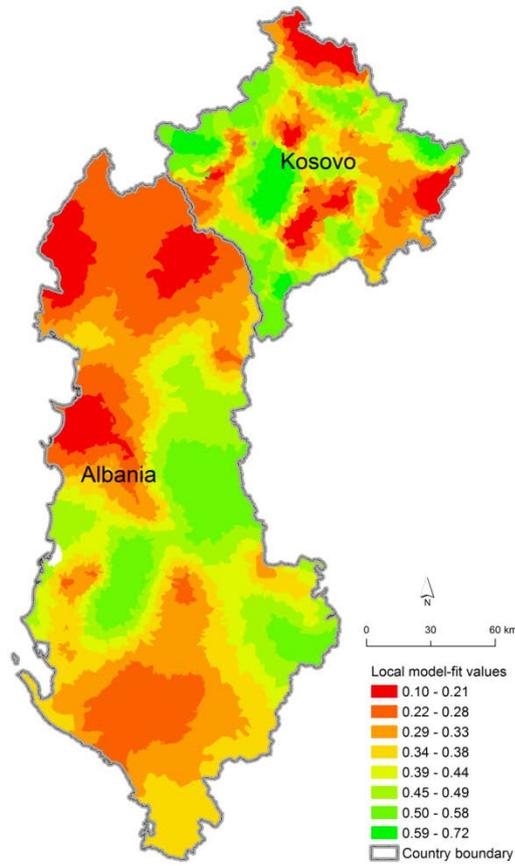
Observed forest cover changes from 2000 to 2007







a)



b)

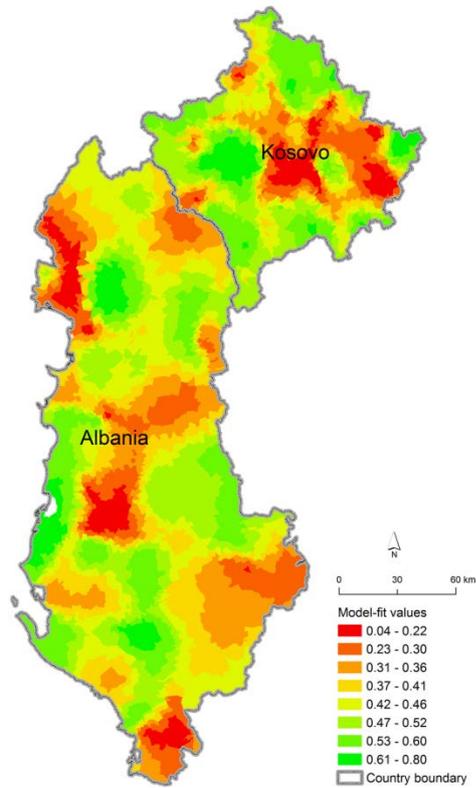


Figure 4

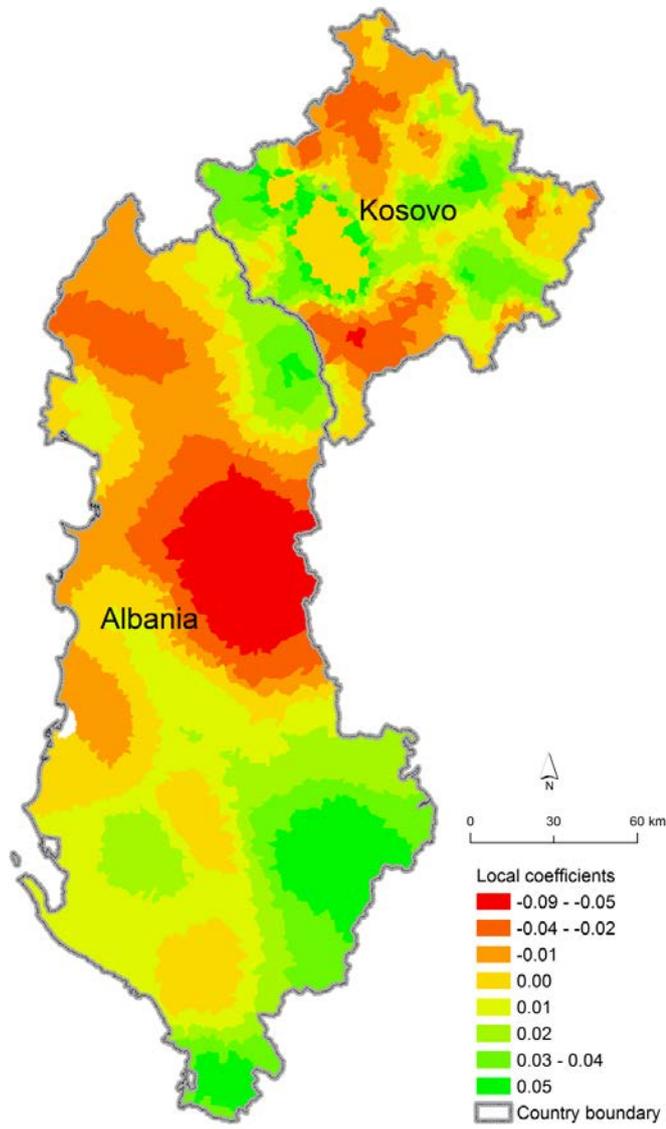


Figure 5

OUTCOMES AND IMPACT ASSESSMENT ON SKILL COURSES PROGRAM IN COMMUNITY COLLEGE MALAYSIA

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Abstract

The Malaysian Community Colleges is an access for secondary school level to obtain knowledge and skills before they involve into the job market or pursue their education at a higher level. Community Colleges of Malaysia intend to transform into an education center of excellence in the fields of technology, business and service industries. The purpose of this working paper is to present findings studies of family income, differences income before and after enrolling in courses, distribution income during and after the course, current income distribution and type of employment, and level of self-confidence of the participants and quality of services of Community colleges in Malaysia. This study applies cross section survey method based on questionnaires that are answered by respondents. Cluster Sampling is used due to the large population. The findings of the study shows an increase in the level of self confidence, self competency of participants and increase in income after going through the programmes at Malaysian Community Colleges. Suggestions to enhance the quality of services, lecturers and ICT were also discussed towards improving qualities of service and skills-based programmes and life long learning in Malaysia for the future.

Keywords: Community colleges, outcome and impact, knowledge and skills

Introduction

Rebranding of the community colleges as announced on 27th June 2006 through the National Implementation Task Force (NITF) became a new platform to widen the scope and responsibilities of community colleges. Its purpose is to enhance the role of community colleges in contributing to the development of quality human capital. It has become an alternative path and a lifelong learning center or hub across all age levels and academic qualifications and skills of every individual who realize the importance of and are willing to learn. Relatively, lecturers must be equipped with various skills that are relevant to the demands and needs outlined in the curriculum and co-curriculum in community colleges to improve the inovative and creative teaching & learning. The existing skills and knowledge demonstrated by current lecturers in community colleges are the measuring tool that gauge the quality and direction of community colleges to keep on being competitive in the future.

The needs of outcome assessment for skill based courses

To maximise the benefits from the implentation of courses carried out at community colleges, there must an effort to formulate a concept involving staff/lecturers and outcome/impact on indivuals in an organisation. Refer to an expert in training assessment

Paul Kearns (2008), learning organization see evaluation and return to investment (ROI) when appropriate as integral to a holistic learning culture.' Based on the following formula; training = input and learning = outcome.

The need of analysis of course/training is one of the methods used to analyse the enhancement of individual quality for the purpose of measuring the utility value obtained from an organisation. There are various models that have been developed in the past 40 years in evaluating the outcome and impact of a program or skill-based training implemented. The influence of Kirkpatrick Multi Level model is one of the important framework in evaluating outcome and impact dan it includes (Tamkin, 2002);

Reaction level

Learning / initial level

Behavior / middle level

Results / Final level.

Identifying intrinsically from the Kirkpatrick model is focussing on the change in behavior as a result from training programmes or courses intervention that significantly reflects the successful outcome/impact from the programme or courses attended by a participant. Any change in that stage has a direct relationship with the impact of training or course implemented.

Evaluation methodology

This descriptive research involves collection of data for the purpose of evaluating the level or resolving issues related to self competency of course participants and current situation of programmes in community colleges besides using correlation techniques to identify relationships between two or more variables and using this form of relationship to make predictions.

The design of this research is based on a combination of qualitative and quantitative methods. Qualitative method involves examining past models and studies (desk research) on courses involving literacy and skill aspects.

The quantitative study applies cross section survey based on questionnaires answered by respondents. Cluster sampling is used since the population is too large. Therefore, respondents will be selected randomly according to zones (northern zone, middle zone, eastern zone and southern zone) of Peninsula Malaysia. Respondents involved consist of students from community colleges all over the peninsula.

This evaluation study involves 687 samples selected from 14 community colleges in Peninsula Malaysia. Respondents involved in this study consist of course participants who are undergoing and have completed short term programmes and long term programmes at selected community colleges.

Evaluation findings

This research was conducted on students and ex-students of community colleges through out Malaysia who have completed courses offered by community colleges. The results of analysis showed that 687 respondents have given feedbacks in the questionnaires. The analysis was divided into four sections which are:

Respondents' Profile

Attitude Towards Skills Aspect

Self confidence aspect

Service quality aspect

Respondents' Profile

This section explains respondents' profiles which include college name, course, gender, race, age, marital status, country of residence, education level, job, income and courses taken while in community college.

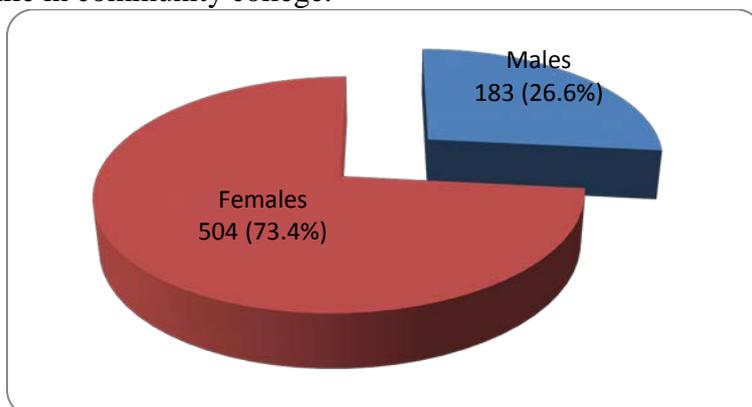


Diagram 1.1: Respondents Spread According To Gender

From the spread of respondents according to gender, it was found that there were more females who attend courses at community colleges, which was 73.4 percent compared to males which was only 26.6 percent.

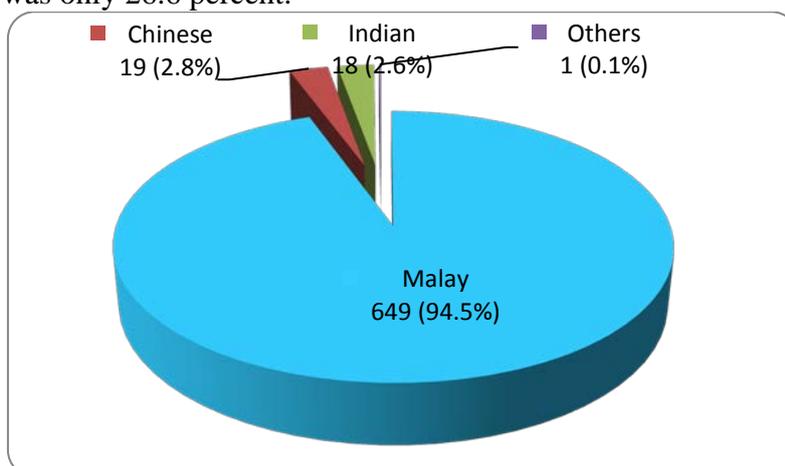


Diagram 1.2: spread of respondents according to race

Diagram 1.2 shows the spread of respondents according to race. It was found that most respondents were Malays which came up to 94.5 percent compared to the Chinese, Indians and others.

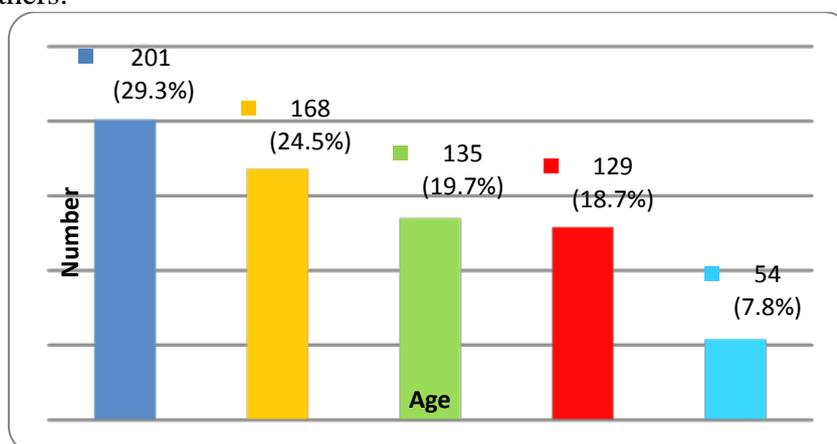


Diagram 1.3: Spread of respondents according to age

Diagram 1.3 shows the spread of respondents according to age. It was found that the highest percentage of respondents were aged 20 and below which was 29.3 percent. This was followed by respondents who were between 21 and 30 years old which was 24.4 percent. While the lowest number of respondents were 51 years old and above which was 7.8 percent only.

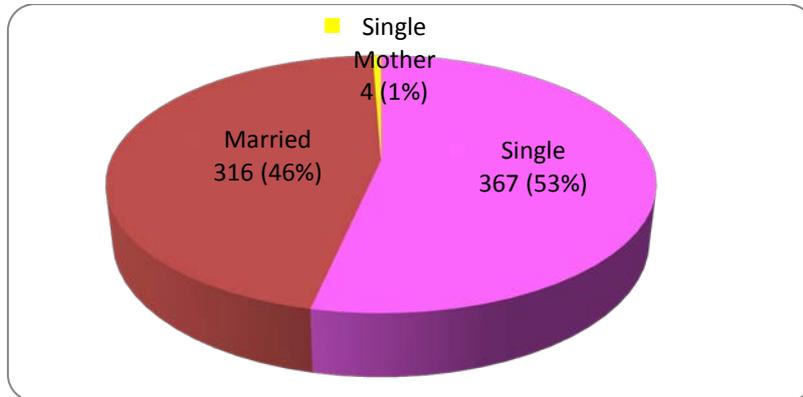


Diagram 1.4: Spread of respondents according to marital status

The spread of respondents according to marital status showed that most respondents were single with the highest percentage of 53.2 percent. This was followed by married respondents which was 46.2 percent and single mothers which was only 0.6 percent.

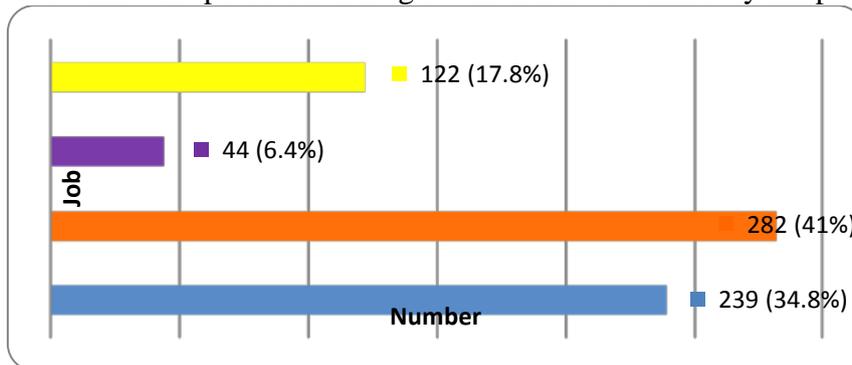


Diagram 1.5 : Spread of Respondents According To Type Of Job

The diagram shows the spread of respondents according to type of job. The findings show that working on their own or doing business is the career chosen by the highest number of respondents, that is, 282 respondents (41%), followed by respondents who have not or are not working which are 239 respondents (3.8%) and only 44 respondents (6.4%) choose to work in the private sector. This can be summarised that most respondents who attended skill based courses at community colleges have goals to become entrepreneurs.

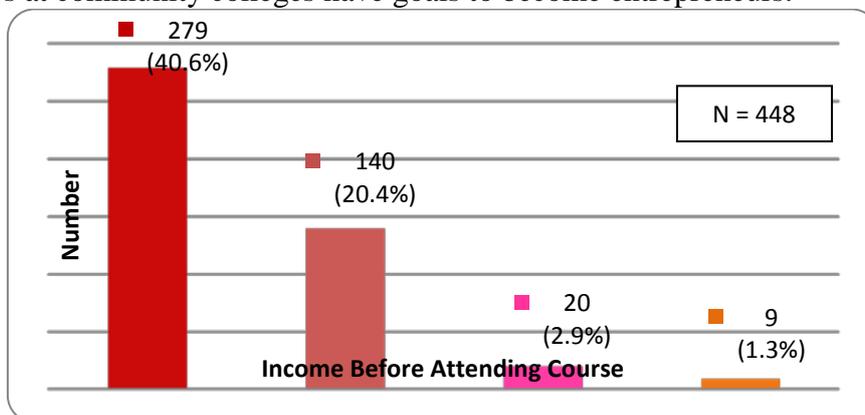


Diagram 1.6: Respondents Spread According To Income Before Attending Courses

Diagram 1.6 shows the respondents spread according to income before attending courses at community colleges. This spread is only based on the number of respondents who are working, that is, 448 of them only because the rest of them which are 239 are still waiting to be employed or unemployed (Refer to Diagram 5.8). Out of the total respondents who have worked, it was found that most of them have total income of less than RM1000 before attending courses with the highest percentage of 40.6 percent. This is followed by respondents with total income of RM 1001 up to RM2000 which came up to 20.4 percent.

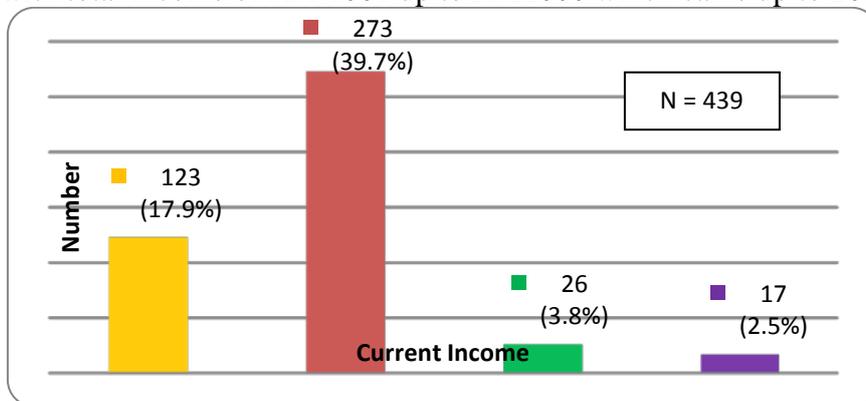


Diagram 1.7: Respondents spread according to current income

Diagram 1.7 shows the respondents spread according to current income before attending courses at community colleges. This spread is only based on the number of respondents who are working, that is, 449 of them only. Out of the total it was found that the highest percentage was those with total income of RM 1001 up to RM2000 which came up to 39.7 percent. This shows a big difference in incomes before they attended courses at community colleges (Refer to Diagram 5.9). This could be because most respondents consist of those who work on their own or are doing business (Refer to Diagram 1.7). This proves that the courses attended by respondents managed to elevate their standard of living indirectly. While the remainder of 17.9 percent respondents have current incomes of less than RM1000.00.

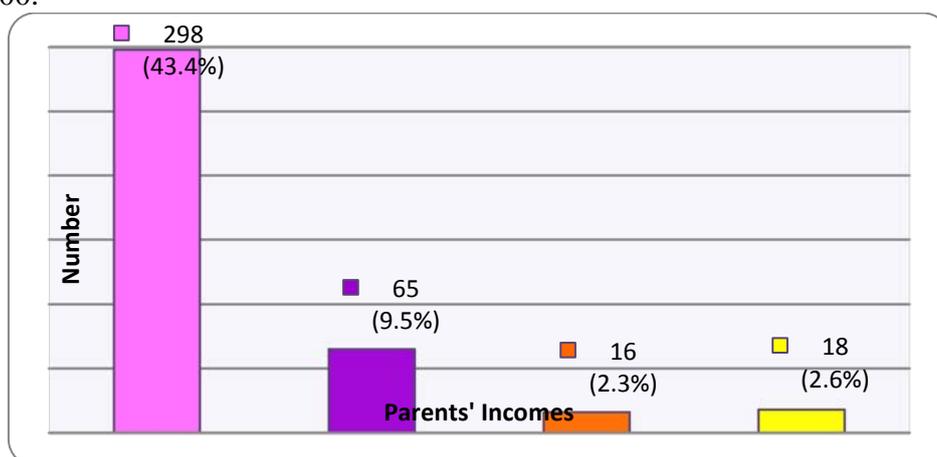


Diagram 1.8: Respondents Spread According To Parents' Incomes

The Diagram shows respondents spread according to parents' incomes. From the total respondents (N=397) who stated the incomes of their parents, it was found that 43.5 percent have total family income of less than RM 1000. This was followed by respondents with total family income between RM 1001 and RM 2000 which was 9.5 percent. This shows that the course participants of Community Colleges in Malaysia consist of those with low family incomes.

Discussion and conclusion

Based on the research findings several steps have to be taken by the Community Colleges to enhance the outcomes and impact from courses and programmes implemented in community colleges all over Malaysia. Among the focus that should be given priorities are to increase entrance and intake of students especially post SPM and PMR male students. This is because 67% of post SPM students are females. Therefore, community colleges should take effective measures by implementing promotional programmes more aggressively in secondary schools through out Malaysia. This research found that the lack of information and opportunities in Community Colleges causes students who are left out or did get any place at IPTAs and IPTSs are not aware of the courses and opportunities that they will get from community colleges.

Attention and promotion should be focussed on prospective courses but are not getting positive response such as information technology, quantity surveying and electrical engineering besides other courses offered by community colleges nationwide. Geographical factors should also be considered in implementing promotions by focussing on states with less involvement in programs in colleges such as Trengganu, Kelantan, Perlis, Penang, Sabah and Sarawak.

There should also be emphasis on increasing the total number of bumiputera entrepreneurs in Malaysia. The evaluation study clearly indicated a positive inclination of participants who have shown their interests in entrepreneurial fields. There have also been interests and inclinations to enter this field among degree and diploma holders. This study has also shown positive outcomes and impact in the entrepreneurial field through the increase in incomes after completing the programs at community colleges. Therefore, community colleges need to put in more effort to increase the involvement and participations of women and the less able people such as single mothers to increase their ability to improve their standard of living. This study shows that the involvement of this group is still at a low level that is 1% only. Besides that, efforts to increase the number of participants among the graduates should be stepped up aggressively to produce more graduate entrepreneurs in addition to help government to decrease dependency of graduates on the government sector and minimize the employment rate among graduates. Other than that, attention should also given to the veterans or those aged more than 40 years to venture into the field of entrepreneurship. Furthermore, this research clearly shows the interests of this group (25%) to participate in the courses available at community colleges in Malaysia.

This study also shows that community colleges have succeeded in helping the government to help the poor and the low income group to increase their standard of living by participating in skill based courses offered by the community colleges. The findings show that 43.4% of participants consist of families with low incomes which were less than RM3000.00 a month. Therefore, community colleges need to look at the positive inclination as a stepping stone to help the government to increase the living standard of Malaysians. Hence, efforts to explain and promote should be targeted to the low income group to increase their involvement in skill based courses offered by community colleges in Malaysia.

Besides that, community colleges should focus their attention on students' interests and inclination to attend more than one courses available in community colleges. The increase opportunities in various skill based courses will indirectly produce more entrepreneurs who not only focus on a field but also in various fields to help them increase opportunities in the field of entrepreneurship which requires various skills and capabilities.

Reinforcement of attitude and interest of students should also be given priority in developing self resilience and self confidants among graduates of community colleges. There are a few aspects that need to be emphasized and given serious attention by community colleges based on these research findings, among others are participants have shown that the

learning concepts in community colleges are not fun especially through group learning. There is also social loafing among students attending programs in community colleges. In fact, participants are aware of the importance of collaborative learning. Therefore, this matter should be given serious attention towards creating learning environment that is more fun which will directly minimize social loafing problems. This concept is an important agenda in government efforts to increase the number of more potential entrepreneurs who are able to raise the level of excellence in national development.

Besides that, there should be efforts made by community colleges to improve students' attitude towards ICT and this is viewed as something very serious in government's effort to increase the level of ICT literacy in Malaysian communities in the year 2010. Moving on, several steps need to be taken to improvise courses and raise the level of self confidence of students in community colleges. This is because this study found that the outcome of self confidence level and the improvisation level of courses in community colleges are still at moderate and low levels. This indirectly will result in low impact on the effectiveness of programs in community colleges and consequently to national development.

Cooperation between community colleges and skill based institutions and other government bodies also need to be upgraded such MARA, Institut Kemahiran Mara, Institut Kemahiran Belia Negara (IKBN), National Anti Drug Agency (AADK), Youth Department and so on in an effort to increase opportunities and self confidence of students. This cooperative effort will be able to help community colleges in the proses of information distribution and attract more youths to participate in programs available at community colleges.

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ADMINISTRATIVE MEASURES FOR PROTECTION OF LIVING ENVIRONMENT IN THE REPUBLIC MACEDONIA

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Abstract

Administrative measures for protection of the living environment in the Republic of Macedonia are: normative and regulatory measures, organizational measures, control and supervision measures and sanction measures.

Normative regulatory measures include the adoption of laws and sublaws regulations for the normative regulation of social relations in the field of environmental protection.

Organizational measures are reduced to organizing the system of state bodies and social institutions for the protection of the environment and determining their competences.

Control measures are monitoring all activities of social control and inspection conducted by state bodies and social institutions for the smooth and efficient implementation in life the provisions on the protection of the living environment contained in the Law on Nature Protection and in the Law on the Living Environment of the Republic of Macedonia.

Sanction measures include measures of detection and prosecution of offenders for acts of misconduct against the environment undertaken by administrative and other state bodies of the Republic of Macedonia.

Keywords: Administration, protection, measures, living environment, control, supervision

Introduction

Legal protection of the environment presents a set of normative regulatory measures for the legal regulation of environmental protection against pollution and the measures and procedures for the performance of adopted normative acts regulating these. It includes administrative law protection, constitutional law protection, penal law protection, civil law protection, economical law protection, etc.

Constitutional law protection is tantamount to the elimination of the legal system of laws and by-laws or their provisions, which regulate social relations in the field of environmental protection, which are not in accordance with the constitution or laws of the state. To implement this protection are competent constitutional courts.

Administrative law protection includes a set of measures taken by the authorities of the state administration and institutions with public authorizations in order to protect the environment. It includes normative regulatory measures, organizational measures, control and surveillance measures sanctioning measures under the jurisdiction of the public administration in order to protect the environment.

Civil law protection covers a very narrow range of legal measures for the prevention of damage inflicted on the components of the environment and measures for securing compensation to damaged legal entities which have occurred pollution, degradation and destruction of components of the environment. For its implementation organs of public administration and the courts are competent.

Penal law protection covers the detection, prosecution and sanctioning perpetrators of penalized offenses against the environment. Its implementation is the responsibility of the courts and public prosecutors.

Economic law protection consists of measures and actions aimed at securing the proper and sustainable goods iskorišćavannja environment by economic operators. About her take care companies and public administration bodies.

Administrative law protection of the environment is very complex. It is the most complex form of its legal protection. As such, it stands in very close relation with other forms of legal protection of the environment. All other forms, in most cases, support to it. Thus, detecting violations of the constitutionality of laws or their provisions usually comes through the work of public administration. They discover them in the application of rules in the procedures for resolving the rights and obligations of legal entities in connection with the exploitation of the environment. After discovering, they submit initiatives or proposals to the Constitutional Court for assessment of their constitutionality and legality, because they interfere with their work.

The bodies of public administration, and their inspection and other control and protective services (such as forest police, etc.) usually reveal punished offenses and their perpetrators, report them to bodies of internal affairs or directly to public prosecutors. They, in most cases, reveal damages to objects and elements of the environment and initiate administrative and judicial procedures for their compensation. Then, they take care of the proper use of the environment by economic enterprises, propose normative regulation of its exploitation, controll the work of economic enterprises in its exploitation and take measures attributed by law to in the occasion of unlawful exploitation.

Thus, administrative law protection incorporates other forms of environmental protection in a dialectical unity of forms of their legal protection.

From a sociological point of speaking, administrative protection of the environment represents a system of measures undertaken by organs and institutions of the society for the prevention and elimination socio-pathological phenomena and their consequences which occur in the relationship between social entities (men as a an individuals and their organizations) to the living environment and relationships between them regarding with the environment.

All measures taken by the authorities of the public administration in order to protect the environment have a sociological dimension. This is because they are taken on the basis of legal norms contained in laws and regulations. Legal norms regulate legal relations and legal relations are nothing more than social relations regulated by legal norms.

By undertaking measures to protect the environment comes establishing a legal relationship between the organs of public administration and legal entities (physical and legal entities) to which these measures are taken. Given that, these measures are taken by authorities of the administration, these relations are called administrative-legal relations in the field of environmental protection.

To the establishing of administrative and legal relations regularly comes when they take control - surveillance and sanction measures. This is because the control and supervisory authorities of public administration (inspection bodies, specialized police services and others), in most cases of their control and monitoring intervention, initiate procedures and

render decisions on the rights, and in most cases on obligations (indemnities, payment penalties), of legal persons in connection with their activities to environment.

Normative-regulatory measures of public administration for environmental protection in the Republic of Macedonia

Normative-regulatory measures of public administration include preparation of draft laws and proposals for environmental protections and the adoption of by-laws - regulations, ordinances, orders, instructions and others by-laws for the execution of adopted laws. These activities in the Republic of Macedonia are generally conducted by the Ministry of Environmental Protection and Physical (Spatial) Planning and by the Ministry of Agriculture, Forestry and Water Economy.

The others state administration bodies and public administration bodies, generally prepare laws and adopt by-laws, regarding the exploitation of national resources from the environment. Thus, the Ministry of Economy prepare draft laws and proposals and adopt by-laws in the areas of geological exploration, exploitation of mineral resources and energy; the Ministry of Health in the areas of protection of the population from the harmful effects of gases, ionizing radiation, noise and air pollution, water and land; the Ministry of Transport and Communications is responsible for dealing with matters from the area of spatial arrangement and management of construction land in ownership of the Republic of Macedonia and other matters.

The biggest problems in normative regulation of environmental protection appear in relations between the Ministry of Environment and Spatial Planning and the Ministry of Agriculture, Forestry and Water Economy.

The Ministry of Environment and Spatial Planning, has competence for the preparation of the draft laws and proposals on the nature protection, environmental protection and for their changes and amendments. According to this, his competence includes the preparation of the Law on Protection From Ionizing Radiation and Radiation Safety; the Law on Protection of Smoking; the Law on Quality of Ambient Air; the Law on Execute of Hydro-meteorological Affairs; the Law on Noise Environmental Protection; the Water Law; the Law on Protection of Ohrid, Prespa and Doiran Lake, as well as numerous laws for proclamation on certain locality for natural monuments of for strict nature reserves.

The Ministry of Agriculture, Forestry and Water Economy has competence for the preparation of the draft laws and proposals on the Forests Law; the Law on Reproductive Material of Forest Types of Trees; the Agriculture Land Law; the Law on Perform of Agricultural Activity; the Water Management Law; the Pastures Law; the Hunting Law; the Law on Fisheries and Aquaculture, as well as other laws. Both ministries have competence for adoption by-laws for execution of these laws (regulations, orders, instructions, etc.). The Government of the Republic of Macedonia is responsible for adoption the regulations for execution of these and other laws of this areas.

Bearing in mind the titles of this laws, for which preparation and execution are responsible the listed ministries, and in this regard, the areas of social activities that are regulated by these laws, without any doubt we can conclude, that in this legislation there are a number of collision of legal norms. The most obvious is conflict of norms between the Forests Law on the one hand, and the Law on Nature Protection and the Environment Law on the other hand.

According to Article 35, Paragraph 3 of the Law on Nature Protection, the Minister of Environment and Spatial Planning, on the basis of prior opinion of the National Council for the Nature Protection, determined strictly protected wildlife species and protected wildlife species. According to the same article (paragraph 5), he can also repeal the protection

of certain wildlife species, that no longer endangered, or can transfer them from one category to another category of protection.

In connection with these provisions, the problem is that the Minister of Environment and Spatial Planning is the state official from the same rank as the Minister of Agriculture, Forestry and Water Economy. Therefore, he can't determine the rules of behavior to the Minister of Agriculture, Forestry and Water Economy. It certainly has to do the Government of the Republic of Macedonia, as hierarchically superior authority, referred to ministers. Such problems also occur in other provisions of the Law on Nature Protection.

The Law on Nature Protection regulates specific elements, activities and action of administrative function in relation to protected areas. According to Article 66 of this Law, protected areas are strict reserves, national parks, natural monuments, nature parks, protected spatial and multi-purpose areas. These areas include national habitats, ecosystems, geological and physical-geographic formations, that are characteristic for the territory of the Republic of Macedonia.

On the basis on Article 21 of the Law on Organization and Work of the State Administration, the administrative function regarding to forests conduct the Ministry of Agriculture, Forestry and Water Economy. According to Article 28 on the same Law, the administrative function related to protected areas conduct the Ministry of Environment and Spatial Planning.

Forests Law, which implementation is under the competence of the Ministry of Agriculture, Forestry and Water Economy, in section 6, does not exclude forests which belong to protected areas. Accordingly, this Ministry is responsible for performing administrative function in relation to these forests. But, as it is apparent from the above provisions of the Law on Nature Protection and the Law on Organization and Work of the State Administration, administrative function in relation to that forests is conducted by Ministry of Environment and Spatial Planning. Thus, the both Ministries perform administrative function in relation to the same object of legal protection. Therefore, it has not the better argument for the collision between the legal norms contained in Article 6 of the Forests Law and in the Article 66 of the Law on Nature Protection.

In addition to the general provisions contained in Article 66, the Law on Nature Protection contains specific standards that define the details of the protection of individual protected areas. These standards are contained in articles 68 - 71 of strict nature reserves: in articles 72 up to 76 relating to national parks; in articles 76-79 - monuments of nature; in articles 84 up to 87, relating to protected areas; in articles 87 and 92 to 97 - to protected areas and articles 88 up to 90 - the multi-purpose area. According the provisions of article 6 of Forests Law, being in conflict with the general standards of Article 66 of the Law on Nature Protection, they are also in conflict with the special regulations on certain protected areas, which are based on the provisions of Article 66.

The Law on Nature Protection for which implementation the Ministry of Environment and Spatial Planning is competent; there are other provisions that are in conflict with the provisions of the Forest Law. Between them certainly, in the first place come the provisions to terms on monitoring of forests in protected areas, provision of inspection supervision and etc.

Conflict between the provisions of these laws, creates numerous disagreements between the Ministry of Environment and Spatial Planning and the Ministry of Agriculture, Forestry and Water Management.

These differences lead to a condition called legal conflicts of jurisdiction. Conflicts of jurisdiction reduce the efficiency of operations of these ministries related to forest management in the Republic of Macedonia.

State administration must be efficient in all areas of social life. Therefore, we need to eliminate all sources of inefficiency in its work. As for the collision between the Forests Law and the Law on Environmental Education as a primary source of inefficiency in work of listed ministries of the Republic of Macedonia, to overcome them, should use some of the existing ways.

Theory and practice offers four ways or methods for resolving collisions of legal norms. These are normative-regulatory method, organizational method, legal and logical method and consensual method. On the basis of normative-regulatory methods are additional regulation of social relations in a certain areas of social life in order to eliminate the legal standards that are in collision. Performs should to be adoption of any amendment to the normative acts - laws and regulations.

For resolve collisions of legal norms applying these methods in the areas of forestry and the environment, primarily should consider all legal norms in the collision laws which regulated social relations in these areas and their negative implications in practice. Then, should to be applied teamwork of experts in these areas as well as from the Ministries of Agriculture, Forestry and Water Management and so from the Ministry of Environment and Spatial Planning which will make proposals for amendments to the law and give them the further procedure for their adoption.

There are indications that in the relevant ministries currently no mood for amendments to the law to resolve collisions of legal norms, because it does not suit the interests of certain interest groups in society. But, the process of further democratization of the Macedonian society will enable the creation of objective conditions for more often application of this method in all spheres of social life, and so, in the areas of forestry and the environment.

The organizational method consists in the redistribution of jurisdiction of the civil administration in relation to environmental protection. About this method we will look in more detail when reviewing organizational measures to protect the environment.

Third, legal and logical method of resolving collision legal norms consists in applying legal and logical rules for the application and interpretation of legal norms in the case of their collision.

In the first place they should indicate the legal rules for resolving collision legal norms, which is included in the formulation of the Latin *lex specialis derogate lege generali* - special law repeal general. According to this rule, if the regulation of social relations in a certain area of social life, there are two laws of which a general, to in a more general way regulate social relations, and other, special regulates them in a more concrete manner or regulate their segments only one, in which case the applicable are standards of special law. A legal logic of this rule is that a special law is more adapted on social relations in specific areas of social life or to their certain segments then the general law.

In this case, the Forest Law is a special law, or *lex specialis* in relation to the Environmental Protection Law and the Law on Environment. Thus in cases of collision between legal norms contained in these laws and legal norms contained in the Forest Law, should apply legal standards to the Forest Act.

Within logical methods, circumstantial offers us another option for resolving collision legal norms contained in the Forest Law and these two environmental laws. It is the application of *lex posterior derogate lege priori*. Translation of this sentence from Latin means later law repeals the previous law.

A legal logic of this rule consists in the fact that the subsequent law or newer better adapted to the particular state of social relations that are very dynamic, and therefore it should give priority to solving existing legal rights. In this case, fortunately Forest Law came into force on 30 May 2009, the Law on Environmental Protection came into force on 12 October

2004, and the Law on Environment 13 July 2005. So Law on Forestry is from much more recent date in relation to both the laws of the living environment. Therefore, we should, apply this rule in cases of collision of legal norms apply this law and not legal norms contained in the laws of the living environment. Unfortunately, the officials of the Ministry of Agriculture, Forestry and Water Management and the Ministry of Environment and Spatial Planning, the majority are non-lawyers, and therefore do not know the rules of application of legal norms in the case of their collision. In addition, they usually are not in the mood to listen the advices of lawyers. Therefore, resolve collision of legal norms contained in the Forest Law and the laws of the living environment, applying logic method is called into question. Output of it should look into adopting a special law on solving collision in which legal norms will be implemented following rules of this method, and so other rules for the interpretation of legal norms in contentious situations. In the legal systems of some European countries, such as for example, Bulgaria, Romania, Spain, there are such laws. Therefore, we should follow their example.

A consensual way of solving collision between legal norms uses governmental authorities, in agreement, when there is an interest, and above all, legal possibilities to reach a consensus on some contentious issues. For example, the provision of Article 42 paragraph 2, of the Law on Nature Protection provides that the Minister of Environment and Spatial Planning in agreement with the Minister of Agriculture, Forestry and Water Management determines the measures and activities for protection of protected wild species and the manner and extent of use of these species.

Administrative organizational measures for protection the living environment in the Republic of Macedonia

Protection the living environment is a constitutional obligation of each legal entity in the Republic of Macedonia. This obligation is based on article 43, paragraph 2 of the Constitution of the Republic. According to this provision, each is obligated to promote and protect living environment and nature. The provision is for exercise the constitutional right of every man who lives and resides in the territory on a healthy living environment, guaranteed by paragraph 1 of the same article. With provision of paragraph 3 of the same article, the Constitution obligates the Republic as a state that provides conditions for exercising the right of citizens to a healthy living environment. In order to perform this obligation, by the Law on the Organization and Work of the State Administration, was formed Ministry of Environment and Spatial Planning. According to Article 48, of the said Law, the Ministry is competent for: monitoring the condition of the living environment, the protection of water, soil, flora, fauna, air and ozone depletion, pollution, noise protection, radiation protection, protection of biodiversity, geo-diversity, national parks and protected areas, restoration of contaminated parts of the environment, proposing measures for the treatment of solid waste and overseeing the use of the environment by social entities in the Republic.

Listed competencies of the Ministry apparently are directly aimed at protecting the living environment. In addition to these competencies, the Ministry is competent for spatial planning. Implementation of these competencies is also a means of protecting the environment, but indirectly. So for administrative matters relating to the Ministry of spatial planning, among other things, performs the sizing conditions for human life and work of citizens, the protection and improvement of the environment and nature for sustainable development in the use and protection of the environment, etc.

The competence of the Ministry of the establishment and functioning of spatial planning includes information system on environment, which is of great importance for the monitoring of the situation in it, and taking timely measures for its protection.

These tasks are directly performed by internal organizational units and organs at the Ministry. Among them, in terms of environmental protection, the most important certainly are: Department for Environment, Macedonian Information Centre for Environment, Spatial Planning Department, Sector of Spatial Information System, Sector for Sustainable Development and Investment and the State Inspectorate for Environment and Nature. Inspection supervision is carried out by inspectors in the majors - town municipalities which cover territories of smaller - rural municipalities in their area.

Despite Ministry for Environment and Spatial Planning, in second place in terms of involvement in environmental protection in the Republic of Macedonia, as we saw above, there is the Ministry of Agriculture. This ministry carries out tasks related to the use of agricultural land, forests and other natural resources, hunting and fishing; protection of livestock and plants from pests, monitoring and study of the state of water, maintenance and improvement of water regime in the Republic; hydro-meteorological systems, agro-meteorological and hydrological measurement, protection against frozen falls, study and research meteorological, hydrological and bio-meteorological phenomena and processes and inspection of the implementation of these measures.

Within this Ministry there are multiple organizational units whose activities are directly or indirectly related to environmental protection. Among them, certainly the most involved in protecting are the Sector of Forestry and Wildlife Management from the departments to the arrangement and use of forests, for raising forests and afforestation, forest protection from biotic and abiotic factors and for hunting, hunting grounds, landscaping and giving to use the concession; Sector of Agriculture with Department of Fisheries and Aquaculture and the other departments; Sector of Viticulture, Wine and Fruit, Sector of Rural Development with Department for Sustainable Rural Development and other departments, Sector of Forest Police, Administration for Water Management, the State Inspectorate for Agriculture and State Inspectorate for Forestry and Hunting with regional departments in the territory of the Republic, for conducting inspections in the areas of the municipalities within the region.

Ministry of Environment and Spatial Planning is oriented towards security of environment. Its main duty is to protect the environment. That is not the case with the Ministry of Agriculture. It is directed towards the exploitation of resources for doing business. Agriculture must be conducted in accordance with the principle of sustainable development. It commits the Law to protect the environment.⁴⁶ That is the need of society. This obligation is respected by all authorities and services of the ministry. Problems arise due to numerous collisions in legal norms contained in laws for enforcement of are competent both the ministry. Their substantive legal base is just in a different orientation of these ministries to environment which is dialectical unity with basically their different interests.

These problems can be overcome only by using certain solutions in the organizational set-up of the state administration which will eliminate or will, at least, reduce conflicts of interest and thus will facilitate the solving collision in legal norms.

In the specific case, organizational solution that offers but only theoretically, is the switching operations for protect the environment from the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Environment and Spatial Planning to the Ministry of agriculture. This organizational decision will encumber the Ministry of Agriculture, and will relieve the Ministry of Environment and Spatial Planning. It will remain just planning matters. Due to the reduction in workload this ministry could be transformed into the Agency for Spatial Planning, which is numerically much smaller and more economical authority of the state administration of the ministry. This

⁴⁶ See article 8 from Law to protect the living environment (Official gazette of RM, No. 53/2005)

will reduce the number of ministries, which is large and heavy burden on the already poor budget of the Republic of Macedonia.

It is possible, now also theoretically, and vice versa solution that would consist of the transfer of forestry works within the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Agriculture in the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Environment and Spatial Planning. With this solution will relieve, by now quite burdened Ministry of Agriculture, and will normally be encumber Ministry of Environment and Spatial Planning with adding another department that is compatible with the sector for environmental protection. This can't reduce the number of ministries but realizes more regular load existing ministry tasks and duties of the state administration.

Thus, the system of state administration of the Republic of Macedonia has the appropriate authorities to protect the environment. But in spite of that he can't be maximally effective in carrying out administrative tasks for its protection, because it is not adequate organizational set up, which cause a number of disagreements between the organs of administration in carrying out their tasks, which are a source of inefficiency in the work of those bodies in the protection of the environment.

Control supervision measures of the public administration of the Republic of Macedonia in order to protect the environment

Control supervision measures are general element of administrative function of public administration. This is because they are implemented in every area of social life, and so in the field of environmental protection. For the implementation of these measures in public administration there are specialized organizational units. These are inspectorates. Their primary obligation is to control and monitor the implementation of the rules in the area of social life, which was founded in the appropriate ministry.

Inspectorates conduct inspection supervision using the Law on Inspection Supervision⁴⁷ which is a general law or *lex generalis* to conduct inspections of all areas of social life of the Republic of Macedonia. In addition to the *lex generalis*, in every sphere of social life, the provisions on the inspection of the laws which regulated social relations in these areas are used. These laws are special laws or *leges speciali* in relation to the Law on Inspection. So, *leges speciali* to implement inspection supervision in the field of the environment in the Republic of Macedonia, are the Law on Nature Protection⁴⁸ and the Law on Living Environment.⁴⁹

State Inspectorate for Environment and Nature within the Ministry of Environment and Spatial Planning is responsible for overseeing the enforcement of laws that directly or indirectly protect the environment. So, it oversees the implementation of the Law on Living Environment, the Law on Nature Protection, the Law on Waste Management, the Law on Management of Packaging and packaging waste, the Law on Quality of Ambient Air, the Law on Water, the Law for Protection of Harmful Noise in the Living Environment, the Law on Chemicals, the Law on the Supply of Water for Drinking and Taking Urban Waste Water, the Law on Batteries and Accumulators and Waste Batteries and Accumulators and other laws.

By performing an inspection of the implementation of these laws, Inspectorate, primarily control the application of technological measures to protect air, water, land, flora and fauna against degradation and pollution, protection of geo and biodiversity; protection of individual natural resources in the territory of the Republic, as well as national parks, natural monuments, forest park, nature reserves and other protected areas, followed by measures to

⁴⁷ Official Gazette of the Republic of Macedonia, n. 50/10.

⁴⁸ Official Gazette of the Republic of Macedonia, n. 67/04, 14/06, 84/07 и 35/10.

⁴⁹ Official Gazette of the Republic of Macedonia, n. 53/05, 81/05 24/07, 159/08, 83/09, 48/10 и 124/10.

protect the ozone layer, to protect against harmful noise in the living environment and to protect against ionizing radiation.

In addition to the inspection supervision of the implementation of the Law on Protection of environment who carry out inspection bodies within the Ministry for Environment and Spatial Planning, very important is supervision to carry out the inspection bodies in the Ministry of Agriculture, Forestry and Water Management. They are the State Inspectorate for Agriculture and the State Inspectorate for Forestry and Hunting.

The State Inspectorate for Agriculture supervises the implementation the laws and other regulations by the state authorities, public corporations, companies, institutions and legal and natural persons engaged in activities in the field of agriculture. In this context, he supervises the transport of plants, agricultural products and other objects of supervision in the field of agriculture; review and control of agricultural land, agricultural crops, orchards and vineyards, livestock and livestock products, as well as the equipment used for their processing and finishing, facilities for storing agricultural and livestock products, agricultural techniques, documents that are compiled and maintained by the performing agricultural jobs, etc.

State Inspectorate for Forestry and Hunting conducted inspections of the implementation of the Law on Forests, Hunting Law, the Law on the Reproductive Material of Forest Types of Trees , the Law For the Protection of Plants Against Diseases and Pests and other laws that are closely related to forestry and hunting as well as the activities of the society that are performed in the living environment .

In addition to these Inspectorates, great importance in the administrative protection of the environment protection has a forest police. Its activities have primarily protective-sanctioning nature. But, the Forest Law,⁵⁰ in Article 82 paragraph 1, item 6, obliges members of the forest police to monitor forest conditions and to report to the relevant authorities about illegal cutting of forests, forest thefts, forest fires, plant diseases, forest pests and other negative phenomena in the forests. Unlike inspectors, the members of forest police are regularly present in the terrain. Therefore, they are better able to detect violations of law by the offenders and that, on the spot to take measures against them.

Bearing in mind the fact that the inspectorates and their organs in cases of violation of the natural environment, act almost regularly, based on the notification of citizens, the experiences of the forest police should to be used in performing control and supervisory jobs in other sectors of the competent ministries (agriculture and water management) as well as control supervision jobs in other sectors of the Ministry of Agriculture Forestry an Water Management and in the Ministry of Environment and Spatial Planning . So, it should form the police for the environment and the agricultural police and the police for water management. But, if the formation of these polices will burden budget of mentioned ministries, it should establish mobile teams of listed inspectorates, which will be constantly present in the terrain and their presence will act preventively in relation to the possible disruption of the natural environment and, of course, and repressively if they discover such breaches .

On behalf of the Inspectorate inspection conducted directly authorized inspectors. When performing an inspection they can to prohibit or restrict the exercise of certain activities, to prohibit or restrict the use of certain funds for the work, to prohibit or limit the application of certain technological processes at work, to restrict or prohibit operation of the legal or natural person who has not filed an application for obtaining integrated environmental permit, temporarily to remove from the owner or user the equipment, products, devices and appliances which represent sources of pollution or degradation of the

⁵⁰ Official Gazette of the Republic of Macedonia, n. 64/2009

environment or do not meet the prescribed conditions for use, etc. They issue its decision in the form of solutions or orders. Against their decisions an appeal before a higher authority is allowed, and against second instance decision is allowed to initiate an administrative dispute before the competent administrative court of the Republic of Macedonia.

Sanction measures of public administration in order to protect the environment

The aim of the sanction is to prevent offenders who committed offenses punished if they do not make, under the threat that they will be more severe punished, to force them to think about done and, by thinking to understand their mistakes and not make mistakes. That is, indeed, the essence of reintegration of perpetrators of penalized offenses. Then, the goal of the sanction is the educational impact on other citizens that does not make punishable offenses because it warns. It intimidates those who have not misused the law by putting the knowledge that they will suffer the same consequences as the one that has been misused.

The bodies of administration in terms of sanction measures for protecting environment have two possibilities. The first possibility applies to serious breaches of rules in relation to the environment which, because of the consequences that are caused or may cause, represents crimes. It consists in reporting offenses to the state prosecutor who is responsible, according to the Law, and who is competent for the prosecution of their perpetrators. The logging, in most cases, perform inspection authorities and members of the forest police, because they are dealing with the control and supervision of the environment and, of course, they are able to discover the perpetrators. As they discover, are obliged to marry them apply, because the failure of the offender, in itself, represents a criminal offense, but only for crimes for which the law prescribes imprisonment for a term exceeding five years, which, after all belongs largest number of offenses.

Another possibility consists of in the immediate sanctioning of perpetrators of penalized offenses. Administrative organs can directly sanction only perpetrators of delicts against the environment. According to the Law on Misdemeanors the adult perpetrator of misdemeanor (offenders of delicts against the environment are in majority such them), can be imposed on one of the following misdemeanor sanctions: fines, warning, termination of driving license, prohibition to drive a motor vehicle; a ban on exercising the profession, activities or duties; expulsion of aliens and compulsory treatment of alcoholics and drug addicts.

By their nature, offenders against the environment are imposed to fines, warning, prohibition of the exercise of the profession, activities or duty and expulsion of aliens (if he caused a forest fire).

Offenders of misdemeanor against the environment and, so against the other social good, can be legal entities and they are imposed to penalties.

The use of these options by the administration authority is limited. They may take misdemeanor procedure and impose offenders to penalties only in cases when their competence is proscribed by law, and against the perpetrators of misdemeanor for which a penalty sanction is in precisely defined amount, - for individuals of up to 500 EUR in MKD equivalent value and for legal entity of up to 1000 EUR in MKD equivalent and which are subject to the imposition of a fine on the spot.

For other offenses the courts are competent organs, to which bodies of public administration submit the requests for initiating court proceedings against their perpetrators.

If an organ of public administration are appearing in the role of the prosecuting authority against offender, it receives a status of misdemeanor organ. Status misdemeanor authorities in relation to misdemeanors against the environment usually have a Ministry of Environment and Spatial Planning and the Ministry of Agriculture, Forestry and Water Management. Besides them, the status of misdemeanor authorities may have other bodies of

public administration that are authorized to exercise supervision over the implementation of laws in area of environmental protection.

On behalf of the misdemeanor authority procedure is leaded by the Commission for deciding on misdemeanors which is stipulated by law or other regulation. Members of the Commission are authorized officers of the misdemeanor authority with appropriate level of education and work experience. At least one of the Commission members must be a law graduate from the bar exam,

Misdemeanor authority, in procedure for misdemeanor, makes decisions. Their decisions secure court protection before the Administrative Court of the Republic of Macedonia.

Conclusion

The legal system of the Republic of Macedonia provides good opportunities for efficient performance of public administration in the protection of the environment. Without doubt, the laws on environmental protection has certain vagueness and ambiguities that are the source of many conflicts of interest and, in connection with these, conflicts of competence , primarily between two key ministries responsible for the implementation of the provisions of the above laws - Ministry of Environment and Spatial Planning and the Ministry of Agriculture, Forestry and Water Management. However, these conflicts can be easily solved or, at least reduced, if there is a mood for cooperation in achieving common interest - effective protection of the environment from degradation and destruction.

Cooperation in overcoming problems should be primarily focused on improving the legislation in order to remove all provisions of law in which implementation conflict of interest appears. In addition, it should be working to improve the quality of education of officers of both ministries, particularly those in the Ministry of Agriculture, Forestry and Water Management by going to, in their education and environmentally 's and social aspects will be implemented, not only economic aspects in relation to the exploitation of environment .

The officers of both the ministries, as a mater of fact, of the other ministries, in solving problems related to the protection of the environment, in accordance with the principle of sustainable development, in their work, have to use "the word of science." They should cooperate with scientists in the field of environmental protection, agriculture, forestry, water management, industry, mining, etc. It seems that the word of science in decision-making power is slightly used, not only in the field of environmental protection, but also in other spheres of social life in the Republic of Macedonia.

Post industrial society, as renowned economist Peter Drucker writes, is knowledge society. In it, progress those societies, those countries that are, in all social activities, supported by science, by knowledge that it brings. Societies, who ignore the science, that ignore the application of its achievements in social life lags behind in their development.

Protecting the environment is an imperative whose execution is without delay, because the environment is space in which and by whose resources the man lives. A man and a space in which he lives constitute a dialectical unity. If space is degraded, and human life will be degraded. The bodies of state administration are the most powerful social entity for the management of all social activities, including the protection of living space, and the environment. That, their power should be used. From society depends on how it will be used and how they will use it. There is no doubt that it can be best uzed in an organized society of knowledge, aimed at protecting human values and interests Politicized and divided siciety in which the main driving force of human activities is profits, (as it is Macedonian society) cannot do it.

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THE SITUATION OF INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS BEFORE THE BEGINNING OF THE BALKAN WARS 1912- 1913 AS A PRECURSOR OF THE FIRST WORLD WAR

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Abstract

After the European Concert of 1815, "Old" Europe, characterized from ongoing wars for power, experienced the longest period of peace it ever had. In 40 years there were no war between the Great Powers. After the war at Crime in 1854, there was no general war for another 60 years. This was due to a strong equilibrium, which proposed the existence of France, Germany, Austro-Hungary and Russia as main elements, having the support of England which had the naval fleet superiority. The Balkan Wars of the 1912-1913 are the most important event in the history of the Balkan people and beyond. They are composed of a series sharp and bloody conflicts that swept Eastern Europe in the recent years. If we talk about the origins of the war, we must emphasize that the situation of the Balkan wars at the time and especially the situation that followed, was very alike to the conditions that existed before the Turks came to Europe. At that time, both during and after the Balkan Wars, the Christian states constantly fought against each other for hegemony in the peninsula. For the more serious and real judgment we should also see the impact and performance of the situations and events in the Balkans, with the new changes in the geopolitics of the European continent, at least since the early nineteenth century and the credit for this goes to the European Concert (1815).

Keywords: Balkan states, equilibrium, Balkan wars, Ottoman empire, national aspirations

Introduction

After studies and analyzes the wars developed in the Balkans, the wars of the beginning and at the end of the twentieth century, the first important lesson to take, even fundamental cornerstone, is not the war, but its opposite – The Peace! The most credible and incontestable testimony, the experience long and bitter, the painful, the desperation and irreversible for that fact, for this truth are the two "series" of wars in 1912-1913 and 1991-2001, in this hot and disturbed region, which is still not found peace and safety! Those wars, though always have been taken in the name of peace and security, according to the traditional point of view, already is confirmed, that they have brought and left behind only the wilderness, death, disease, epidemics and the ruins of the destruction of cities, villages, buildings, tranquility and everything vital.

Main Text

The Balkan Wars in 1912-1913 were a series of sharp and bloody conflicts that fell over South-Eastern Europe during the fall of 1912 and winter, spring and summer of 1913. If we'll talk about the origin of the war, we should emphasize that the situation, during and after the Balkan Wars, was reminiscent of the conditions that existed before the arrival of the Ottoman Empire in Europe. At that time, during and after the Balkan Wars, Christian states were in constant conflict against each other for hegemony over the peninsula. However,

during the ottoman occupation, even if the people were troubled and beaten, national consciousness didn't vanish entirely. Simultaneously, we are aware over the advancement of national spirit in Balkan, starting from the beginning of the Turkish occupation. Various authors assert that, the Great Powers had anticipated the division of the Ottoman Empire almost a century before the Great Eastern Crisis. Regarding these wars could present a series of reasons that prompted them. After the Vienna Concert of 1815, "Old" Europe, characterized from ongoing wars for power, experienced the longest period of peace it ever had. In 40 years there were no war between the Great Powers. After the war at Crime in 1854, there was no general war for another 60 years. This was due to a strong equilibrium, which proposed the existence of France, Germany, Austro-Hungary and Russia as main elements, having the support of England which had the naval fleet superiority. In this complex structure based not only Europe, but also ensuring U.S. Kissinger (1999) says that: "A peaceful international order punitive withholding because winners were loads of war-weary task to keep track of a country that is determined to derail the chosen path" (p. 81). That would be the worst of the Treaty of Versailles. Winners of the Congress of Vienna as the winners of World War II avoided this kind of mistake. It was not easy to be patient and generous to France, which was trying to subdue and rule Europe. But statesmen in Vienna, concluded that Europe would be safer if France will be relatively pleased than offended and unfriendly. France was stripped of her conquests, but what you gave her borders "ancient" pararevolucionit therefore, although they represented a much wider territory he had run out of Richelieu. So if you see a chronological unexplained events begin before East crisis, the Balkan Wars and after the First World War, we see that the world had been for nearly half a century of peace. The concert of Europe have experienced diplomats. Each of them have distinctive skills and knew how to use them properly. Undoubtedly it pointed out: the aristocratic elegance and Metternich diplomatic, intelligence and cunning Taleyran, reasoning of Lord Castlereagh. And the results were seen with what is offered diplomacy, political and human history of those years. But immediately after this period resume military and economic forces have changed significantly. On the one hand, the scene of powers and interests, unfolding a multinational Ottoman empire too weak economically and militarily, whose ship was sinking path to take. Consequently, increased efforts of the Great Powers, especially Russia to take part when it happened (the Russo-Turkish War). On the other hand brings the creation in 1871 of the German state, the great Chancellor Otto von Bismarck. Germany have an economic and military too large, changing the ratio of forces on the continent. But that failed merger Chancellor of Germany would not live forever, and his descendants will be sadly lacking in diplomacy what he had majority, maturity. Various analysts have concluded that, Congress of Vienna, among other things, helped in favor of preserving the peace and the removal of nationalism. Nationalism was seen by European leaders as the cause of revolutions which undermine the existence of traditional monarchies. The term revolution as a notion and doctrine had no greater enemy than the Prime Minister of Europe, Prince Klemence von Metternich ...According Metternich and the threat of an outbreak of a revolution, nationalist movements to come from the conquered peoples, Borici (2008). So, in a way closely related revolutions nationalism, were challenge decisions of the Congress of Vienna. But time will show that despite efforts to ban Metternich revolutionary movements, they will not stop, even Metternich itself will leave the political scene. Powers became aware of Prussia's military potential, with its victory over Austria at the Battle of Königgrätz 1866's. Meanwhile, four years later, they saw the Prussian army to destroy fortifications Parisian. Those who had been a symbol of power and majesty. On the other hand, it was made clear throughout that greatness, French culture and British absolute dominance in trade and industry was coming to an end is. Another superpower would come on stage, disrupting European balance, and giving a new breath and European policy

interests. Parallel with this change, walked and ran and one of the leading figures in the history of German Chancellor Otto Eduard Leopold von Bismarck-Sainthausen. Bismarck was one of the most prominent European aristocrats of the nineteenth century. Year of birth of Bismarck 1815 year marked the political and diplomatic agenda of the European continent. That year, the coalition holy accounts closed once and decided to Napoleon Bonaparte and an international order in the world. It was this international order, which Bismarck inspired to achieve what will be making his name immortalized in centuries of history: Unification of all German states into a single state, Borici (2008). Realpolitik Bismarkian (foreign policy based on the calculation of the force and the national interest), brought the unification of Germany in 1871, right in the heart of France, who had driven the hated union and, in the palace of the statements in Versailles. But reunification Realpolitics made to close itself, reaching the opposite of what he expected to arrive. On the other hand Realpolitics made the mistake of starting life insulting state of permanent enemy who will not forget reward until just a few years later with the same currency even more, thus insulting the pride of the German nation seriously. Since the modern state system emerged at the time of Richelieu, countries on the periphery of Europe: Britain, France and Russia, continue to put pressure on the center. Now, for the first, middle, becoming very strong pressure to the periphery. He still called the Concert of Europe, was actually divided into two groups hostility, enmity between France and Germany and the growing animosity between the Austro-Hungarian and Russian. This hostility between Russia and Austria, managed to overcome the monarchs unitetitn conservative. Pan-Slavism and expansion fanatic and outdated adventurous came to the aid of Russian policy in the Balkans. Just cause fear stays parallel to the Austro-Hungarian empire. Over time, the conflict in the Balkans, Russia and Austria became unmanageable. If the balance of power had functioned in the form of its most pure, the Balkans will be divided into spheres of influence of Russia and Austria. Bismarck at the Congress of Berlin was arrogant, but because. He had the ability to understand the incentives of participants went on to meet the disagreements, and had as its ability to give the characters realize that others working in the interest of tētjerëve, he had no personal interest and that of the best of . In other words, he cleverly hinted that there was no "client" of the Balkan peoples, despite his main goal in diplomacy, was to establish such a balance to prevent alliances against the Germans. But, regardless of merit, if any leader and divine what they had given to his country, is not eternal, is first and foremost a man, a mortal. Time Bismarck was golden but if he had the ability to distinguish the finish line where military strength and diplomatic used it, those who came after him had these skills, and it will prove fatal not only to the German nation but for all mankind. "Nobody eats from the tree of immortality impunity", Bismarck wrote for his friend von Roon. In this sense Bismarck planted the seed, not only the achievements of his country but his tragedies of the 20th century. After unification, Germany became the most powerful country on the continent and consistently strengthened after each decade. Berlin turned into a European economic center becoming a symbol of that development. But besides the economic and military, postbismarkian diplomacy left much to be desired. Content virtue that had so rationally and appropriately Bismarck, his successors had little to say not at all. 15 years after the death of Bismarck, these positions will bring their fruits in conflicts that would affect the Balkan Peninsula, and throughout Europe and the world in one of the major wars that involved humanity. It is known that 100 years before the Balkan wars, the entire Balkan Peninsula, the Aegean Sea and Turkish straits to the border of the Russian Empire, Austria-Hungary, with few exceptions, was under Turkish sundmin. As a result of developments known during the nineteenth century, the Turks were retreating southward detyuar of birth and now the remaining parts of the southern peninsula. Austria and Russia pursue their interests in the

Balkans. Geography and Ethnography, the report said Cornegier Foundation, have divided the Balkans into two spheres of influence, eastern and western, Bulgarian and Serbian areas.

History of diplomatic or insert them under Russian or the Austrian influence. Thus there are two opposing withdrawal: Withdrawal "German" from north to south and pull "Slavic" from east to west. "Vardar Valley, which divides Macedonia into two parts, was destined to be the arena where the two influences meet and encounter". Russia has outlined the boundary of the area of influence since the Treaty of San Stefano, which all form part of Macedonia's inherent Bulgaria. Austrian politics has counter-attraction to the formation of the Russian secret treaties of 1881 and 1889 by Serbian King Milan Obrenovic, who was promised areas of Vardar Macedonia and the western half, in order for Serbia to give up goals Adriatic, to give consent to sanjak of Bosnia and Herzegovina annexed all countries serbian speakers to Zagreb. Any increase of the Serbian Kingdom, any extension to the sea, especially the Adriatic, each elevation and reinforcement of national consciousness of its people, endanger the Dual Monarchy. While pan-Slavism threatened the integrity of Austria-Hungary, the main features of this latest in the Balkans was a harsh suppression of national aspirations among its populations of the South Slavs (Kroatian residents, Dalmatia and Bosnia-Herzegovina), a wary and jealous opposition to any territorial or resource achievement of the Kingdom of Serbia and a strong determination to stop the constant Serbian expansion to the Adriatic. For these and other reasons, that many scholars, among whom and J. Schurman, claim that the cause of the war between Turkey and the Balkan states 1912 was Macedonia. Being geographically between Greece and Serbia, Bulgaria, Macedonia and as a race-types ethnic mix was intended to act as a magnet to newly freed Christian nations of the Balkans. Macedonia was and is at the crossroads of the Balkan Peninsula. However, states created in the liberated areas in the nineteenth century and twentieth century fillimtë as Greece, Serbia, Romania, Montenegro, Bulgaria, entirely governed by monarchies, where borders were almost ambiguous and lacked stability Peninsula international ("Other Balkan Wars", 1993). To go from Central Europe to the Aegean port of Thessaloniki, or the Adriatic Sea in Istanbul, traders will always pass through Macedonia, to avoid mountain roads. Furthermore, and Bismarck, known for his contempt for all Balkan affairs, acknowledged its strategic position. Those who own the Vardar River valley, he said, are the masters of the Balkans (Glenny, 2007). Furthermore, and Bismarck, known for his contempt for all Balkan affairs, acknowledged its strategic position. So all these facts lead us to think that Macedonia has been one of the causes of the Balkan conflicts even just getting started and the existence of this region, and being in that position and what specific geographic mix populations, such that for all these country would be subject to often targeted by neighbors for political or economic purposes and military. This statement is quite original because it shows us that some people are fragile and mixed culture or ethnicity, which often become the object of fulfilling the interests of stronger nations or ethnicities that rrthojnë more solid. In other words, they have a national identity not steady because of various wars, they spend time or become part of a state, and another time, becoming so in this sense a permanent source of conflict. In case you have chosen to study the existence and consequences of these differences Macedonian, they will be "the match will light cools the conflict" and wars that will not only feel the Macedonians, but all the peoples of the Balkans.

The concept of nationalism, which found from France and the German states in the early nineteenth century, began to be distributed in the Balkans. The initial impact was mainly cultural. Intellectuals made great efforts to standardize and all my popular daily Balkans also often reminding states that had existed in the Balkans before Ottoman invasion. Very soon became the focus of political nationalism, a desire to achieve national unity motivated Balkan countries to deal with their former ottoman occupiers. Balkan leaders assume that only the achievement of national unity after their states can go towards the

development and prosperity. In this aspect of the Balkan peoples tried to follow the example of the political and economic success in Western Europe, especially West Germany by adopting the concept of nationalism as a model for their national development. Balkan peoples perceived nationalism as a justification for the creation of special geopolitical units.

This concept of Western European nationalism moved the old Ottoman 'millet' in the Balkans, which actually had allowed the autonomy of every major religious group in administration management. The millet system allowed the Muslims, Orthodox, Catholics and Jews live together without inserting the nose into the affairs of one another. This system gave the Balkan peoples a limited degree of cultural autonomy. Every Balkan people imagine restoring medieval empires that used to base their national ideas. Bulgarians asked borders of the empire of the first or second Bulgarian revival of Byzantine Greeks, Serbs and Montenegrins and asked to lie on the territory of the empire of Stephen Dusan. In 1876 Serbia and Montenegro war against the Ottoman Empire to create large national states in the western Balkan Peninsula. In the same year an anti-Ottoman revolt erupted in Bulgaria. In 1877 Russia intervened in the Balkans, Bulgarian nationalists allied. After nine months of hard fighting, the Russians dominated. The Treaty of San Stefano, signed in March 1878, and ended the Russo-Turkish war by creating an independent state of Bulgaria's large and expanding Serbia and Montenegro. The Treaty of San Stefano maximum territorial aspirations fulfilled Bulgarian nationalists. Bulgaria's new included most of the territory in the eastern Balkan peninsula between the Danube and the Aegean Sea. It also included Macedonia. For the first and only time in modern history, a Balkan nation had achieved all its national goals. The Treaty of San Stefano was faced with a negative response from core Europe, which for the last 200 years had the privilege of international arbitration matters. A desire to limit the ambitions of the Russian Empire in the Balkans and to restore order in chaotic conditions Ottoman Europe, especially by Austria-Hungary and Great Britain made the major powers to accept the offer of Otto von Bismarck to organize a conference to resolve the Balkans. Bismarck promised to serve as an "honest broker, who really wanted to do business." Bismarck invited the representatives of the Great Powers to meet in the German capital. After the Congress of Berlin, which was attended by leading diplomats of the time, including Lord Salisbury Great Britain and Count Andrassy of Austria-Hungary, the Congress of Berlin significantly reduced the size and independence of the new Bulgarian state. Instead of a large independent Bulgaria, the Berlin Congress created an autonomous Bulgarian principality under the Ottoman sovereignty, a semi-autonomous Eastern Rumelia under the authority of the Ottoman Sultan, and the back Macedonia in direct rule of the sultan. These decisions were catastrophic for Bulgarian nationalism. Berlin Congress also recognized the independence of Serbia too full a bit smaller and Montenegro deprived of gains versus sanctioned in San Stefano Herzegovina Sanjak of Novi Pazar and northern Albania. Austria-Hungary advanced to the Western Balkans and occupied Bosnia-Herzegovina and Novi Pazar Sanjak. These territories were de jure part of the Ottoman Empire. They were also the national aspirations of Serbia and Montenegro. Greek continuing claims led to a tussle in Berlin decisions. Bulgarians were not the only ones who felt frustrated over the Berlin decisions. Greeks, Montenegrins and Serbs are perceived as the Treaty of Berlin as an obstacle to their national aspirations. Serbian people, hoping to rebuild the national integrity, against his will and explicit, found himself in July 1876 divided in three parts, while Austria tried at all costs to establish any kind of relationship with. Similarly, against the wishes of his people, and Bulgaria was divided into three parts. The decisions of the Berlin Congress made the Balkan peoples to oppose the Ottoman Empire and Austria-Hungary, and, moreover, Balkan nations opposed each other. In this complex situation was strengthened people's liberation movement rather than Turkish (where, among other things, attracted the attention of the powerful movement of Albanians, especially with

known activity during the League of Prizren and beyond), who had remained under the yoke of the Sultan and movement of the South Slavs and other ethnic groups who were under the power of Austria-Hungary. Serbia dominated by Ilija Garašanin's program (Načertanije 1844), provided a territorial expansion of Serbia, who became leader of the activities in the field of foreign policy of the country. This document is known as the "bible of Serbian nationalism". He pointed to the fact that the Serbian expansion will not only mean the destruction of the Ottoman Empire (European part), but with a potential conflict against Austria, which was preparing her go back brakes Turkish possessions in the Balkans. Under this program was alive Serbia should the former glory of the kingdom of Stefan Dusan. But the limits of this new empire, "Načertanije" - will enter many areas of neighboring countries including Northern Albania and Kosovo, the Serbian minister baptized with the name "Old Serbia". This view was reinforced by the fact of annexation of Bosnia and Herzegovina by Austria-Hungary in 1908 and its goal for itself to ensure access to the Aegean Sea, the region of Thessaloniki. Austrian monarchy was because at that moment and the situation was in favor of it, not to mention leaving Germany and support. Austria reached as far as stating that I do not know the power of the sultan in this country and that will detach from the empire, then fire you (Schevill, 2002). Austria, even strengthened its position in the Balkans without giving any compensation Russia, the latter in military terms, in that moment too incompetent to withstand an Austria which was backed by Germany. In addition, Russia does not enjoy the support of France and Britain that their attitudes had clearly indicated that it will not engage in a war in Serbia's interest. These attitudes led to the end of March 1908, Russia to recognize the annexation of Bosnia and Herzegovina. In fact, this annexation, instead of serving for a solution to the issue or sedation of the South Slavic population, led to a further aggravation of the situation. The first simple this crisis was resolved through diplomacy and not through war. In January 1909, Aehrenthali strengthened Austria's diplomatic position through an agreement with Turkey, which the Ottoman government recognized the annexation of Bosnia and Herzegovina by Austria in exchange for monetary compensation. On the other hand that was developed in 1906 with Serbia "War pigs" and trade blockade. Serbia could not be supported by Russia which was militarily too weak to face a war at that moment, while Britain's Liberal government was preoccupied with social legislation and in France Clemensau government was completely anti-German, this last behind Austria despite reservations. But despite the success of diplomatic and peaceful solution by Austria and Germany, on the international reputation and they also suffered losses in the sphere of interests because they abandoned the strategic sanjak of Novi Pazar. It should be noted and something that is very sensitive and in the interest of our study, that the Austrian monarchy, this solution was a "mixed blessing". On the one hand, Austria achieved its purpose, which was the annexation of the province, and the fact of the forced carry-on as Serbia or Russia-in the "surrender" in the face of this reality. But the other side of the coin was that would be very difficult for Austria to administer or govern these provinces, because the very southern Slavs were against the annexation. Russia will use this fact as to "take revenge", prompting a Balkan peoples resistance against the Habsburg Monarchy. While all these reasons, Serbia asked before whether you can it withstand Austria - Hungary. This threat became one of the main reasons that forced the Serbian ruling circles of felt for a territorial expansion towards the Turkish possessions in Europe, primarily in Macedonia and other regions in Albania etc..

While the Moroccan crisis has attracted the attention of the Great Powers, Italians realized that they had made an agreement with France in December 1900, an agreement was proper. In exchange for a free hand to the left France in Morocco, Italians now aiming to achieve a victory similar to that of the French in connection with the North African provinces and Kirenejka Tripolitannia, which were still part of the Ottoman Empire. Italy had faith and in fact it turned out to former true that Austria and Germany would not mind to avoid

disturbing the tripartite alliance. In October 1909, Italy further strengthened its diplomatic position, by ensuring Russia's consent to receiving Tripolitania from Italy, in exchange for Italy's support for Russia wanted changes in the Straits Convention. On 28 September 1911, the Italians suddenly handed an ultimatum to Constantinople, where required the Ottoman government, within twenty-four hours, to agree to an immediate invasion of Italy by Tripolitania, this requirement is justified on the grounds of establishing "law and order". Twenty-four hours later, no matter the response of the Turks, Italy declares war on Turkey. On November 5, they announced the annexation of these territories, which is called Libya, the ancient Greek name for this region of Roman North Africa. After about a year on October 18, 1912, in an agreement signed in Lausanne, Switzerland, Turks made peace with Italy and agreed to withdraw troops from Tripolitania and Kirenajka. This decision not only you imposed on them by the Italian successes on the battlefield, but also of a new attack on the Ottoman Empire was being prepared, this time of the Balkan countries. In fact, the great powers such as France and Britain were not too concerned about the fate of this population or those tojeve which were almost deserted, than the fact that any attack on the Ottoman Empire was a precedent for the launch of the Eastern Crisis. But Germany and Austria feared that the Italian attack would serve as an incentive to attack Russian or Balkan countries over turkey.

Time showed what great powers feared happened. Despite contradictions Balkan joined forces to create an alliance against Turkey. In the landscape of international diplomacy Tripolitania War, regarded as a driver of the Balkan peoples in the struggle for independence from Turkey. All Balkan countries, except Romania were on the border with the Ottoman Empire and all were keen to take land from its holdings. Russians for a long time had sought to form a coalition of Balkan countries, but until then it had not been possible because of rivalries and extreme positions itself as the Balkan and their fear that Russian aid will not be turned the reason to come under another pick, but not this time Russian Orthodox Muslim. So at any time there was a fear of becoming hostage to Russia. Italian attack on Tripolitania succeeded him what he could not achieve for a long time Russian diplomacy. While an important part of the Turkish army was in North Africa, the Balkan countries saw an opportunity or a situation conducive to realize their ambitions against the Ottoman Empire. So after the engagement of Turkish troops in Africa and the impact of Russian diplomats and agents, Balkan countries except Romania gathered in a coalition and saw for the first time admitted the possibility of the recovery table to pluricentennial Ottoman yoke. These uprisings served as a powerful catalyst in the development of events in the Balkan peninsula, at the end of the first decade of this century. Researcher Edith Durham, very dear to Albanians, had thought that if it was been provided a definitive place to Albania (after the Treaty of Berlin), definitely it would be not necessary to be made other movements of populations. The view that existed after this Treaty, to recognize Albania as its only fair mountainous strip of land along the coast, will bring great disaster. A nation like this, with all the special quality, swinging should have enough places to live. If you will not be given, they will receive them himself. This is one of the most fundamental issues of current difficulties. While Albania remains without its borders, under the so-called Turkish government, its status will be anarchic and Balkan situation has improved to be almost impossible (Durham, 2000). Taking into account the situation of that time, it would be absurd to accept that the Albanian factor has not effected the throes of the Ottoman Empire. In this direction, attentive and serious researchers and undisputed facts convince us that one of the main reasons, if not the main one, the outbreak of the Balkan wars are Albanian uprisings, especially the General Uprising of 1912's, the thing which forced the Ottoman Empire on August 17, 1912 to accept demands for autonomy Albanian insurgents in four Vilayet the area 90 100 sq km and a population of 2,725,410 inhabitants. Certainly the Ottoman Empire was found in front of a fait accompli, Albanian patriots in November 1912

had raised the Albanian flag in some cities to crowned in Vlora on 28 November 1912. The right choice of the Albanian question, did not like anyone Albanian territories around the country and their actions created a folder that terrible conflict made many disasters and tragedies with colossal damage for nearly a century. Concerns of the Balkan states, especially Serbia, increased more after the liberation of a number of major cities of Kosovo Vilayet etc. and, moreover, after the triumphal entry kryengitësve more than 30,000 Albanians in Skopje, the capital of Kosovo Vilayet, this success was a blow to conspiracy spring Balkan alliance. Historian Ferdinand Schevill writes that victory felt Albanian allies, already inevitable, through which Albania was being built as an autonomous state consisting of four vilayet, Shkodra, Janina, Monastir and Kosovo. In fact, the reality was that, if fighting the Albanian proposal will be accepted each of the four allies would see the door closed in a given province, which each particularly coveted. But after uprisings concerned Albanians, was the Russian pan-Slavism, which in order to achieve its goals, hiding behind the Serbian factor, continually urging him to targeted Albanian factor. In view of these personal interests Russian diplomatic activity conducted a succinct trying to secure the support of England and France in favor of its Balkan allies. "First in the Balkans are our interests, the interests of Serbia, Montenegro, and Greece", would declare chairman of the Russian Government. So Albanian ideas of liberation and unification combined with claims of ruling circles in Serbia, Greece and Romania to foreign lands, where there lived measures population contacts with the countries concerned nationality. The Balkan region and especially those who seceded from the latest Turkish Empire, Ottoman rule inherited from a very low economic level. Most of the population lived in the countryside, the market economy was in a phase of stagnation, lack infrastructure, not to forget that the bulk of the population was illiterate. Here's how Demeter Anatakoviq Austrian consul expressed in Sarajevo in the period of Ottoman occupation, which he he ascertained that policy reforms and advertisements had entered a vicious circle. Sarajevo is dead. Trade and crafts are stopped altogether. Last weekend the city was brought very little food shopping goods. Eye not beasts of voice, or because they are from military requisitioning, or because the peasantry has mountains to save them ... As seizures have often allowed themselves to emphasize the villagers, Muslims and Christians alike, are burdened in every way (Glenny, 2007). Many studies refer to the fact that the political character of the reasons that conditioned the beginning of the Balkan War, should be included and the socio - economic and population conquered by the Turks, which was kept under a pressure of wild and was deprived of political rights, national, social, religious and other rights. "And, besides political and socio-economic slavery was strengthened and national oppression ...While the ruling circles of the Turkish state refused to reforms proposed course of action in the Congress of Berlin. After Bulgaria's declaration of independence in 1908, this population experienced an even more ferocious repression. Most progressive representatives enslaved population under the European dominions of the Ottoman Empire and the Balkan states community, trying to find a radical solution to the national issue, which was actually a continuation of the liberation war renaissance period for the elimination of feudal and semi system national self-determination for the people not Turkish. Given the rapidly developing events and conditions on which was popullli, leading circles of the Balkan countries decided that they had been charged with the mission of resolving historical issues in their countries. The goals of the First Balkan War itself crash involving semi feudal system under the European dominions of the Ottoman Empire, where the Turkish population not subjected to savage repression of political, economic, national, social and religious. Another aspect was the struggle for the liberation of the enslaved fellow thing that would lead to national unity Balkan peoples and the establishment of homogeneous states. This aspect of homogeneity will make the confusion, the territory of the State the nationality. On behalf of the nation state will become mass expulsions, rape, murder and

genocide, which unfortunately will accompany the Balkan region to this day. These goals, set in a certain way progressive character of the First Balkan War, continuing the idea of liberation Russo-Turkish wars of the nineteenth century, which makes that a good part of the Balkan peoples to gain freedom. She played the role of a bourgeois democratic revolution in European dominions of the Ottoman Empire. But the downside was that followed the war and other purposes can be realized. This caused controversy in defining its character. One of these contradictions was the annexation of Albanian and Macedonian territories.

Conclusion

First Balkan War began in 1912. It was a war for liberation and the cause was the expulsion of the Ottoman Empire from the Balkan States. These countries (Serbia, Bulgaria, Greece and Montenegro.) formed Balkan alliance, whose armies were headed against the Ottoman Empire.

Second Balkan War began when Serbia, Greece, Romania, had disagreements with Bulgaria in sharing after the common conquering the region of Macedonia. On 1 June 1913, Serbia and Greece makes alliance against Bulgaria which led to the beginning of the war the evening of 29/30 June 1913 when King Ferdinand of Bulgaria ordered his troops to attack the Greek-Serbian forces in Macedonia. However Bulgarians lost, and between the warring parties was signed a peace treaty (Treaty of Bucharest) on 10 August 1913. Under the terms of this treaty, Greece and Serbia shared the most part of Macedonia between them, leaving Bulgaria just a small part.

Balkan Wars 1912-1913 were considered by many researchers as the warning signs of the Great War, as commonly called the First World War and, for them, were written thousands of books and extensive studies have been conducted in the field of diplomacy, in many languages. It is also has to be underlined that, those wars have found a prominent place in the treatment of the military operations carried out during these wars, or for the fact of being taken as a major target for studies in the history of military science. Dimensions and duration of the military operations, Serbian, Bulgarian, Greek, fast maneuvering, the determination of the troops, the first experiences of the war trenches, the military actions against the fortified regions, unseen until that time, the use of the railway network, naval blockades etc., showed a strategically maturity and advanced techniques of offensive and attack, taken by the most developed military Western schools.

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DEVELOPING A STRATEGY OF RELATIONS AND COOPERATION OF NON-PROFIT ORGANIZATIONS WITH THE LOCAL COMMUNITY

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Abstract

Stakeholder engagement can be described as an effort to understand the needs of key stakeholders and include them in activities and decision-making process. Managing stakeholders strategically is seen as the means for achieving the ultimate goals of organizations. If the stakeholder engagement concept is handled properly it can have a positive impact on the performance of the organization and provide important guidelines for the development of sustainable marketing strategies and practices. The aim and purpose of this research is to determine whether the concept of relationship marketing and stakeholder approach can be successfully applied in the non-profit sector. The study investigates the influence of the local community on the development of business strategies of non-profit organisations (NPOs) and the importance of building and maintaining relationships with the local community, using the example of the Town of Sinj and the region, the knights' tournament Sinjska Alka as a cultural phenomenon and tourist attraction, the Chivalric Society of the Alka Sinj, Tourist Board and local population. The assumption of this study is that when identifying stakeholders and defining adequate strategy of engagement, managerial perception of stakeholders as well as characteristics of the participants, their attitudes and willingness to engage, should be taken into account. Finally, it is concluded that the engagement of stakeholders in the activities and operations of non-profit organizations has a positive impact on their operations and that it is important for the sustainable development of marketing strategies and practices. Also, the stakeholder participation strategy should be developed bearing in mind the characteristics of the organization's stakeholders.

Keywords: Relationship marketing, stakeholder management, non-profit organisations, cultural heritage and tourism, Alka Sinj – Croatia

Introduction

Public participation in decision-making is not a new concept. Ever since the 1960s there have been attempts in Europe to promote local participation in planning and decision-making. Engaging the user has for many years been a feature of many social organizations.

Stakeholder engagement can be described as an organization's efforts to understand the needs of stakeholders and involve them in its activities and decision-making processes (The Stakeholder Engagement Manual, 2005). The benefits that the public participation brings are the following (OECD 2001a): (1) improving the quality of decision making by allowing the organization to have access to a wider source of information, different perspectives and possible solutions, (2) enabling a faster and easier interaction between the target audience and the organization, (3) increasing the accountability and transparency of the organization itself thus increasing its representative quality and the public trust as a result. In addition to generally improving the trust and goodwill with stakeholders, stakeholder

engagement can help an organization in the following ways (FRP Guide to Stakeholder Engagement, 2007): (1) anticipate and manage emerging issues, (2) promote productive collaboration with stakeholders, (3) improve the decision-making process and operational performance. The growth in the number of non-profit organizations over the past four decades, as well as increased pressure on NPOs to be more responsible in the management of donations and public funds has resulted in a widespread call for NPOs to adopt market principles and practices (Gainer and Padanyi, 2001). The marketing concept which states that only customer-focused organizations are most likely to achieve their goals (Gainer and Padanyi, 2001) is emphasized as the key business philosophy. Sargeant (2001) and Burnett (1998) argue that relationship marketing activities, due to the nature of work, can be successfully applied in the non-profit sector. For non-profit organizations the goal that matches profitability is survival, which means earning revenues sufficient to cover the long-term expenses and/or to bring long-term satisfaction to all key stakeholders (Andreasen and Kotler, 2008). Non-profit organizations must continually develop relationships with stakeholders who will support their mission by giving them their time and/or money. Relationship marketing focuses on developing partnerships and thus may increase the loyalty of stakeholders. Efforts to involve the public in the activities and decision making of organizations in Croatia are most noticeable in the non-profit sector. Corporate social responsibility is present in Croatia, but is still in its infancy and is mainly related to investments in sport and education (Mihanovic, 2009).

This study investigates the influence of the local community on the development of business strategies of NPOs and the importance of building and maintaining relationships with the local community, using the example of the town of Sinj and the region, the knights' tournament Sinjska Alka⁵¹ (Alka in further text) as a cultural phenomenon and tourist attraction, Viteško alkarsko društvo⁵² (VAD in further text) Sinj, Tourist Board and the local population. Alka has marked the local history and become a medium for transferring collective memory from one generation to another. Although Alka holds a special place in the cultural supply of Croatia and was as such inscribed on the UNESCO list of the Intangible Cultural Heritage, it is often said it is not developed enough either culturally or as a tourist destination (Dragun, 2011). The value of such an intangible heritage is often poorly understood while at the same time the challenges that the city of Sinj and the region, the Tourist Board and in particular VAD Sinj are facing in the development of marketing strategies remain.

Relationship marketing and managing relationships with stakeholders as target groups of non-profit organizations

One of the classic definitions about stakeholders goes as follows: "Stakeholders are any other group or individual who/which may affect or is affected by the realization of the organization's objectives" (Freeman, 1984, taken from Friedman, AL, Miles, S. 2006.).

Special theory relating to marketing in the non-profit sector is a theory of multiple constituencies, that claims that organizations have multiple related cash and non-cash exchange with many groups and that they differ from the main bilateral relationship exchange characteristic for the profit sector through which the company exchanges its products or services with the same customer that brings them income (Kanter, RM, DV Summers, 1987).

The model of multiple constituencies includes various stakeholder groups: the actual beneficiaries, donors, volunteers, board members, employees, etc., which are likely to have different goals and requirements that recognize the potential differences in their interests. An

⁵¹ Sinjska Alka is a knights' tournament in the town of Sinj which has been held every year since the 18th century.

⁵² Viteško alkarsko društvo or The Chivalric Society of the Alka was founded in 1715. It is now a public association responsible for ensuring the continuation of the tradition of the Alka.

important aspect of the theory of multiple constituencies is that non-profit organizations should develop and present different and independent marketing strategies for a variety of important stakeholders. Therefore it proposes that the focus on the stakeholders should be "specific to the stakeholder" considering that different stakeholders have different interests and needs and therefore require different interaction and relationships with any given organization (Pavičić, Alfirević and Mihanović 2007). According to research conducted by (Padayi & Gainer, 2004; Mihanović, Pepur and Šustić 2013) it is showed that relationships and focus towards different stakeholders are independent of each other and that organizations vary in the degree of orientation that apply to each group of stakeholders. To operate effectively with their stakeholders, managers should recognize them in non-profit organizations should be and treat them as separate entities. One of the tasks of managing relationships with stakeholders as the target group of non-profit organizations is the interpretation of nature of stakeholder expectations and meting their suitability values and mission organizations, professional norms of executive power and the interpretation of the public good of the organization itself. (Balser and McClusky, 2005). Values that are emphasized by the institution, and goals towards which it strives, will affect the strength of relations with different partners and the overlap with the values and objectives of certain external stakeholders and the establishing of relationships with them. (Voss and Cable, 2000).

Maintaining the organization's mission and fostering relationships with stakeholders by developing channels for two-way communication, has been recognized as best practice in non-profit organizations (Drucker, 1989).

Given the nature of work of non-profit organizations, Sargeant (2001) and Burnett (1998) claim that relationship marketing activities can be successfully applied in the non-profit sector. Relationship marketing and cooperation is one of the most important paradigm in the marketing literature in the last 10 years. It had a huge impact on the marketing activities in the nonprofit sector as it has led to increased cooperation with customers, increase purchases and decreased customer defection (Morgan and Hunt, 1994). Relationship marketing emphasizes the importance of developing long-term, sustainable relationships with existing customers and claims that it is better to spend resources and energy to this group of clients than to attract new customers (Grönroos, 1997). Value is one of the important components of relationship marketing and adding value to the product is a mean of increasing customer satisfaction, resulting in improving customer relationships and loyalty of consumers (Ravald and Grönroos, 1996). Morgan and Hunt (1994), Peppers and Rogers (1995) point out that trust is one of the key dimensions of relationship marketing. However, the trust, as such, in any relationship, it is not given but it must evolve. Other dimensions that play an important role in marketing relationships and creation of trust are: commitment and loyalty (Morgan and Hunt, 1994; Harker, 1999; Wong and Sohal 2002), cooperation and communication (Gummesson, 1997; Duncan and Moriarty, 1998), and satisfaction and quality of service (Ravald and Gronroos, 1996; Selnes, 1998; Roberts, Varkiand Brodie, 2003). Approach to relationship marketing, with a focus on maintaining and improving relationships with existing donors (eg, Burnett, 1998; Sargeant, 2001) and customers (Bennett, 2005), is also advocated in the literature on non-profit organizations. McCort (1994) is the first to apply the concepts of relationship marketing in the non-profit organization focusing on the relationship with donors. The backbone of this study states availability, responsibility, commitment, appreciation, and positive thinking as prominent elements for assessing relations strategy that non-profit organizations can apply. Rentschler et al. (2002) tries to explain the importance of relationship marketing for long-term sustainability of organizations that are involved in art with an emphasis on audience retention by building lasting relationships with existing audiences. MacMillan et al. (2005) is adapted commitment-trust model of Morgan and Hunt's (1994) in the non-profit sector. Elaborating on the nature of social exchange, they argue that

the success of relationship marketing depends on various characteristics of the relations of those previously defined for-profit organizations. Kristoffersen and Singh (2004) presented a business case of a non-profit organization called "Plan Norway", which, by successful implementation of customer relationship management (CRM) program, changed its sales strategy orientation on market orientation and the efforts of "Plan Norway" is to thoroughly understand what their sponsors exactly expect from their relationship with the organization and to fulfil that expectations. While traditional marketing focuses on the importance of acquiring new customers (Gummesson, 1997), relationship marketing puts greater emphasis on the importance of creating long-term mutual relationships with existing customers and claims that it is better that the organization spends its energy and resources on this group of users rather than attracting new ones (Gronroos, 1997). Using the term "non-profit" McCourt (1994) argues that such organizations do not need to look at their customers as targets to be reached, but as partners in the mission of organization. He also believes that non-profit organizations have unique characteristics that fit well in the relationship marketing strategies.

Table 1 summarizes how relationship marketing strategies meet the needs of the non-profit sector.

Table 1. Relationship marketing and nonprofit sector

CONGURENCE BETWEEN NONPROFITS AND RELATIONISHIP MARKETING	
NONPROFIT CHALLENGES	RELATIONSHIP MARKETING BENEFITS
Long term support needed	Fosters long-term committed relationship
Goods and services are intangible	Relationship becomes tangible benefit tying donor to the organisation
Giving motivation is intrinsic	Fosters sense of ownership in mission. Relationship becomes a salient attribute linking donor to the nonprofit
Communication can be ambiguous	Relationship builds donor confidence in the organisation
Marketing is incompatible with nonprofit etich	Strategy stresses mutually beneficial relationship is greater than any single transaction
Fundraising	Provides a sustainable strategy capable of meeting the organisation's needs

Source: McCort JD. 1994.

The forms of stakeholders involvement

One of the most commonly cited typology of public participation is the hierarchical approach developed by Sherry Arnstein (Arnstein, 1971, taken from Boviard and Löffler, 2009). At the lowest bar of the "ladder of participation" it situates the manipulation of the public. Public information and consultation Arnstein considers tokenistic⁵³ activities and places them in the middle of the ladder. At the top of the ladder approaches used for training (empowerment) the public are located. However, this typology may lead to the conclusion that some forms of public involvement are naturally superior to others. In practice, what is most important is that the chosen form of involvement of the public is in accordance with the purpose for which it is used. Much more useful typology in terms of the application of public participation in creating a business strategy company, according to Boviardu and Löffler (2009) includes three categories of participation: communication, consultation and co-production. According to Boviardu and Löffler (2009), each of these categories is an important component in the creation of policies and strategies to create relationships with target stakeholders. Two group of factors influence the form of stakeholders involvement

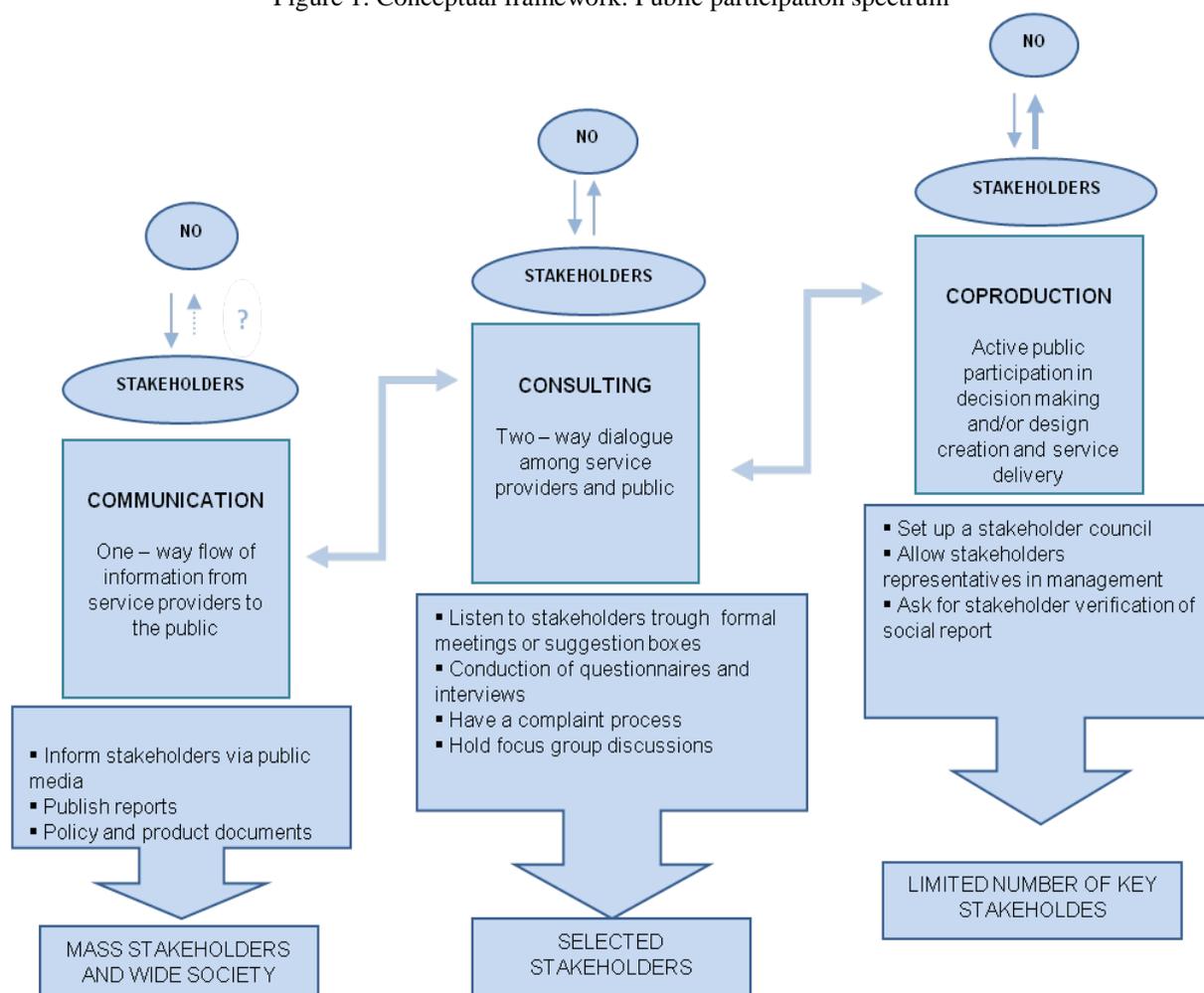
⁵³ Tokenism - signifies a practice or policy where only minimal efforts are made so that the minorities are offered opportunities equal to those of the majority; perfunctory effort or symbolic gesture toward achieving the goal

strategy: manager perception of the importance of individual stakeholders (Mitchell et. Al, 1997) and characteristics of the stakeholders (perception of organisation and interest for specific program; the ability of stakeholders; socio - demographic characteristics) (German, 1997) that will lead to the selection of different involvement strategies. Mitchell et. al (1997) developed a theory of stakeholders identification and involvement that is based on three assumptions: first, in order to achieve certain goals of the organization, managers pay special attention to the particular type of the stakeholder groups, other, stakeholders involvement in certain activities of the organization is dictated by the perception of the same , third, different stakeholder groups can be identified based on their possession of different combinations of three attributes - power, legitimacy and urgency. The empirical test of the model (Angell et. Al., 1999) briefly describes these attributes as follows. Legitimacy is a right that stakeholder the has on the organization, which is based on a contractual or legal obligation as well as the moral interest which stakeholder has on the benefits and harms arising from the activities of the organization. The power represents the capability of the stakeholder to influence the behavior of the organization, regardless of whether he lays legitimate right to the organization. Urgency represents the degree to which stakeholder requirements over the organization require immediate attention from the manager of the organization. Mitchell et. al (1997) developed seven groups of stakeholders, on the basis of having one, two or three attributes in different combinations. Latent stakeholders represent a small importance for managers since they possess only one of the attributes. For example, dormant stakeholders have the power; discretionary stakeholders have legitimacy, while demanding stakeholders have urgency. However, if any of these stakeholders gains access to another of the other attributes, their importance for the managers would rapidly increase. Expectant stakeholders possess two attributes and consequently have a moderate importance for managers. The dominant stakeholders have the power and legitimacy and form a "dominant coalition" in the organization, for example, owners, employees, large creditors, representatives of the community, etc. Dependent stakeholders such as victims of oil spills have the legitimacy and urgency, but lack the power. By gaining access to government agencies and courts this group of stakeholders can gain the power that they primarily missed. Dangerous stakeholders have the urgency and power, but they lack legitimacy. However, given that they are potentially dangerous for the organization they need to be managed carefully. Finally, definitive stakeholders have a high importance for managers considering that they possess all three attributes simultaneously. Organizations should use direct communication or interaction in an open dialogue with its stakeholders (Freeman, 1984; Harrison & St. John, 1996; Polonsky, 1995 taken from Preble, 2005). Therefore, Preble (2005) recommended the use of dialogue and involvement of stakeholders for definitive stakeholders, for strategically important stakeholders where there is a large degree of dependency, for dangerous stakeholders who threaten with direct conflict or sabotage, as well as for stakeholders that the organizations does not fully understand. Also, one of the strategies that are nowadays increasingly used in the management of stakeholders is collaboration or partnership (Harrison & St. John, 1996; Savage et. Al., 1991 taken from Preble, 2005).

Methodology and initial hypothesis of the empirical study

The conceptual model (Figure 1) was developed by adapting Bovaird and Löffler's (2009) categories of public engagement model. The model consists of three categories of participation: communication, consultation and co-production. Each of the listed categories, according to Bovaird and Löffler, is an important element in developing organizational strategies with the aim of building relationships with target stakeholders.

Figure 1. Conceptual framework: Public participation spectrum



The review of the existing literature and numerous examples from experience reveal that involving stakeholders in the activities and operations of non-profit organizations (NPOs) has a positive impact on and is important for the development of sustainable marketing strategies and practices. This reasoning leads to the first research hypothesis which states:

H1: Involving stakeholders in the activities and operations of non-profit organizations, by developing different participation strategies for different groups of stakeholders through communication, consultation and co-production with those groups, has a positive impact on and is important for the development of sustainable marketing strategies and practices of non-profit organizations.

H1a: Stakeholders are committed to and involved in the activities and operations of non-profit organizations through communication, consultation and co-production with the NPOs.

H1b: The commitment and involvement of stakeholders are important for and have a positive impact on the development of sustainable marketing practices and operations of NPOs.

One of the assumptions of this study is that when developing the stakeholder participation strategy, the organizations should be guided by their own perception of the importance of individual stakeholders, as well as by the stakeholders' characteristics, their attitudes towards the organization, their interest in the programs of the organization, as well

as their willingness to participate in the activities of the organization. Therefore, the following research hypothesis is formulated:

H2: The stakeholder participation strategy should be developed bearing in mind the characteristics of the organization's stakeholders.

H2a: An individual will identify more with the non-profit organization depending on his relationship with the organization and a positive perception of it.

H2b: The stronger the individual identifies with the non-profit organization, the greater his willingness to support it is.

H2c: For different groups of stakeholders it is necessary to develop different stakeholder participation strategies.

The defined hypotheses were empirically tested using the example of the Sinj region and the case study of the Sinjska Alka as a domestic phenomenon, a tourist attraction, the identity of the Sinj region with the potential to attract tourists and to promote what Sinj, surrounding areas and Croatia have to offer to tourists. Deliberate (quota) sampling was used to select a representative sample. Interviews were conducted with representatives of the local authorities and the Sinj Tourist Board to find out about their opinions and attitudes about the Sinjska Alka and their role and influence in VAD's operation. VAD representatives were also interviewed to find out about their attitudes and opinions about engaging stakeholder. The questionnaire was *administered* to a sample of 103 respondents in order to find out about the local population's opinions and attitudes about the Sinjska Alka and VAD's performance as well as their interest in participating in this organization's operations.

Research results

The aim of conducting interviews with VAD's representatives was to research whether stakeholders were committed to and involved in VAD's activities and operations, the extent to which this commitment was important for VAD, the intensity of its impact and whether various stakeholders were treated in different ways, i.e. whether they developed different strategies. Although the Sinjska Alka represents the identity of the town of Sinj, it has not been up to this day sufficiently developed in terms of culture and tourism. It can be concluded following the conducted interviews that VAD Sinj does not have a clearly defined strategy for managing stakeholders. Its activities are based primarily on raising funds needed to organize and ensure the continuation of Alka, neglecting the possibility of generating funds by making and selling souvenirs, charging entrance tickets for the Alka ceremony, etc. VAD does not have a clearly defined business strategy or a vision of business, so the organizations and individuals they have a financial relationship with are considered to be the organization's stakeholders, neglecting the role of the Tourist Board and the people who can and should have an impact on the organization's operations. An interview with a representatives of the city government revealed that the co-operation of local authorities with VAD was excellent, but it was nonetheless pointed out that it was not complex. It was pointed out that there were attempts within VAD to abuse Alka for political purposes. A reconstruction within VAD was considered to be necessary, as well as a new model of governance that should aim towards the model of openness, towards a more democratic approach to membership and choice. The representatives of the Sinj Tourist Board pointed out that Alka has a major influence on the tourism and economic development of the city because it represents the identity of Sinj and is one of the main reasons tourists come to Sinj. They pointed out that the Tourist Board was investing great efforts in promoting Alka, and, in this way, developing other tourist offers of the town of Sinj and the Cetina region. Finally, it was concluded that the ideal cooperation between VAD and the Sinj Tourist Board should be based on teamwork and joint efforts to promote Alka. However, despite the poorly defined stakeholders, it is nevertheless clear that VAD is developing commitment and involvement with existing stakeholders, primarily with

the generators of resources needed to sustain Alka. They implement communication strategies to the public as well as to the key sources of financial support. The consultation strategy is used with sponsors and donors, as well as with the Tourist Board, while the co-production strategy is used in cooperation with the local authorities. This finding confirms the hypotheses H1a and H1b and in the end the main hypothesis H1.

In order to study the impact that the population's attitude has on the intensity of involvement in the activities and the holding of the Alka tournament, on the basis of the distribution of responses to the questions / statements on the attitude towards the Sinjska Alka and VAD, the means were calculated that describe the attitude to the Sinjska Alka and VAD for each individual respondent (attitudes to Alka and VAD were defined as a positive or a negative attitude). Having determined the attitude to the Sinjska Alka and VAD for each respondent, the Mann - Whitney U test was conducted to determine the intensity of the impact that the attitude has on the decision to participate in the activities related to organizing and holding Alka.

Figure 2. The nonparametric Mann-Whitney U test for a given sample of respondents: The impact of the attitude towards Alka on the decision to participate in its organization and preservation

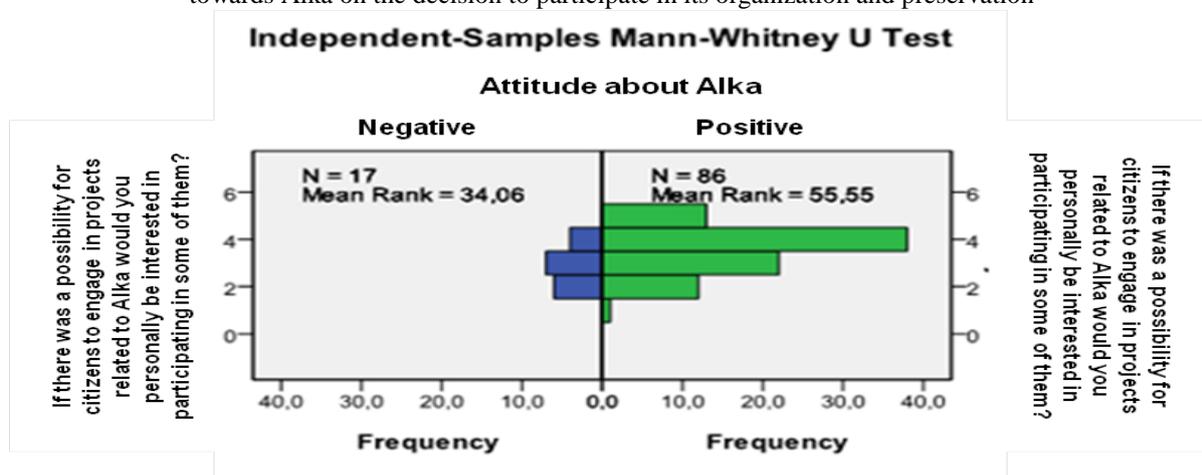
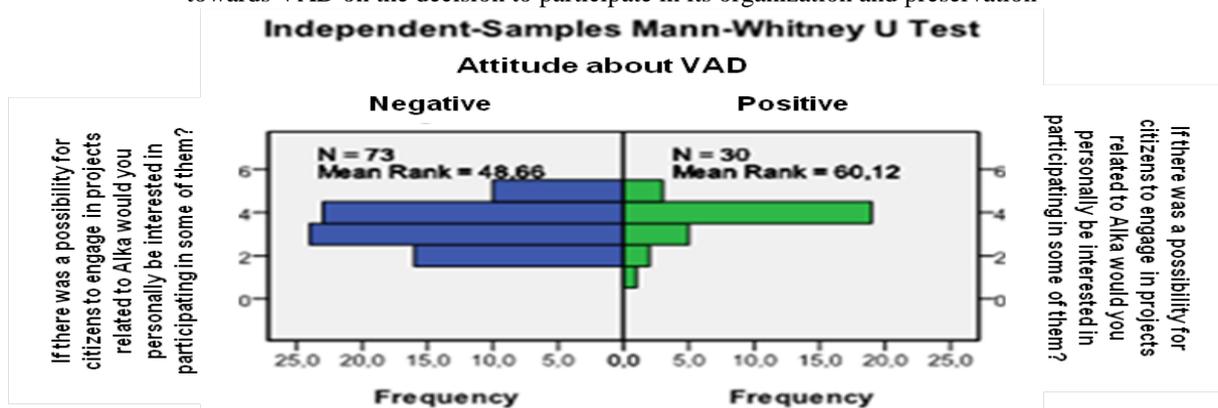


Figure 3. The nonparametric Mann-Whitney U test for a given sample of respondents: The impact of the attitude towards VAD on the decision to participate in its organization and preservation



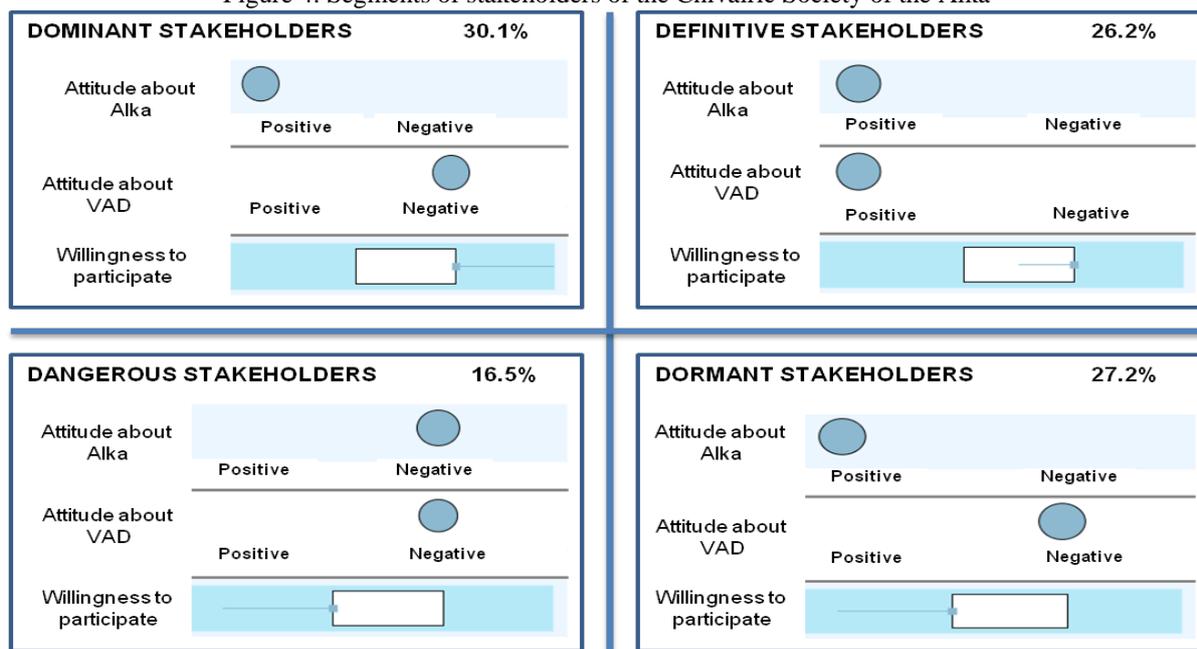
The results in Figure 2 suggest that the attitude towards Alka influences the respondents' decision to participate in activities related to its organization and preservation.

Empirical significance of $\alpha^* = 0.004$ is less than 5% and it can be concluded that there is a statistically significant difference in terms of participating in activities related to holding and organizing Alka in relation to the population's attitude towards it. According to Figure 1 it is evident that the population with a positive attitude towards Alka (Mean rank = 55.55) is more willing to participate in the implementation and preservation in comparison to

inhabitants with a negative attitude towards Alka (Mean rank = 34.06). Given that the empirical significance of $\alpha^* = 0.063$ is greater than 5% it can be concluded that there is no statistically significant difference in participating in activities related to implementing and organizing Alka in relation to the attitude of the population towards VAD Sinj (Figure 3).

Having completed the Mann - Whitney U test, the two step cluster analysis was used to assess whether it was possible to group the respondents in terms of their attitude towards Alka and VAD and of their willingness to participate in activities related to implementing and organizing Alka, for the purpose of developing adequate participation strategies for each group of stakeholders. On the basis of the formed clusters, four segments of stakeholders were defined (Figure 4).

Figure 4. Segments of stakeholders of the Chivalric Society of the Alka



With the aim of developing a profile, i.e. creating a clearer image of each of the segments, cross tabulation was done using the respondents' demographic characteristics and the statements that describe in detail the segment's willingness to participate in the activities of implementing and organizing Alka. We wanted to test, using the chi-square test for nominal variables and the Kruskal Wallis test for ordinal variables, whether there was a statistically significant difference when comparing the given structure of the segment to the demographic characteristics and selected statements by respondents. If the level of significance is above 0.05, then there are no significant differences. In addition to demographic variables, to develop a profile of the segments of stakeholders, six variables were used that expressed the segments' readiness to participate in activities related to implementing and organizing Alka: (1) The importance of preserving the tradition for the local community; (2) The familiarity with projects undertaken by VAD Sinj; (3) The willingness to participate in workshops and lectures to learn more about VAD; (4) The willingness to participate in activities related to the implementing and organizing Alka via organization's activities; (5) The willingness to participate in activities related to implementing and organizing Alka by participating in volunteer activities; (6) The willingness to participate in activities related to implementing and organizing Alka by giving donations. Cross tabulation of these variables was done with the identified segments of stakeholders in order to obtain additional determinants to define segments. This point of reference needs to be monitored in dynamics as it may indicate shifts in the willingness of

individual segments to cooperate and serve as benchmarks for VAD in analyzing the success of the applied business strategy. For example, the importance of preserving tradition is more pronounced in segments that are willing to cooperate (definitive and dominant) compared to the segments that are not ready for the same (hazardous and sleepy). Given that the empirical significance of the conducted Kruskal Wallis test is less than 0.05 (Table 2) it can be argued that the willingness to cooperate in activities related to the implementation and organization of the Alka increases with the importance of preserving the traditions of the local community by individual segments. For other variables in Table 4, the same analogy is applied.

Table 2. Results of Chi-square and Kruskal Wallis tests for selected characteristics of segments

Characteristics	Chi Square χ^2	Empirical significance α^*
Gender	4.634	.201
Age	13.418	.009
Education	13.474	.009
Household income	15.039	.010
The importance of preserving tradition for local community	25.155	.000
Awareness about projects carried out by VAD	19.408	.001
Willingness to participate in workshops or lectures to find out more about VAD	4.924	.295
Willingness to participate through the work of NGO	0.023	.880
Willingness to participate through voluntary activities	2.732	.098
Willingness to participate through donations	0.549	.459

Finally, the conducted segmentation proved the H2c hypothesis which argues that different stakeholder participation strategies need to be developed for different stakeholder groups. The conducted analysis also proved the hypotheses H2a and H2b. It was proved that the stakeholders identified more with the non-profit organization depending on their relationships with it and a positive perception of the NPO. It was also proved that the willingness to support the organization was more pronounced depending on the individual's identification with the organization. This is supported by the fact that the definite and dominant stakeholders are more willing to engage in activities related to Alka as compared to dangerous and lulled stakeholders. Given that all auxiliary hypotheses were accepted, the main H2 hypothesis, which states that organizations need to develop stakeholder participation strategies in line with the characteristics of stakeholders, is accepted.

Conclusion

If VAD wants Alka to become a highly valuable Croatian brand, it must first and foremost address the transparency of its activities; create a favourable reputation and image in the society, and a positive public attitude towards the issues relevant to the activities of this organization. If the branding and development of Alka are lead in the right way, it can play an important role in the development of culture, tourism, sports and economy of city Sinj, region and Croatia. It can be concluded from this research that involving stakeholders in the activities and operations of non-profit organizations has a positive impact and that it is important for the development of sustainable marketing strategies and practices. When developing strategies of stakeholder involvement, NPOs should be guided by certain principles that influence the selection of stakeholder engagement strategy. Precisely defining the organization's stakeholders plays a very important role in selecting the appropriate strategy. An organization should consider all the institutions, organizations and individuals who have a direct impact on the organization's operation to be the stakeholders as well as those directly affected by its operation. Special attention should be paid when defining key stakeholders making sure important stakeholders are not left out. When stakeholder engagement strategies are developed, non-profit organizations should be guided by certain

principles influencing the stakeholder engagement strategy and the characteristics of the stakeholders. It is proved in this paper that individuals will identify more with a non-profit organization, depending on their relationship with it and a positive perception of it. It is also proved that the willingness to participate in the activities of the organization more pronounced in individuals who identified more with the organization.

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A LOCAL GOVERNMENT IN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, SPECIAL CHARACTERISTICS OF THE FORMS AND STRUCTURES

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Abstract

The territorial organization of governing in the “unitary state”, “federal state”, “confederation”, with their constituent units is another aspect of the functioning of governing, which shows the government allocation. The above mentioned types are distinguished by the governing ratio in the territorial integrity of the nation-state, which in the governing system of liberal democracy are known as “central governing” and “local governing” followed by the attributes of “centralization”, “decentralization”, “self-governing” or “local autonomy”. It observes the basic functioning of the system, the creation and realization of the relations between the government and the governed, through which are implemented the basic principles of: - participation in governance; -expression of the will and liking of governing; - fulfilment of tasks of governing according to the interests and aspirations of the governed; - responsibility and accountability of the government. The effectiveness of the government, assessed through the fulfilment of tasks with concrete results related to the fulfilment of the interests of the entire nation and society, is another important aspect in the system of governing.

Keywords: Local governing, regions, municipalities, decentralization, central governing

Introduction

Liberal democracy made more than evident the relation between “central government” and “local government”, “centralization” and “decentralization”, because it was put under the function of its essence, which is expressed in terms of “governing by people” and of “governing for people”.

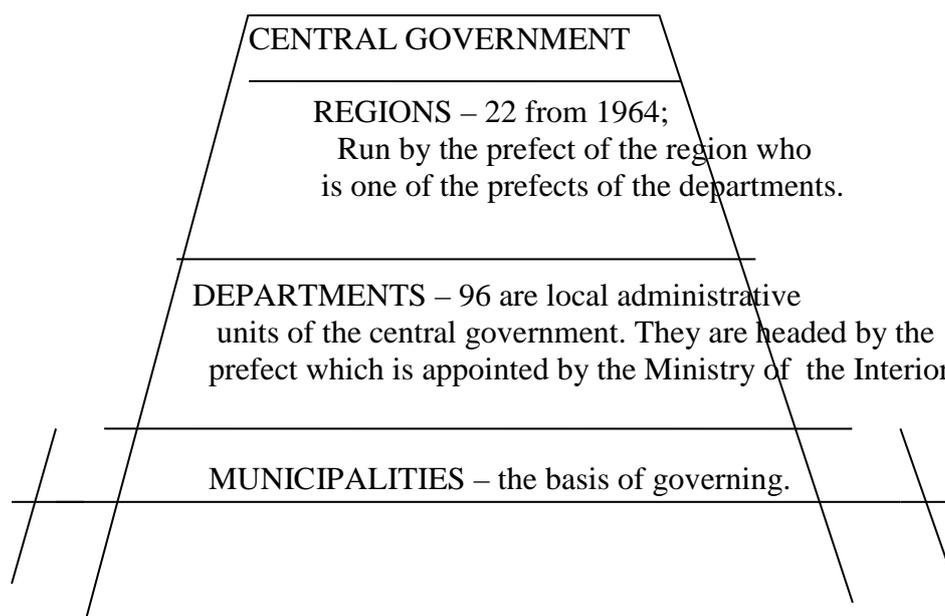
Local governing represents the first election school in the formation of the bodies and institutions that are closer to the governed, that in it carry the greatest and aware interest of the governed.

Local governing is thought to be a realization of the political procedures which contain the direct fulfilment of the needs and wants of the governed. Therefore we are talking about political procedures (such as laws, decrees, decisions, orders) which meet even the direct interests of the governed.

Main Text

What can we say about the general features of the structure of local governing? Almost in every European country (member countries of the European Union until 2005) there are more than one levels of local governing; most of them have two levels, some have three (Gallager, 2011). According to their alignment in the escalation of the central governing levels can be illustrated graphically in the shape of a pyramid. (See the example of France).

The lower unit (the smallest one in size) is the commune or municipality—in terms of communities that appear as the basic authority of the last level.



Also, almost in every European country exists at least one additional or intermediate link (unit) of the local government, which is between the municipality or community on the one side, as a basic unit of governing and the central government on the other side.

They are characterized by the names counties (province), departments. In Denmark there are 14, in Netherlands 12, in Italy around 90 provinces. France has more than 90 departments. Meanwhile there exists another additional level that is of the region which is “on top of central governing”, there are 15 of this category in Italy and 17 in Spain. Among others, regions express the territorial distribution of power based on the definition of “unitary state” or “federal state”. Whilst in Netherlands the authority of this region is very weak, Germany is an exception. Being a “federal state”, the municipal governing system is under the jurisdiction of Lander governments. Under the Landers there are two local governing levels: the kreise which are one level above and the municipalities which are one level below.

The structures of the organization of local governing in the European member states originate from two models that characterize the relationship between central governing and local governing. Those are the Dual model (binary) and the homogeneous model (united) (Cord, 1985).

In the dual model, local governing has the status of free position for to decide on the basis of local conditions regarding organisational structures, and staff. The staffs are organized in a horizontal dimension, connecting one local body with another. The structures of local governing are not considered as part of a single structure of the state. However, sovereignty is embodied by the central government. An example of this model was the governing of Britain, but the model changed during the 1980s and 1990s, when the country was governed by the Conservative Party.

In the homogeneous model, the authority of the central power and local power is united in specific governing structures such as that of the prefecture. It is an organization appointed by the central government, which supervises the administration of specific communities and is responsible to the Ministry of the Interior.

The level of the prefectures is in the vertical extents, part of the unitary hierarchy that starts from the central governing and ends at the local governing. A typical example of this model has been France. For the more, in France, national rank politicians are mayors in their cities. They tend to defend the local interests at the central institutions. The organization of local government has always been part of the changes process. (Van Dyke).

The tendency towards the limitation of the number of units is a general trend. This is intended to avoid weaknesses in the implementation of policies when the levels of the local governing are limited in their scope, have a small number of population and insufficient natural resources and capital.

Thus, for example, in 1952, Sweden had 2500 municipalities, whilst in 1969 their number was limited to 278. The increment of the sizes limited the number of “the free rider”-people who exploit the resources of the municipality but do not pay for them (Gallager, 2011).

In the table below is shown the average population in the lowest levels of the elected local authority (Van Dyke).

Country (1991)	Average Population
England	127.000
Scotland	91.620
Ireland	41.910
Sweden	30.000
Netherlands	17.860
Belgium	16.740
Finland	10.646
Norway	9.145
Germany	7.240
Italy	6.800
Spain	4.700
France	1.500

It has been aimed that the “lowest levels” of local governing be considered as “more important” than the “higher levels” of this governing. This was associated with the increased public functions for which they are responsible.

Relations between levels are not of a too hierarchical nature, in the sense that one level reports to the other level. The tendency of sharing work between the levels of local governing, which is defined in the constitution or in the national legislation, is the one that operates the most. Mid-level bodies are more responsible for strategic planning and coordination, whilst those of lower levels are directly connected with the realization of basic services. The evaluation of each of the levels of local governing is related to the importance of the functions that each of them has and the degree of autonomy that they must meet.

Almost in all developed European countries, local governing structures originated from their historical past, even from pre-modern historical periods. (1815) (Cord, 1985).

The second half of the twentieth century was a turning point for local governing, when the foundations for the modern European local governing system were laid. This was followed by many organizations and reorganizations. Spencer and Wallin are among the most well-known researchers of the European local government in the process of historical development (Chandler, 1993). Spencer notes that for historians it is not exceptional to seek traces of the development of the municipality in an almost ceaseless process which has started in the twelfth century and has continued until nowadays (Gallager, 2011). He also emphasizes that the current system of municipalities in Italy has been put arbitrary by Napoleon Bonaparte (1802) and the general structures of local governing in Italy coincide with the unification of Italy in 1861.

The current system of local governing in Britain has followed the steps of the very old system, which with the major reformations that were made to it after 1835, is based on the low level district administrations and on the high level of county administration. In Ireland, today’s division in counties as a basic unit of the local administration began with the Roman conquest and was completed more or less in the end of the seventeenth century.

Municipalities in France date in the Napoleonic Era. The Swedish local governing was established in 1836 with the creation of the municipalities based for hundreds of years on administrative units. The local government in Germany has historic traditions, the origin of which is in the numerous rights that medieval towns had. This tradition was interrupted by the Third Reich that put the centralized totalitarian system of governing, but immediately after the Second World War was realized the organization of today's municipality – Gemeinde.

Degree of autonomy, content and realization ways

The increment of problems from the perspective of participation in governing through the spaces where imputes initiatives are undertaken, as well as the spaces where outputs are formulated and realized, means special mechanisms of the activities and relations between central governing bodies and local governing bodies. Through such mechanisms it is aimed to realize the governing as a whole, as well as the particularities related to the space of the local governing expressed through “decentralization” and “autonomy” of local governing.

First of all, it is the administrative structural mechanisms of the central government that operate locally. Such mechanisms are:

Agencies (or institutions) of central government that are organized locally and that are directly responsible for the administration of policies before the central bureaucracy. Thus, for example, in Italy, locally, until the reforms of mid 1970s, there operated 70,000 agencies of the central government.

Local Bodies (institutions) that act on behalf of the central government and of the implementation of the outputs of the central administration. It is quite common that the central government mandate the local government to administrate specific policies on its behalf.

The totality of the governing system makes it unavoidable for the above mechanisms of central governing to act alongside those of local governing. This is the reason that for the local governing bodies to operate as governing bodies being closer to the governed and more direct in the fulfilment of the imputes, it is raised the issue of their powers that in the liberal democratic system are summarized in the so-called decentralization with the pre-condition of the autonomy of local governing.

The authors of the study “Representative Government in Modern Europe” wrote that it is vital to determine the area within which the local government's bureaucracy is committed to fully implement the national policy and as many areas in which the local government bodies are free to modify national policies upon their own initiative (Gallager, 2011).

The determination of the local bodies is done in two directions:

The power of the local government to take decisions without being contested from the central authorities.

The degree of independence for the provision of financial support, including the management of the revenue and making expenses. The de facto degree of autonomy of every local government is determined from the opportunities of raising and spending funds independently.

Conclusion

The decentralization in the European countries is realized through an uninterrupted process of continuity. It was conditioned by a number of factors:

The historical process of formation of nation states and of the institutionalization of governing bodies of liberal democracy;

The nature of the political culture of the elite and of the mass of population.

The undertaking of constitutional changes from certain political forces.

The need of optimizing governing in accordance with the influence of the new factors of the computing revolution, integration and globalization.

Constitutions have been crucial for the functioning of local bodies.

Constitutions mandate different forms of self-governing. In the constitutional document :The Instrument of Government” of Sweden is sanctioned that “the Swedish democracy is based on the freedom of thought, in the general and equal elections and that it is realized through the representative and parliamentary bodies, as well as through self-governing (Cord, 1985).

Other constitutions define the “general powers” that local authorities should have. General Powers” are connected to the local governing authorities in order to make regulations in any issue related to the territory of the exercise of this governing. These regulations are made in accordance with the national law. Basic Law (the Constitution) of the German Federal Republic for example guarantees to the gemeinde “the right to regulate, under its responsibility and within the limits of law, the entire issues of the local community (Cord, 1985).

Such expressions are part of European doctrine of subsidization—the essence of which is the idea that issues must be handled as much as possible at local levels. Such a doctrine is specifically supported by Christian democracy.

However the policies of the European unitary states are present in the tendencies of centralizing the central government, without clearly defining the powers of local authorities.

This allowed national governments to be more involved in local governing. On the contrary, the organization of the constitution of federal states made it difficult, if not impossible for the “the government of the day” to make changes.

Very good examples of the derogatory treatment of the local governing system by the national government, with the aim of politicizing the local government bodies, are found in Britain, Ireland (Gallagher, 2011).

Britain is known for the local government authority. This happened because the British, for ages have highly valued local autonomy and the values that they had regarding their autonomy are part of the political culture.

All the counties and boroughs (cities) were entitled to the right to elect councils with permanent committees for each field of administration. Their powers included the control of police, education, health, welfare issues, housing, and transport. It had been very difficult for the Parliament to ignore local officials. Usually it has intervened in cases of emergency situations.⁵⁴

However, Britain is also recognized for the efforts of the party governments for the politicization of local governing in terms of policy from “government of the day”, especially for to take the functions of local authorities.

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GENDER AND DEMOCRATIZATION

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Abstract

After World War II, democratization came into fashion as panacea for countries in transition. This trend continues to be an issue in the 21st century too. The implications of the transformation for public as well as private life are considerably different for women than for men. Studies have shown that even in democratic states gender inequality has been reinforced than effectively attenuated. Feminist theories take up the issue of female discrimination on a theoretical level and provide explanations and measures in order to erase these inequalities. Gender mainstreaming is an approach to address gender inequalities in practice. The European Union, as a community of values, promotes gender mainstreaming not only among its member states, but also for its candidate states in the context of external democracy promotion. This paper examines the current gender initiatives in Serbia which is currently an EU candidate country. In fact, there are many gender activities from different civil society actors and NGOs around Serbia. The positivist feminist theories are more apt to explain the current gender activities. The post-structuralist theories mainly deal with micro situations. Therefore, it is difficult to apply these perspectives in a study on the overall gender situation in a specific country. By contrast, these theories could be applied for studying micro situations within a particular country. Accordingly, the theory has implications on the research design for such a study. A study based on post-structuralist theory would be based on ethnography rather than statistical data and a literature review.

Keywords: Gender, democratization, gender mainstream

Introduction

«The veil of ignorance removes any basis for the distinction» (Rawls, 1971, p. 166)

Politics is about power and dealing with scarce resources in the public. It has an impact on structuring and organizing society. Political phenomena are particularly prone for gender-related discussions because the process, output and outcome of politics affect the role of women and men within society. Accordingly, any political issue has at the same time a gendered dimension.

The EU as an external actor plays a central role in the transformation processes of countries in its neighbourhood. As the EU is a community of values its aim is to promote democracy, rule of law, liberal market systems etc. In addition, the EU has declared a gender mainstreaming strategy not only for its member states but also for candidate states.

Accordingly, in this paper I reflect on gender and democratization. The key question of this paper is: How is gender integrated in the democratization process in the context of the EU enlargement? And which feminist theories can explain the current endeavours?

This paper proceeds in the following steps: In the first part there is a brief overview on the theoretical aspects on gender. In the problem outline there is a discussion on the overall problematic of gender, which consists mainly of the discrimination of women within society.

In addition, there is a brief overview on the main strands within the feminist theories because they address these inequalities.

The second part is devoted to gender and democratization. This part starts off with some thoughts on international organizations, external democratization and the EU strategy on gender promotion. This overview should allow reflecting about the impact and challenges of gender on democratization. For a practical analysis, there is a case study on the situation in Serbia.

The final section provides an analysis on the external democracy promotion activities in the field of gender. This analysis is supplemented by a critical reflection on the applicability of the feminist theories discussed in part two of the paper.

Theoretical Aspects on Gender

In this chapter we briefly look at some definitions of the term gender. This overview should provide a working definition for further elaborating the issue on gender and democratization. Afterwards there is an outline of the current problems regarding gender. This is followed by the main theories on gender.

Definition of gender

Before looking at gender in more detail it is important to think about the definition of this term that is mainly 'mushrooming' since the late 1970s; even though, within linguistics, the grammatical gender as a concept exists much longer. In the very beginning of gender studies within social sciences and humanities, the term used to be a static one describing static properties such as identity, social status, what is learned via socialization, a system of stratification, etc. (Martin, 2003, p. 342). One of the great contributions of gender scholars in the last decade is the re-framing of gender from a static, unchangeable concept to a dynamic accomplishment. Nowadays, gender is understood as a dynamic process which everyone is 'doing'. Gender is a cross-cutting issue, because it occurs in each and every aspect of life such as families, workplaces, sports, military, religion, politics, etc. (Jeanes, Knight & Martin, 2011, p. xv). Further more, one could also argue that gender is a cross-border issue neglecting artificially drawn borders such as state borders, and therefore, can be described as 'transareal' (c.f. Ette, 2008).

In order to differentiate sex and gender analytically, West and Zimmermann (1987) provide a helpful categorization: They distinguish between sex, sex category and gender. Sex is defined through socially agreed biological criteria for classifying persons as females or males. Sex category is based on the application of the sex criteria, in this case, sex and sex category of one person can vary independently. On the contrary, gender is the activity of managing situated conduct due to normative conceptions of attitudes and activities for one's sex category (p. 127). In fact, «any activity ... is to engage in behavior at the risk of gender assessment» (ibid., p. 136). In their view, gender is far more a social construction and the product of social interactions than inherent in a person.

The dynamic characteristic of the notion gender is exemplified as follows: «'gender' is a social product that changes through the use that a society makes of it and the knowledge that it produces» (Gherardi, 2003, p. 212). Practising gender is also defined as «actions reflecting or constituting society's gender institution by invoking norms, stereotypes, empirical associations, meanings and/or interpretations ... that are culturally or socially associated with gender» (Martin, 2009, cit. in Jeanes, Knight, & Martin, 2011, p. xv-xvi).

Problem outline

Why is gender an issue? Despite far ranging social movements fighting for women's rights, there are still social inequalities between women and men in organizational contexts.

These inequalities occur in nearly every aspect of life. Thus, gender is a cross-cutting theme. This chapter highlights in a compact manner specific inequalities related to gender. It

starts with a historic overview. This is followed by contemporary discussions and initiatives for reducing gender inequality.

Social inequalities are not a new phenomenon. Even in ancient Greece, there was a distinct structure between men, women, metics and slaves which defined their social roles as well as their rights (Schmidt M., 2010, p. 28). Today's social structure is mainly influenced by the transition from agrarian to industrial modes of production that created the separation of workplace and home. The 'industrial turn' created a new variety of jobs outside the traditional oikos. Women and men occupied different jobs within different industries. This sex-based pattern of employment still persists today (Calas & Smircich, 2006, p. 304).

In the context of social movements in the aftermath of WWII, social differences have become the focal point for many activists. At the same time, modernization has had an impact on gender relations. For example, career opportunities have mainly improved for well-educated white women while at the same time, men have lost some privileges on the labour market.

Furthermore, legal basis have been implemented in order to improve women's position within society. Despite all these advancements, gender relations are characterized through socio-economic disproportions. For example, women have barely the same access to the production of power knowledge, socially relevant power positions, money and market, as well as jobs and professions. In a nutshell: women are rejected from an equal participation on economic and political power (Tomic, 2011, p. 17).

These inequalities are not static. In contrast, they are produced and reproduced over and over again. For example, when firms hire part-time workers, they tend to be more likely women. In general, part-time jobs are at the lower end of organization's hierarchies (Calas & Smircich, 2006, p. 306). At the same time, part-time jobs are the first to be eliminated in an economic recession which leads overall to a far higher unemployment rate among women (Leon, Diaz & Millns, 2003, p. 20).

The neo-liberal trend which favours a power shift from the state to the economy leads to further aggravation of the economic distribution and social inequalities. The neo-liberal principle is based on value creation through boosting the economy. This means that mainly the private sector should expand and create more jobs (i.e. paid work). This endeavour is nearly on the top of the political agenda, whereas (unpaid) education and housework do not count as an issue of the res publica (Tomic, 2011, p. 18-19). The working environment –as part of the liberal and political system– is assumed to be gender neutral, where all individuals have the same rights and access to positions. The central aim of this idea is the functioning of the meritocratic system where everyone, regardless of his/her gender, race, religion, etc. has equal opportunities (Calas & Smircich, 2006, p. 291). This idea is theoretically sound, however it fails in practice.

There are numerous obstacles for women effectively participating in politics and power positions in the working world. For example, financial impediments, lack of access to information, mobility and public safety, coercion, intimidation and violence. These aspects are only part of the reason why in fact less than 10% of the countries worldwide have a female head of state and fewer than 30 countries account for more than 30% women in parliament (Tommasoli, 2011).

In fact, the problem of inequality in pay, work and family due to gender are more marked in countries where democracy and capitalism reign supreme than in other regions. In general, the industrial world accounts for being a role model for developing countries in many regards, it wants to set an example for global development. However, the western system has not been able to eliminate gender inequality nor poverty at all. In contrary, it has even been fertile ground for further disparity between men and women (Calas & Smircich, 2006, p. 286).

To summarize: The issue on inequalities arising from gender are fairly well recognized and can be determined. These issues are even problematized and there are initiatives for changing the social order, particularly on the legal basis. However, a fundamental transformation of the society has so far not been recognisable. It is even acknowledged that western –in the sense of developed– societies produce far reaching inequalities despite the public awareness of the issue and the activities to fight disparities.

Theories on gender

After having discussed the social implications of gender on a practical level, we now turn to the theoretical studies on gender. The main aim of gender studies is to analyze cause and effect of social differences resulting from gender and to develop theories to explain them.

Furthermore it is about confronting the nature and consequences of gendered embodiment, exploring what it means to be a woman or man in terms of the material conditions of existence, and hence, raising the question of how a gendered world affects the nature of knowledge production (Calas & Smircich, 2009, p. 246). The forerunner of gender studies are feminist theories. Feminist theories focus rather on the suppressed femininity whereas gender studies deal far more with the social construction of gender (Schössler, 2008, pp. 9-10). We will now give a brief overview (without requirement on completeness) on the main strands within feminism (Calas & Smircich, 2006; Gherardi, 2003):

Positivist theories

The liberal feminist theory follows the political development from the 18th and 19th century. Their main claim was equalisation in all spheres of life. Generally speaking, the social and political system was accepted, however, their aim was to achieve equal representation, fight sex discrimination and to deny sex differences. In this strand, gender differences can be corrected through human development, and or structural/legal interventions.

In contrast, the radical feminist theory criticises the prevalent social system fundamentally. It regards the social system as primarily a patriarchal society that constantly puts women in a subordinate position. Organizations are designed according to a patriarchal order maintaining gender segregation and discrimination in the public domain while sexual oppression occurs in the private sphere of life (i.e. household). They claim for a women-centred reconstruction of society, a matrarchy at best.

Psychoanalytic feminist theory follows Sigmund Freud's theories. It denies the biological determinism and considers gender inequality to be the product from early childhood. It is mainly the patriarchal family which defines the role of men and women within society. This leads to male domination. In this regard, psychosexual developments lead to different ways of knowledge. For example, there are different concepts on morality between women and men. It is argued that the articulation of both the feminine and masculine values would create a more balanced, androgynous organizational culture.

According to Karl Marx' historical materialism, marxist feminist theory regards gender as structural, historical and material at the same time. In analogy to the structuring of society by social classes, gender subordinates women to men. This theory analyzes how identities are created in social activities such as work. It particularly focuses on inequality, power, patriarchy and capitalism. From this point of view, men as a social group dominate as well as control women as a group. Subsequently, gender inequality persists unless structural changes are implemented through class struggle.

The socialist feminist theory turns away from the pure male-female cleavage and takes into account differences among women such as race, ideology, etc. One example is the oppression of black women by white women in the United States before the uprising of the

Civil Rights Movement in the 1960s/1970s. The main achievement of this theory is to gain deeper awareness about the various lines of differentiation. Symbols, images and ideologies are forms of gendering and racializing of organizations. They legitimize gender inequalities and differences. The 'good society' according to socialist feminist theory has stripped away all systems of private and public oppression based on sex, gender, race, class, etc. and hence leads to a transformation of the social relations.

Post-structuralist theories

The term 'linguistic turn' marks the move from positivist to post-structuralist/postmodern theories within feminism (Poggio, 2006, p. 231). This reflects the overall move in the humanities and social sciences where language is considered to be a system of signification and not representation. Language no longer plays a mirror function for interpersonal cognitive processes. Human activity is not only embedded in social and cultural contexts, but also formed and performed through language (Steyaert, 2007, p. 462). It is mainly through language that researchers constitute their object of investigation. This perspective allows for a distinctive feminist politics of knowledge. From this point of view, the possibility of universal and generalizable knowledge based on fix and stable language was called into question. The 'good society' requires the continuous deconstruction and denaturalization of discourses constituting specific subjectivities through power, resistance and the materiality of human bodies.

The concept of gender becomes particularly vague if one considers for example First World women and Third World women. This perspective represents the Third World/Post-colonial feminist theory. There is an epistemological critique on Western feminists because they have a tendency of universalizing women's issue even though they focus mainly on white female in Western and industrialized societies. Furthermore, there is a postcolonial critique on Western epistemologies. For example, transnational corporations/organizations are primary actors in the perpetuation of race/gender/sex relations in modernities. This theory deconstructs modernization activities such as development and multinational corporations. In addition, it takes also into account that there exist different reactions to the dominant cultures; there is a 'beyond'. This phenomenon is aptly subsumed by the term 'hybridization' of Homi Bhabha (1988).

Summing up: feminism can be regarded as a discourse on gender. This brief overview shows that there exist various perspectives within feminism and it reveals crucial patterns. It is the feminists aim to locate the constitution of gender. The liberal, radical and psychoanalytic strand consider the body as constitutive for gender. In the Marxist, socialist and post-colonial theory it is culture and social relations that constitute gender. And in the post-structuralist's point of view it is through language that gender is constructed (Gherardi, 2003, p. 218).

These theoretical perspectives are important because they build the basis for approaching the issue of gender. Any gender practice is at the same time normatively motivated. The presented overview on the different strands of theories helps to locate the practices within the theoretical framework. Scrutinizing practical approaches can also help to testify the theories.

Gender and Democratization

«Gender equality must be treated as an explicit goal of democracy building, not as an add-on» (Ban Ki-Moon, cit. in Tommasoli, 2011).

International organizations and gender

«Much of today's social, cultural, political, and economic life is transacted in organizations» (Perrow, 1991, p. 725). Accordingly, in order to (partly) understand the world we live in, we must analyse the organizations and how they work in producing the world. The meaning of the term 'organization' is twofold: it is not only a thing in itself but also a process (Jeanes, Knight & Martin, 2011, p. xxiv). Our lives are shaped by organizations at multiple levels. In fact, all these organizations are gendered. They have internal gender regimes, function in a wider context of gender relations, and moreover, produce gender effects.

Organizations range from profit oriented transnational corporations (e.g. Coca Cola, IBM, Tata, etc.) to non-profit international organizations (IO) or non-governmental organizations (NGO). It is argued that analysis on gender focuses mainly on transnational corporations, though; the international organizations often escape the gendered lens (Connell, 2008, p. 238).

International organizations are of particular interest for an analysis on gender, because, as associations of countries, they act on a supra-state-level, shape norms and produce policies that constrain and form markets, define peace and security, and proclaim universal values of human rights, for example. In fact, almost every area of life is being monitored and/or regulated by one or another IO. These organizations shape the discussion on gender in many ways. Primarily, they have a unique position because they cajole governments and organizations to integrate the issue of gender in their operations and policies (Woodward, 2011, p. 355). Secondly, they act as role models and in some regard, are considered as better states. International organizations open up opportunities which are beyond the capacity of a state (Abbott & Snidal, 1998, p. 3; Putnam, 1988).

However, the role of IOs is ambiguous too. On the one hand, they are a target for protest against injustice, violence, and inequalities and for policy demands. On the other hand, they can be tools that work oppressively towards states or they may provide access for issues that are suppressed on the national political agenda. Furthermore, apart from rule setting, IOs have also an internal dimension where they are required to live up to their standards they set for others. Empirical studies have shown that progress on gender-friendly workplaces is very slow, even within these organizations. Accordingly, there is a dual challenge to reform internally while at the same time promoting gender externally on a global level (Woodward, 2011, pp. 356, 369).

We acknowledge that the dual challenge of international organizations is interdependent. However, in order to focus on democratization, we limit our further investigations on the external dimension of international organizations. In this regard, we concentrate on how IOs integrate gender-related issues in the context of external democracy promotion at the example of the European Union.

External Democracy Promotion

External democracy promotion is a phenomenon of the 20th century. It started with the coercive transformation of the loser states after WWII such as Germany, Italy and Japan through the allies. In its core, external democratization is about influencing and reconstructing the domestic political process of a particular country according to democratic principles (Ratiu C. E., 2011b, p. 1). Since the end of WWII, the form of external democracy promotion has undergone major changes. In the beginning, democracy was imposed by the allies, nowadays, external actors support states in transformation with technical assistance or financial aid. External actors can either be nation states (e.g. the United States) or international organizations (e.g. European Union, EU; Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development, OECD; etc.). For example, the EU applies the instrument of conditionality for external democracy promotion. This instrument is characterized by the use

of ex ante defined conditions attached to material/financial aid or a membership perspective in order to force a particular country to implement these (Schmitter, 2001, p. 30). Accordingly, the transformation takes place within a particular state, however, the whole process is supported (materially, financially, etc.) by an external actor. This is also considered to be soft power in contrast to hard power such as the military intervention in Iraq, for example.

The approach of the European Union to promote democracy is unique: it combines democratization with enlargement. The history of the EU has shown that peace, prosperity and stability can be achieved through economic and political integration (Smolnik, 2008, p. 15). The European idea started with six states and evolved to a supranational union of 27 member states, each with a democratic constitution. Since the mid 1990s, the union considers particularly the Balkans as a pool of future member states, despite their turbulent past. The next state joining the EU club will be Croatia in July 2013 (Fuster, 2011, June 24, p. 29). Yet it is unclear when the other states of the Western Balkans will join the EU. It is assumed that Serbia will join the Union as next state after Croatia, however the date of accession is not yet defined. In order to become a member country, a state has to give proof of having established democratic principles and institutions (Wunsch & Rappold, 2010, p. 2).

In comparison to other external democracy promoters, the EU is furthermore characterized as a community of values («Wertegemeinschaft») such as democracy, human rights, rule of law and good governance, etc. These values have been established as a reference for internal as well as external affairs (Knodt & Jünemann, 2007, p. 12).

Furthermore, the EU, since its beginning, is a strong promoter of gender equality in member states and candidate countries. The EU supports gender equality as a fundamental value and demands that its member states embrace it.

Despite this strong commitment to the promotion of gender equality, the successful EU accession of a candidate state can lead to considerable disadvantages for women. Yet, political and economic changes are re-shaping the employment patterns intended to foster economic growth which address mainly full-time male workers and lead to deprivations for women (Gracia-Ramon & Monk, 1996; Roth, 2008, p. 1-2). Furthermore, from a value point of view, it is argued that enlargement leads also to new challenges because it draws together different gender regimes with contrasting histories and trajectories (Pascall & Lewis, 2004, p. 373).

After having looked at external democracy promotion and the role of the EU, we will now shed light on the overall EU strategy on gender promotion as well as specific activities with a particular focus on candidate states.

The EU strategy on gender promotion

As every social change takes place within a time-space-continuum, we are not in an ideal and original situation behind the veil of ignorance proposed by John Rawls. Therefore we need to look at what has been done so far in regard to gender promotion in order to understand the current endeavours.

The first legislation concerning gender equality was rather a side effect of the European Economic Community (EEC) than an intention and it was initially limited to equal pay. Among the EU member countries, it was France that had an equal pay provision for its people, the country was concerned that this could lead to comparative disadvantage among the founding states of the European Community (EC). Accordingly, France demanded the inclusion of such a provision. It was article 119 of the Treaty of Rome (1957), guaranteeing equal salaries for equal work. This article provided a starting point for further sex equality campaigns. Interestingly, the EU provided an attractive venue for women's interests which was more open than many national legislations. Since, EU policies on women's rights

became far-reaching, eventually addressing the reconciliation of employment with family life and until recently, gender mainstreaming (Roth, 2008, pp. 2-3).

Generally speaking, gender mainstreaming as a strategy was launched after the Fourth World Conference on Women in Beijing in 1995. It has been defined as «the (re)organisation, improvement, development and evaluation of policy processes, so that a gender equality perspective is incorporated in all policies at all levels and at all stages, by the actors normally involved in policy-making» (Hafner-Burton & Pollack, 2009, p. 116). Governments and other actors are asked to promote an active policy of mainstreaming a gender perspective in all policies and programmes. Most IGOs developed their own programme for gender mainstreaming in the aftermath (Woodward, 2011, p. 367).

The EU was among the forerunners of implementing a gender mainstreaming approach. It is designed to transform the policy processes. In fact, the EU attempts to do this horizontally using persuasion and socialization (Börzel & Risse, 2000). In general, a gender-mainstreaming initiative should result in the diffusion of gender-informed processes and policy outputs to all units of an international organization. Furthermore, it should produce an eventual impact on women and men in their daily lives. Generally speaking, a gender-mainstreaming mandate should lead to developments of a political system at three different levels: processes, outputs, and outcomes. In fact, external democracy promotion is aimed at bringing about change in exactly the same aspects of a political system. This fact underpins the argument that gender and democratization are interdependent processes which cannot be tackled sequentially but must be addressed simultaneously. However, despite initial euphoria, the implementation of a gender perspective is far more complex and its results ambiguous (Hafner-Burton & Pollack, 2009, p. 114).

Introducing change rarely goes smoothly. Most difficulties arising with gender mainstreaming are due to an incorrect understanding of the concept. It is very often understood as a project replacing specific policies through gender equality policies. In contrast, gender mainstreaming goes much further, it requires not only equality *de jure* its goal is equality as a positive right, i.e. equality *de facto*. Therefore, it must be promoted by positive actions aiming at changing the understanding of gender mainstreaming. A further problem in implementing gender mainstreaming is related to the fact that gender is indeed a very fashionable aspect and therefore quickly put on the political agenda by the government to ensure re-election. However, in practice, gender mainstreaming is very often reduced to pure lip service. Implementing gender mainstreaming requires further financial as well as human resources not only to redress the existing imbalances, but also to tackle the reasons for these imbalances (Council of Europe, 2008, pp. 13-14). In addition, the implementation of gender mainstreaming depends on the wider political situation within a particular country. If there are strong proponents –within civil society as well as in the legislature– the implementation is more likely than if the gender issue is only advocated by a minority and opposed by a strong opposition (Avdeyeva, 2009, p. 170).

The limited success of gender mainstreaming in the EU is also asserted to the EU's soft power approach. Some authors argue that gender mainstreaming must be implemented by a carrot and sticks policy in order to create hard incentives for decision makers to fully implement the new policies (Hafner-Burton & Pollack, 2009, p. 130; Sephar, 2011).

Introducing gender mainstreaming is a far reaching as well as long-term project with many obstacles, not only for member states but also for candidate states in the EU accession process. In the next paragraph we shed light on Serbia in order to analyze the implementation of gender mainstreaming in a candidate country which is at the same time a country in transformation towards democracy.

Case study: gender initiatives in Serbia

Status quo of the situation of women in Serbia

In order to understand the situation of women in Serbia today it is necessary to look briefly at the recent history of this country. In socialist times, equality was the dominant ideology, which amongst other forms included gender equality. Despite the official ideology, patriarchal patterns were being reproduced (Babovic, 2008, p. 13). A key event for the Western Balkans was the death of the former ruler Josip Broz Tito of the Socialist Federal Republic of Yugoslavia (SFRY). This event led to further ethnic tensions within this multi-ethnic state. In Serbia, it was Slobodan Milosevic who gained power. It was his idea of a «Greater Serbia» in which all Serbs (ethnically homogenous) would live together. These territorial demands led to violent conflicts with its neighbouring countries such as Croatia (1991-1992), Bosnia-Herzegovina (1992-1995) and Kosovo (1999). Moreover, these acts of war were accompanied by an increased militarization of society. Men were considered to be the heroic defenders of the fatherland, whereas the feminine gender became the self-sacrificing mothers of the nation («aufopferungsvolle Mütter der Nation»). Their duty was primarily to guarantee reproduction as «reproductive vehicles» in order to ensure the biological and cultural existence of the Serbian people. This social move went side by side with the edging out of women from public life. The private sphere was women's destiny. The whole process is described as return to tradition («Retraditionalisierung») of the gender roles (Friedrich, 2010, pp. 33-34).

The year 2000 marks a turning point in Serbia, since then, reform endeavours have been oriented towards establishing gender equality within society. Despite these efforts, the social position of women is still unfavourable in many respects. For example, political participation of women is still markedly low. Though, after national parliamentary elections in 2008 for the National Assembly of the Republic of Serbia, women increased their share of seats reamarkably from 11% to 22% (Stojanovic & Quesada, 2010, p. 40). Despite this trend in recent years, women's mandates stagnate after the 2012 election (European Forum for Democracy and Solidarity, 2012)

Interestingly, women's position on the labour market has markedly deteriorated since the collapse of the socialist system. Women's participation on the labour market was between 60-80%. Nowadays, women's share on the labour market is about 44% compared to a men's share of 63%. Unemployment rates used to be significantly higher among women than men (24% versus 16%), however, they have been equalized in recent years. In contrast, women's overall educational situation is improving. For example, there are significantly more women in higher education than men, however, there is still a patriarchal pattern of male and female professions. Women are the dominant group in education, social sciences and arts, and a minority in science. In the private sphere, women's position is characterized by a patriarchal division of roles. This leads to an unequal division of housework in which women share the larger burden of unpaid housework, and in addition, have limited access to financial resources (Babovic, 2008, pp. 14-15).

According to the European Commission, the most discriminated in Serbia are disabled women, single mothers, older women, particularly those living in rural areas. It is assumed that domestic violence is a problem too, even if there is a lack of consistent data (European Commission, 2010, p. 14).

Main activities

Serbia's multiple and complex gender activities have been closely linked to anti-war and reconciliation efforts since the 1990s. Social movements have extended their activities and gained profound expertise in a growing number of specific gender-related issues. For example, approximately 35 women's groups were involved in a process sponsored by the United Nations Development Fund for Women (UN Women) to develop a National Plan of Action for the empowerment of women and the strengthening of gender equality. This collaboration is considered to be a valuable precondition for the development of a long-term

partnership between the state and its civil society (United Nations Development Program (UNDP), 2008, pp. 50-51).

During the same period, the legal body on aspects of the social position of women has increased. On an international level, Serbia has signed the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women in March 2001 and has taken steps to achieve the Convention's objectives (Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), 2012).

A key event on the domestic level marks the passing of the Anti-Discrimination Law that is part of pro-Western reforms. The law bans any kind of discrimination on race, religion, sexual orientation, gender, etc. The passing of this law was crucial in the context of aligning the national legal body with European Union policies («Serbian lawmakers pass anti-discrimination law», 2006). However, it needs to be critically stated that equality under the law does not compellingly mean that there is guarantee for equality in other social arenas (West & Zimmermann, 1987, p. 146).

Despite this progress in the legal body, reforms of the legal framework that are relevant for the position of women within society are uneven and occasionally uncoordinated or even contradictory. Generally speaking, there is a trend to improve the position of women *de jure* in various aspects of life. However, the introduction of new laws is hardly ever accompanied by efficient implementation mechanisms or are monitored in an apt manner.

Cases of discrimination are only just recorded by the relevant ministries or inspections. The Statistical Office of the Republic of Serbia, the National Employment Service, the Serbian Business Registers Agency as well as some other institutions have only recently adapted their records to the needs of monitoring gender equality (Babovic, 2008, pp. 15-16).

The most important institutions aimed at improving the position of women are the following (Babovic, 2008; Stojanovic & Quesada, 2010):

The Gender Equality Council of the Republic of Serbia;

The Committee for Gender Equality of the National Assembly of the Republic of Serbia;

The Ombudsman of the Republic of Serbia/Protector of citizens rights;

The Provincial Secretariat for Labour, Employment and Gender Equality of Vojvodina;

The Committee for Gender Equality of the Assembly of the Autonomous Province (AP) of Vojvodina;

The Provincial Gender Equality Institute;

The Provincial Ombudsman;

Local commissions for gender equality.

The existence of institution mechanisms reflects an endeavour of creating specific organizational bodies in the state at various levels of administration (from local to national, including the autonomous province of Vojvodina) whose task is to create, promote, advocate, implement and even supervise gender equality in all areas of life.

Apart from the physical institutions, i.e. organizational structures, gender equality has also found its way to the most important documents on the national strategy. One of these documents is 'The National Strategy for Improving the Position of Women and Enhancing Gender Equality for 2009-2015'. This document identifies six areas of critical importance: improving of the economic position, health, representation in public life, equality in education, suppression of violence against women and elimination of gender stereotypes in media (European Commission, 2011a). In contrast to this strategic document, there are previously adopted state strategies (Poverty Reduction Strategy, National Employment

Strategy, etc.) envisaging specific measures for improving the various aspects of women's position in Serbian society. Most importantly, these strategies include monitoring indicators (Babovic, 2008, pp. 17-18). Regular reportings help to publish the results of the activities and to make specific recommendations (Hafner-Burton & Pollack, 2009, p. 130).

As mentioned above, it is of utmost importance for a sustainable implementation of a gender strategy that it is based on strategic, legal, institutional and practical endeavours. Besides, it is also important to initiate a public debate on gender issues in order to create broader public awareness that goes beyond a bureaucratic project.

Conclusion

A research project devoted to democratization compellingly has to consider gender as an issue. Why? Democratization is a project of transforming political structures, processes, policies and values in order to enhance civic participation and increase transparency.

However, this transformation has far reaching impact on the whole of society. As we understand gender not as a static concept, but rather as a process with a cross-cutting dimension, any social change within society touches one or the other gender-related aspect.

Gender as an object of investigation is not a purely innerstate (domestic) issue, it has a transareal dimension. In this regard, international organizations have become a new locus for gender debates. These organizations play an important role insofar as they provide a supra-state level of value creation and promotion. Most IOs have strong commitment to democracy, human rights, rule of law, good governance and gender equality. Within the discipline of International Relations, there is a great debate on how these values are propagated, for example, through diffusion or active promotion, or even coercion. The practice of external democracy promotion has shown that democracy needs to be promoted through various instruments, particularly in countries with a conflicting past. There is evidence that success of external democracy promotion is positively correlated with incentives. This finding accounts for the promotion of gender equality too.

The EU plays a crucial role among the external promoters of democracy. For some countries, the Union not only propagates democracy, it offers at the same time a membership perspective. However, the entry barriers are considerable. The candidate country has to give proof of having implemented the ex ante defined conditions. Among others, these include the implementation of gender mainstreaming too. The candidate states not only have to transform their political system, but at the same time, they have to implement reforms concerning the social order. Frequently, this leads to a clash of values between external conditions and domestically predominant values. The outcome of such a transformation can best be described as hybrid.

From a feminist's perspective, the transformation to democracy has to be scrutinized very carefully. In Western media, democracy is very often treated as panacea for any failing state or state in transition. However, this paper has shown that the effectuation of a liberal domestic state order leads to new inequalities between men and women. These inequalities need to be addressed on different levels parallel or in accordance to the whole process of democratization. It starts with the political priorities on the policy agenda. It is followed by a sound legal basis with non-discriminatory laws and the adequate resources in order to influence the policy outcome. In addition, this process needs to be accompanied by a strong civil society advocating gender-related issues. The example of Serbia has shown, that this process is currently ongoing. The case study has exemplified that the implementation of gender mainstreaming is a lengthy process and always subject to the inner-state political climate. The more politicians are in favour of reforming their state, especially in the context of EU accession, the more will they promote externally defined values. Moreover, the example of Serbia shows that there are toeholds for different gender-related initiatives. The

result is not yet satisfactory, however, this keeps the debate and reflection on gender equality running.

After having discussed the practical aspects of gender and democratization we now turn to the theoretical discussion. Having in mind the different strands of feminist theory, one has to acknowledge that there is no single theory that can simply explain the phenomenon of gender and democratization. However, the current mainstreaming activities follow mainly the normative impetus of correcting gender inequalities and opening up opportunities for the discriminated. Looking at the theories in more detail, the above described gender initiatives in the context of democratization have similarities with the liberal feminist theory because it is about to achieve equalisation through structural/legal interventions. However, this perspective neglects that reforming structures is insufficient for correcting gender equality completely. The radical feminist theory claims for an entire change of the social system in which patriarchal patterns are replaced by matriarchal. The current gender initiatives resemble far more a modification of the pre-existing system than a fundamental turnover. Accordingly, the implementation of gender equality does not follow a radical path. The psychoanalytic feminist theory might explain the introduction of more feminine values, e.g. soft power such as conditionality in contrast to coercion. The marxist feminist theory speaks of a class struggle between the dominant male group and the subordinate female group. In fact, the gender discussion –and its surrounding activities– reflects to some degree a class struggle. However, in a globalized and diversified world, the cleavages are not purely between women and men anymore. The socialist feminist theory takes fully account of this phenomenon. As the case study of Serbia has shown, the Anti-discrimination law not only covers discrimination on women but also on race, ethnicity, religion and sexual orientation. The third world/postcolonial theory explains similar aspects as the socialist feminist theory, however, it includes variations between different cultural contexts. The gender initiative in Serbia shows that specific context-related aspects, that are either known such as poverty among elderly women or are assumed to be widespread such as domestic violence, are addressed with special consideration. All these theories have in common that the body or social/cultural aspects are constitutive for gender related inequalities. The above discussed gender initiatives are mainly designed to correct these inequalities.

In contrast, post-structuralist feminist theories address the social construction of gender through language. As this theory is mainly focused on the micro level, it is quite difficult to apply it on a macro level such as a state level. Accordingly, a research design based on the post-structuralist feminist theory would analyze the use and role of language in a social interaction on a micro level such as women in parliament, or even more precisely in a particular commission on gender aspects, for example. Subsequently, it is quite difficult to study the issue of gender and democratization from a post-structuralist perspective on an aggregate level as present here.

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Appendix

Table 1: Country Profile of Serbia

		Serbia
Area		88,361 sq.km
Population		7,498,001 (Serbian Government Census 2002)
Capital City		Belgrade
Major Ethnic Communities		Serbian 82,86% Hungarian 3,91% Bosniak 1,82% Roma 1,44% Montenegrin 0,92% Croat 0,94% Others 8,1%
Major Religions and Denominations		Serbian Orthodox 85% Roman Catholicism 5,5% Muslim 3,2% Protestant 1,1%
Government		Parliamentary Republic
Major Political Parties		Democratic Party (DS) Serbian Progressive Party (SNS) Serbian Radical Party (SRS) G17 Plus Socialist Party of Serbia (SPS) Democratic Party of Serbia (DSS) Liberal Democratic Party (LDP) New Serbia (NS) League of Vojvodina Social Democrats (LSDV) Sandzak Democratic Party (SDP) Coalition for Sandzak Vovodina Hungarians Alliance (SVM) Party of Democratic Action (PDD) Roma Party (RP) Union of Roma of Serbia (URS)
President and Head of State		Timoslav Nikolic (SNS)
Prime Minister		Ivica Dacic (SPS)
Proportion of Seats held by women in national parliament (%)		2002-2006: 11% 2007-2011: 22% 2012: 21%
GDP per capita		3'982 Euro (2010)
Participation on the labour market		Women: 44% (2004) Men: 63% (2004)
Unemployment rate		2004: Women: 24.1% Men: 15.9%
		2010 Women: 20.20% Men: 18:40%

Source: European Forum for Democracy and Solidarity, 2012; Foreign Commonwealth Office (FCO), 2012; Babovic, 2008; Index Mundi, no date

Table 2: Ratio of the number of employed women and men with respect to the level of education, 2007-2008

	2007		2008	
	Number of employed women in relation to 100 employed men	Average salaries of women in relation to average salaries of men	Number of employed women in relation to 100 employed men	Average salaries of women in relation to average salaries of men
Total	82.9	96.4	84.4	95.2
University level	132.7	87.6	135.9	86.0
Higher education	146.2	88.9	147.8	89.0
Secondary	117.7	91.9	117.2	91.1
Highly skilled worker	14.5	82.4	14.4	83.7
Skilled worker	30.5	70.6	29.7	70.5
Non-skilled worker	87.0	83.7	86.4	79.9

Source: European Commission, 2011b, p. 5

LEADERSHIP DECAPITATION: ISRAELI COUNTERTERRORISM POLICY AND THE PALESTINIAN ISLAMIC JIHAD

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Abstract

The specific conditions under which terrorist decapitation results in the dissolution of the terrorist group and other short- and long-term effects of this tactic are some of the critical questions that require further attention given that states such as the US and Israel are sure to employ this tactic to considerable means in the near and distant future, particularly given the vague framework of the unending nature of War on Terror (WOT) that has helped produce numerous loopholes that enable the undertaking of precision acts that are often characterized as “discriminate wars” (Schmitt, 2005). In this paper I argue that in spite of short-term success for Israel, the PIJ was able to reorient itself from the shock of losing its leader. This is demonstrated not only by its ongoing service to violent terrorist means, but also due in part to its increased use of suicide bombings that have resulted in a greater loss of life since the events of 1995 as well as the escalation of suicide terrorism (ST) by other terrorist groups and organizations in the region and further abroad.

Keywords: “Discriminate Wars,” effectiveness, radicalization, suicide terrorism (ST), terrorist cells

Introduction

One of the key features of states’ counterterrorism (CT) policies has been the targeted killing of terrorist operatives, including those operating in a leadership capacity. Many within academic and policy circles advocate the effectiveness of leadership decapitation as a policy choice and CT tactic and strategy with the aim of properly neutralizing the operational capacity of a terrorist cell, group, organization, or network (Jordan, 2009; Frankel, 2010; David, 2002; Byman, 2006; Johnston, 2012). The specific conditions under which terrorist decapitation results in the dissolution of the terrorist group and other short- and long-term effects of this tactic are some of the critical questions that require further attention given that states such as the US and Israel are sure to employ this tactic to considerable means in the near and distant future, particularly given the vague framework of the unending nature of War on Terror (WOT) that has helped produce numerous loopholes that enable the undertaking of precision acts that are often characterized as “discriminate wars” (Schmitt, 2005).

The research question presented herein is of importance given its relationship with one of the most radicalized and violent terrorist organizations demonstrating a long history of success and resilience. As such, further in-depth analysis regarding instances of leadership decapitation will afford a better understanding of how this organization has responded to the policy option of targeted leadership killings, and the extent to which, if at all, its ability to wage Islamic Jihad (IJ) against the state of Israel has been or is impaired. I argue that in spite of short-term success for Israel, the PIJ was able to reorient itself from the shock of losing its

leader. This is demonstrated not only by its ongoing service to violent terrorist means, but also due in part to its increased use of suicide bombings that have resulted in a greater loss of life since the events of 1995 as well as the escalation of suicide terrorism (ST) by other terrorist groups and organizations in the region and further abroad.

Research Question

What effects did the successful targeted killing of Fathi Al-Shiqaqi have on the operationality of the Palestinian Liberation Organization's Islamic Jihad (Palestinian Islamic Jihad [PIJ])?

Research Purpose

This research seeks to address the issue of and effects related to the policy of leadership decapitation (either openly or covertly) of the PIJ's command through the successful targeted killing of Fathi Al-Shiqaqi by the Israeli secret service (Mossad) on October 26, 1995, which took place on the Mediterranean island of Malta. An extent body of literature has so far been produced with regards to the correlation between the reduction of terrorist growth, the activity of terrorism, the effectiveness of terrorist groups in terms of their operationality, and the removal of specific elements of their command structure, namely the movements top leader or leaders. The purpose of this paper is therefore to evaluate, in part, the effectiveness of leadership decapitation as a counterterrorism strategy against Islamic terrorist groups by using the case of the PLO as a sample of Islamic groups that are not organizations that span multiple countries. The specific case of the PLO was chosen because it is a non-transnational organization. This facilitates the measurement and study of the effects of leadership decapitation as a counterterrorism strategy as opposed to transnational organizations or networks (i.e., Al-Qaeda, Hezbollah, Taliban, Abu Nidal Organization [ANO or Fatah], and Jemaah Islamiya [JI]) that may be composed loosely of cells that operated relatively independent of one another (US Department of State [DoS], 2010).

Theory and Practice of Leadership Decapitation

Two main expectations orbit the central logic behind the use of leadership decapitation. First, the killing of a prominent individual who is in a position to influence or direct a terrorist organization will lessen the overall effect or operationality of the group because the quality of the group's element of command and control is ultimately compromised (Kim, 2010: p. 4). As a result of the change that takes place in the command structure where a less-capable or experienced individual takes the place of the eliminated target, a degree of competence or effectiveness of the overall group is expected to take place. Second, well-planned, effectively coordinated, and successfully implemented precision attacks are expected to compel terrorist leadership to remain mobile or "on the run" without having the luxury of establishing a permanent site of command (Kim, 2010: p. 4). The result is the disruption of critical functions of the leadership role, which negatively impacts the group's violent operations.

A number of theoretical perspectives have been employed in order to substantiate the position that supports the use of targeted killing for the purpose of leadership decapitation. Two well-known theoretical bases are the leadership and social network theories. Leadership theory is particularly useful in rallying support for the use of leadership decapitation as a viable option for governments facing the threat of terrorism to any extent. It explains that a leader's charismatic qualities stand as the group's central structure, providing both strength and cohesion for the group and those that comprise it. This quality is also used to explain the "operational success of an organization," which can become prone to infighting following the loss of leader and eventually collapse (Jordan, 2009: p. 722; Mannes, 2008

Social network theory has also proven a valuable in the understanding of vulnerabilities of terrorist organizations. Its value is in its focus on the importance of the network structure as opposed to the individual characteristics that can be found within that structure or group. This analysis shows that the relationship ties of the group are important, and the health of this aspect will affect the group's ability to "access new ideas, recruit new individuals, and achieve sustainability" (Ressler, 2006: p. 2). Hierarchical organizations are seen to have a particular susceptibility to operations that seek to eliminate the leading individual(s) than groups that are more widely dispersed such as networks or cells that do not require a connection with a central authority. Both theories, however, are only pieces of a larger puzzle that presents academics and policy makers with the means of approaching, analyzing, and understanding terrorist groups and organizations. It is nearly impossible to say that one is of more importance than the other or that any are able to completely fit into the framework in which terrorists operate.

Successful implementation of precision killing is not necessarily a prerequisite for having a partially or still desirable outcome on the operationality of a terrorist group. In this vein, we may note that even a misfire of the policy retains a disruptive power whereby terrorists are unable to properly meet and plan operations without the fear or the practical issue of being interrupted by counterterrorism interdiction. The desired outcome, however, is said to be (and understandably so) the elimination of the intended target. If a third expectation is to be added to the list, then the desired outcome of the policy implementation is the general reformation of group policy of individual behavior within the group. Not only is the use of precision killing seen as a way of undermining a leader's personal power and safety, they have deterrent and coercive value for dissuading terrorist operatives to take the place of the eliminated leader.

Fathi Al-Shiqaqi and the Palestinian Islamic Jihad

Shortly after the creation of the Israeli state in the western bank of the Middle East, US involvement in the region was only just beginning to grow with the creation of regional offices, close coordination with United Nations (UN) work in the area, and the initiations of political and economics programs that sought to bring stability to underdeveloped areas of the region through financial support and expertise (Lesch, 2007). In 1948, Israel and the Arab world engaged in ongoing conflict (i.e., The 1948 War, Six Day War, Yom Kippur War, and the Israel-Lebanon Conflict) that has persisted to this day, which has resulted in the displacement of millions of peoples and presented the US with one of the toughest balancing acts in the history of US foreign policy (Smith, 2008).

Following the Second World War, Britain and France were entangled with Egypt over control of the Suez Canal, which required the intervention of the Canada, the US, and the UN. The geopolitical climate of the Middle East during this time could therefore be characterized as considerable uncertainty that posed a critical challenge to Western states and even divided them over their methods of intervention in order to stabilize and bring security to the region. At the same time, a number of states in the region (i.e., Turkey, Greece, Iran, Pakistan, and Iraq) worked together in the interest of creating a defensive ring with the aim of containing the spread of Communism in the area (Walker, 2006: p. 64). It was amid this backdrop of uncertainty and conflict, and in the Egyptian-occupied and ruled Gaza Strip that Fathi Al-Shiqaqi was born and eventually founded the PIJ with his associate Abd Al-Aziz Awda (Council on Foreign Relation [CFR], 2012; Global Jihad, 2009; The American-Israeli Cooperative Enterprise [AICE], 2013).

In 1974, Fathi Al-Shiqaqi entered medical school at the University of Zaqqaziq, which was decision informed by the death of his father as result of cancer that took his like in the mid-1960s (Sivan, 1990; Wonder, 2008: p. 255). He studied in Egypt for seven years,

combining his studies with increasing interaction with the neo-Muslim Brotherhood's students circles (Wonder, 2008: p. 255). His experience in higher-education was also blended with the spiritual teaching of the Muslim community in the Middle East but becoming increasingly frustrated with the political climate and relations of the period, chose to pursue a path that deviated from teaching or researching in a field of advanced education.

It cannot be claimed that he completely disassociated himself from the realm of education. He retained a strong commitment to his own radical philosophical views with which he expressed a vision for change and social, political, and institutional realignment (Global Jihad, 2009). The humiliating defeat suffered by the Arab power in the face of Israeli military and strategic prowess had a profound effect on the young Shiqaqi, as did the Islamic Revolution that took place in 1978 by Ayatollah Khomeini (Wonder, 2008). His exposure to these conditions opened up channels through which he pursued a desire for change; they drove Al-Shiqaqi to become part of the military branch of the Egyptian Islamic Jihad (EIJ) in approximately 1980, when he "expressed several times his disappointment from the moderation of the Muslim Brotherhood in Egypt and its reformist agenda" (Global Jihad, 2009). Al-Shiqaqi's disenchantment with the Muslim Brotherhood was a benchmark in his leadership development that was based on a radical philosophical interpretation of Islam. His budding leadership was supported by his impressionability in the early stages of his life, especially when he was still in Egypt. Islamic Jihad is considered as having started as a student movement, eventually growing in scope to include a wide range of societal members.

The assassination of Egyptian President Anwar Al-Sadat by Egyptian Islamic activist, Khalid El-Islambouli, in 1981 was a source of great inspiration for Al-Shiqaqi who then moved back to Gaza with the view of forming the Palestinian Branch of the EIJ, which became known as the Palestinian Islamic Jihad (Global Jihad, 2009; AICE, 2013). He was capable of maintaining close ties with those who would help him in his movement and proliferating the ideals enshrined within his cause. Bashir Musa Nafi, an associate of Shiqaqi, left Egypt after the assassination of Al-Sadat and moved to London where he worked on the Muslim Students Federation Journal, "which was funded by an Iranian-run group called the Islamic Center for Studies and Publishing" (Wonder, 2008: p. 232). The connections that Shiqaqi maintained were instrumental in maintaining and strengthening the momentum of the PIJ.

During the formation of the PIJ, Al-Shiqaqi relied on his educational background and undertook a number of literary projects that included the publication of a booklet (*Khomeini: The Islamic Solution and the Alternative*) that attempted to legitimize (for the first time) the justification of suicide missions by members of the Islamic community in the spirit of Jihad (Wonder, 2008: p. 229; Global Jihad, 2009). Although he sought to deliver a stirring message that would bring together Muslims in a common cause, his work has been criticized as mere reiteration of previous discussions of the Muslim Brotherhood's ideology in that, "he indicted Western and Eastern imperialism as a means to dominate Muslims by 'confusing ideologies' and 'reminded his reader[s] that the Jews' were 'enemies of Islam and agents of imperialism' likely in league with both the United States and the Soviet Union" (Mayer quoted in Wonder, 2008: p. 229). Al-Shiqaqi's violent and hate-inspiring behavior resulted in his incarceration by Israeli authorities for a sentence of no less than four years (one year in 1983 and a subsequent three years beginning in 1986) in total for his seditious actions and rhetoric (Global Jihad, 2009; AICE, 2013).

The First Intifada, often characterized at the roots of resistance for the Palestinian people, also served as fertile ground for first sewing the seeds of his view of an IJ as well as the eventual establishment of the roots of the PIJ. Nearing the 1990s, Al-Shiqaqi worked to consolidate the PIJ by collaborating with the efforts of Hezbollah and establishing an operations center in the Syrian capital of Damascus (Global Jihad, 2009). The Syrian regime

was a useful tool in the consolidation of the PIJ for their cooperation with the movement. In both the United Kingdom (UK) and the Palestinian territories, Nafi and Al-Shiqaqi continued transnational publication activities in support of the PIJ and the First Intifada, and was a proven method of connecting with “students who had been expelled from Egypt” (Alexander, 2002: p. 30).

The early 1990s was an active period for both Al-Shiqaqi and the PIJ. Shortly after the Oslo Accord (officially referred to as the Declaration of Principles on Interim Self-Government Arrangements or Declaration of Principles [DoP]) in 1993, Al-Shiqaqi was the principle player in the formulation of the National Alliance in January 1994 (AICE, 2013). The National Alliance was a significant achievement for Al-Shiqaqi and demonstrated a strong leadership quality for having united eight different groups linked to the PLO, Islamic Jihad, and Hamas, all of which stood in stark opposition to the Oslo process and the treaties of peace that resulted from them (AICE, 2013).

The post-Oslo Accord period was the pinnacle of Al-Shiqaqi’s career as the leader of the PIJ. Under his direction, the PIJ led a tremendously violent suicide campaign against the state of Israel between 1994 and 1995. During this period, the suicide campaign comprised male-only ST but expanded in 2004 to include female suicide terrorists (FST) (O’Rourke, 2009: p. 698). While many other terrorist groups appear to remain silent on the issue of employing females for the purpose of ST, some seem to be slowly drifting in this direction and flirting with the idea of using female suicide attackers. In any event, the PIJ can truly be accredited with the idea of combining a women’s role with suicide bombings (Bloom, 2007: p. 150).

In 2004, “the PIJ reversed ten years of male-only ST by perpetrating its first FST attack (O’Rourke, 2009: p. 698). Emphasizing the need for women to become combatants just as men in the PIJ has set a strong precedent with which the West and countries well beyond the West and still engaged in a war with terrorism, will have to contend. It denotes the escalation of this brand of asymmetric warfare by mobilizing greater numbers and to include a new range of actors that call for greater inquiry and understanding in order to confront international terrorism’s ever-growing and expanding threat matrix. In the words of Bloom, “When Jihad becomes a personal obligation, then the woman is summoned like a man, and need ask permission neither from her husband nor from her guardian, because she is obligated, and none need to ask permission in order to carry out a commandments that everyone must carry out” (Bloom, 2005: p. 61).

Notwithstanding its escalation of scope to eventually include the use of FST, Al-Shiqaqi set in motion one of the most critical and arguably valuable contributions to serve the cause of the PIJ as well as other like-minded terrorist organizations. The martyrdom-seeking, or suicide, operations as a relatively new strategic option and largely employed by the Palestinians is one that has not been abandoned, nor has the PIJ even considered abandoning it as a strategic option (Palestinian Media Watch [PMJ], 2013). To the contrary, and as already mentioned, the scope of this strategic option is only expanding, and is not likely to be soon abandoned. The timing and conditions under which such options are executed remain issues left to the commanders of these groups. This was one of the most central features of Al-Shiqaqi’s role with the PIJ (PMJ, 2013).

The Impact of Leadership Decapitation

Given Al-Shiqaqi’s contribution to the growth and strengthening of the PIJ along with the group’s use of suicide terrorism, the leader represented an attractive targeted, particularly for Israeli security forces because of the conflict that the Israeli government was involved in with the PIJ. Its violent opposition toward the existence of Israel and its designation by the US State Department has helped to concretize a number of strong enemies of the movement

(CFR, 2012). The PIJ has predominantly targeted Israeli civilians as well as military personnel in much the same manner as Hamas, Fatah, and the Palestinian Liberation Organization (PLO). This is the means through which the group seeks the creation of an Islamic regime that encompass all of the historic Palestinian lands in the Middle East.

The PIJ considers the Arab-Israeli conflict an ideological war rather than a territorial dispute as others might (CFR, 2012). One of the distinct differences between the PIJ and its counterparts in the region is the PIJ's lack of political participation, and unlike other terrorist group that have shown their willingness to negotiate, members of the PIJ "see violence as the only way to remove Israel from the Middle East map and reject any two-state arrangement in which Israel and Palestine coexist (CFR, 2012).

Even though the PIJ is a small and rather secretive organization that boasts less approximately 1,000 members and runs on comparably limited support in the region, its leadership was successful in building the group into a highly-militant and violent terrorist organization with the ability to strike with deadly outcomes. Its suicide attacks can be characterized a fairly indiscriminate assaults against vulnerable targets within Israeli territory, however, even members of the Palestinian community have noted that with the construction of security barriers around Gaza, the execution of suicide attacks has become a remarkable challenge and has resulted in a drastic reduction of suicide attacks outside the barriers (CFR, 2012).

To date, the PIJ has concentrated on Israeli targets as opposed to US property even though a number of Americans have become victims of the PIJ's assaults over previous years they were not intended targets of the group. In recent years, the PIJ elicited threats to the US that the American embassy would become a legitimate target if the building was moved from Tel Aviv to Jerusalem, but no such attack has been carried out (CFR, 2012). In spite of its relatively short history and even though the group is composed of a fairly small rank and file, its terrorist track record has proven quite remarkable, especially given that the PIJ manages to maintain a successful recruitment campaign in spite of little probability of the group's ultimately political objectives coming to fruition.

On October 26, 1995, the same year that the PIJ was responsible for the murder of eighteen Israeli soldiers and a civilian near Netanya, in the northern and central region of Israel some thirty kilometers north of Tel Aviv, two gunmen who were believed to be operating as agents of Mossad (Israeli Secret Service) shot and killed Al-Shiqaqi while he was in front of the Diplomat Hotel in Sliema, Malta. A man who drove by on a motorcycle shot al-Shiqaqi in quick succession. The assassin used a silenced weapon that retained the casing of the discharged rounds. Agents who traveled to the island on several counts and under false names executed the operation with precision on that day. Their target was traveling through the region and was expected to meet with Libyan leader Muammar Al-Gaddafi to conduct a meeting at which the funding of Al-Shiqaqi's factions was to be discussed. This likely involved the financing of the PIJ's terrorist operations, including its ST campaign.

The operation carried out against Al-Shiqaqi was one of three during the 1990s under the auspices of the Israeli government. The mission that eliminated Al-Shiqaqi was the first of these three and was considered a moderate success on several counts. The precision with which the operation was planned, coordinated, and orchestrated stood as quite a remarkable feat as far as covert operations are concerned. The second notable factor to emerge from this scenario is the subsequent difficulty with which the PIJ attempted to replace Al-Shiqaqi. As noted by Eisenstadt (2001) and David (2003), "No competent successor emerged to replace Shikaki, producing disarray in Islamic Jihad" (p. 116). The effectiveness of the PIJ was also suggested to have been undermined for several years because of the struggle that ensued over "policy and power" (Eisenstadt, 2001). It has been noted that Al-Shiqaqi's killing rests on the

positive side of the ledger because of its immediate effect whereby his death led to the “splintering of this organization, hindering PIJ operations long thereafter” (Eisenstadt, 2001). The PIJ did replace their fallen leader, however, with Ramadan Abdullah Shallah (also known as Sheikh Abdullah Ramadan), “a British-educated Palestinian, taught Middle Eastern course at the University of South Florida from 1990 to 1995” (CRF, 2012).

Measuring the long-term success of the operation has been a difficult and contentious issue, and now contributes a piece to the ever-growing puzzle regarding the use of targeted killings and leadership decapitation with the aim of impacting the effectiveness of a terrorist group. In January 1996, Yahya Ayyash, one of Hamas’ most “skilled and prolific bomb makers whose handiwork proved critical to many terrorist attacks against Israel” was killed when his mobile phone that had been booby-trapped by the Israeli domestic intelligence agency, Shin Bet, detonated while in use (David, 2003: p. 116). The loss of Ayyash was considerable given his abilities that earned him the nickname “The Engineer” (Al-Muhandis), however, the recoil as a result of his assassination involved four suicide bombings in the following months that resulted in the deaths of fifty Israelis (David, 2003: p. 116; Gunning, 2008: p. 210). The assassination of Ayyash also directly led to massive demonstrations by Palestinians in Gaza in the amount of 100,000 people, and arguably served as a source of hatred and radicalized behavior among members of society who might not have considered contributing to Hamas’ violent cause (Wagner, 1996).

Press reports have contended that Israel’s policy option of targeting the leaders of terrorist groups, particularly the PIJ, has proven positive by “exacting a toll on [their] operational capabilities,” which included an attempt to blow up a bus on 2/8, the Tel Aviv central bus station on 3/8, a Haifa disco on 17/8, and a target in Beersheva today, while on 6/8 Israeli security arrested a suicide bomber awaiting orders” (Eisenstadt, 2001). Eisenstadt (2001) also notes that several bombings have “produced fewer casualties than could have been expected (notably, the PIJ suicide bombing of the cafe in Kiryat Motzkin on 12/8, which injured 21 Israelis). These (and other) failures can, in part, be attributed to Israeli luck, good intelligence, and an alert citizenry. At the same time, the planning of terrorist operations by the PIJ were subsequently characterized as poorer than usual, inadequately prepared for, and executed in sloppy fashion.

According to Israeli military officials, there are two reasons for the continued failures of the PIJ since the assassination of Al-Shiqaqi in 1995: (1) it is believed that the assassination and that continued assassinations of PIJ leaderships has simply resulted in a crippling depletion of the ranks “of the most experienced Palestinian planners, and (2) compelled PIJ to pursue and implement their operations in a rushed and careless fashion merely to “prove that they remain in the fight (Eisenstadt, 2001). David (2003), reinforces the sentiment, adding that, “targeted killings have impeded the effectiveness of Palestinian terrorist organizations where leadership, planning, and tactical skills are confined to a few key individuals” (p. 120). Both Eisenstadt (2001) and David (2003) touch base with the charisma component of any given leader, stating that there are individual leaders with a certain level of charisma and organizational skills that simply cannot be match or easily replaced, and these can be quite essential in maintaining the cohesive quality of any group.

Detractors of the policy have claimed that the use of leadership decapitation or target killing more generally assert that carrying out the policy actually strengthen Palestinian hatred of Israel and its allies, which leads to the creation of “new legions of volunteer suicide bombers, and perpetuate the violent sequence of events” (Eisenstadt, 2001). Additionally, critics argue that targeted leaders and terrorist operatives in this manner is a useful propaganda tool for terrorist groups because it helps to fabricate the physical battlefield that then validates the ideological conflict that ideological leaders of such groups attempt to propagate so assiduously. With the perpetuation of physical conflict, Palestinians are given

greater opportunities for martyrdom, and thus, increasing the popularity of terrorist groups such as the PIJ. However, as noted by Eisenstadt (2001), “forgoing preemption entails significant risks, as it could provide the bombers with the breathing space necessary to rebuild their capabilities.”

Perhaps one of the most persuasive arguments against the effectiveness of leadership decapitation in this case is that despite the short-term impact that was made on the effectiveness of the PIJ, terrorist attacks launched by the group against Israeli civilian and military targets were both well executed and successful in producing a large number of casualties which falls perfectly in line with the original intentions of the attacker(s) and those who planned and coordinated the operations. To be sure, the style of PIJ’s attacks appear to have undergone a small evolutionary process since the time of Al-Shaqaqi’s death in that a greater number of suicide missions have been waged and with increasingly deadly results. This could very well be the result of Al-Shiqaqi’s teachings to subordinates or even his contemporaries within the organization who passed this knowledge on to a future generation of terrorist operatives giving their lives violently in the name of PIJ’s ideological cause. Moreover, the impact of suicide terrorism has been overwhelmingly positive from the perspectives of terrorist organizations and tragic for the Israeli state, especially given that the PIJ is not the only terrorist group to use the tactic with stunning, if even bloody, outcomes.

Even though the result of leadership decapitation has shown to be effective in some regards with respect to the PIJ, subsequent operations against other terrorist groups tell a different story. The case of Ayyash suggested that leadership decapitation set in motion a wave of heightened radicalization that led to the quadruple suicide bombings that killed scores of innocent civilians. Other terrorist organization, still, like AQ or similar networks of cells dispersed across a region or even the globe might not exhibit a loss of operationality due to the loss of a leader or prominent figure(s) within the organization. In this light, measuring the impact that leadership decapitation has had on the overall effectiveness of the PIJ is not an easy or simple task, and for all the praise that officials in Tel Aviv might extend themselves for offsetting the violent attacks of the PIJ in the immediate aftermath of the assassination of Al-Shiqaqi, the enduring and more deadly campaign waged since 1995 now easily overshadows the sort of optimism occasioned by the killing of the PIJ’s original founder roughly eighteen years ago.

Conclusion

This study has considered the impact of leadership decapitation as a part of current counterterrorism strategies employed by Israel. In doing so, a review of two notable theories on leadership decapitation were presented and applied to the case of Al-Shiqaqi killed by Mossad agents in the mid-1990s. Seen as a victory for the Israeli state, the effects of the leadership decapitation have been measured in multiple ways and suggest that the action undertaken by the state of Israel resulted in the diminution of the PIJ’s effectiveness in waging violent terrorist acts. Today, Israel faces terrorist threats on a number of fronts and from well within its own territory, not merely from within its own region. As such, increasing pressure is mounting to find newer and more effective modalities for contending with and mitigating the terrorist threat that has plagued the state of Israel for decades. Leadership decapitation remains an attractive policy option for Israel given its well-trained and effective intelligence and secret services that have demonstrated a positive track record in carrying out covert operations against terrorists at home and abroad.

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ALBANIA AND GREECE – POLITICAL AND DIPLOMATIC RELATIONS BETWEEN 1920-1930

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Abstract

When we talk about political and diplomatic relations between Albania and Greece in the period 1920-1930, always we try to refer to state relations and political actors of both countries. For this period we can explain that the relations between the two countries have not been good, but are often characterized by tension, almost by the Greek state interference in the internal affairs of Albania. At the same time this troubled situation is characterized by tense political and diplomatic relations, further from the repressive policies pursued by Athens over Albanian Cham population, living in Northern Greece, otherwise called Northern Epirus.

These relationships will draw the tense and characterizes politics and diplomacy of the two countries for almost two decades. Albania and Greece politicians and political leaders time after time tried to stabilize the situation. But Greece, which felt superior because of alliances that she had with the Great Powers, put conditions in order to stabilize the relations between two countries. While the Albanian state without any help from the Great Powers, try to protect his rights in relation to Greece, and in relation to the Greek minority living in Albania, providing them all possible rights stemming from the agreement that Albanian state had signed in 1921.

Keywords: Protocol of Kapshtica; Northern Epirus; Albanian minority; Paris peace conference

Albania and Greece in the early '20s

The first agreement between the two countries is signed in Kapshtica on May 15, 1920. In the Albanian historiography is known as Protocol of Kapestica. It was signed between the Albanian and Greek state in a general climate of tension. During this period Greece was concentrated in consecutive losses in the Turkish front, as well as Albania which has the seethed desire to unite the territories held under Italian occupation with the rest part of the country. The basic point of this Protocol was it to maintain the status quo between the two countries, especially in Southern Albania, until a final determination will be given to the issue by the Great Powers attending the Paris Peace Conference.⁵⁵ In protocol was stated that Greek churches and schools will not be affected or prejudiced and would operate freely in the Albanian territory. This agreement marks the first Greek recognition de facto of the Albanian government. Before the Protocol of Kapestica the Greek state refused to recognize any of the governments that emerged from the Albanian National Congress.⁵⁶

The fact that the Athens government owes to sign a status quo agreement, however partial, with the government's exit from Lushnja Congress, means that Athens indirectly acknowledged and recognized this Albanian national authority, but legally and publicly she

⁵⁵ Çami, Muin. Albania in the course of history 1912-1924, Tirana: Onufri, 2007, pp. 210-211.

⁵⁶ Ibid, p. 211.

would never engage openly to define its position in favor of recognition of the Albanian state.

The signing of this agreement is more concerned with the fear that the Greek army was located between two fronts, one in Asia Minor and one in Albania, rather than the desire to sit face to face with the Albanian government.⁵⁷ Greek thesis always remains the annexation of Northern Epirus. But, on the other hand the Tirana government was not interested, that while she was engaged in battle with Italian troops in Vlora, to open herself a second conflict with Greek troops in the south.⁵⁸ The strategy set out by the government of Suleyman Delvina, in cooperation with the National Defense Committee, aimed for a short period, as long as the official Tirana was engaged against Italian troops, to reduce the tension with Greece and Yugoslavia and to be focused by all his power in Vlora. The victory in Vlora would serve later as strategic support to show Athens and Belgrade that the Albanian state would do everything he could to preserve the territorial integrity set in the London Conference of Ambassadors in 1913.

Several months later on August 10, 1920 was signed between the Allied Powers and Turkey the Treaty of Sevres. Greek state was represented in these talks by E. Venizelos. Under this Treaty Greece pledged to ensure full protection of life and freedoms for all citizens, without distinction of origin, nationality, language, race or religion.⁵⁹ All citizens who lived in Greece will be allowed to exercise freely, publicly and privately religion and faith.⁶⁰ This treaty has a great importance, because the Greek state during 1920-1928, not only mistreated and displace the Albanian population living in Greece, but assumed that none of these rights that were assigned and accepted by the treaty of Sevres, couldn't perform by Albanian minority.⁶¹

With the acceptance of the Albanian state in December 17, 1920 in the League of Nations, the tension between the two countries will grow even more. Albanian adherence to this international organization was a step toward for Greek diplomacy in its demands for annexation of Southern Albania. The character of the commitments undertaken by the Albanian state in connection with the issue of minorities in the country, was completely abrogated by the signing the declaration for recognition of minority status.

The defeat of Greece in Asia Minor created a more complicated situation. A group of generals, as N. Pllastrias, S. Gonata, A. Haxhiqirjakos, rebelled and forced King Constantine of Greece leaving on September 22, 1922. Greece was characterized by chaos and a difficult economic situation, thousands of Greek refugees wandered the streets without any means of living. In these circumstances coup d'état leaders signed in January 1923 in Lausanne the convention for the exchange of Greek and Turkish populations. Albanian governments felt anxious about signing of this treaty, as the Greek government in exchange may include the Albanian Muslim population who lived in Greece.⁶²

During the years 1919-1924 the relations between the two countries had always been tense, because the Greek government claims frequently to annex the southern Albania and in the other hand Tirana government protested against the Greek violence over Albanian population. This situation doesn't help Greece to take advantage of Albanian economic

⁵⁷ Albanian Academy of Sciences, *Albanian History*, Vol. II, Tirana: 1965, p. 486.

⁵⁸ Italian troops in Albania (Years 1914-20 e 1939), Roma: Stato Maggiore Esercito (SME) – Ufficio Storico, 1978, p. 365.

⁵⁹ Meta, Beqir. *Cham tragedy*, Tirana: Klean, 2010, p. 32.

⁶⁰ AMPJSH. F. 151, V. 1920, D. 73, p. 2-3. (AMPJSH – Albanian Archive of Ministry of Foreign Relations; Fund, Year, Folder, Page).

⁶¹ Meta, Beqir. *Cham tragedy*, Tirana: Klean, 2010, p. 32.

⁶² Isufi, Hajredin. "Greek state policy for the expulsion of the Cham population in the years 1914-1928 and the Albanian resistance", *Historical studies*, No. 1-4, XLVIII, Tirana 1997, p. 62.

concessions that remained open for any investment. The impact of the Greek economy was very negligible in comparison with Italian influence in Albania.⁶³

Unlike Italy who tried to take advantage of economic concessions in Albania, to use them later as leverage against the Albanian government, Greece did not intervene in this area, but created a vast vacuum which will be filled by Italy and Yugoslavia.⁶⁴

The following table presents imports and exports of Albanian state with other countries during 1920-1921.⁶⁵

	Imports		Exports		Balance	
	1920	1921	1920	1921	1920	1921
Italy	11,086	12,731	1,426	1,614	9,660	11,117
Greece	3,978	2,124	43	488	3,935	1,637
Turkey	782	665			782	665
United Kingdom	734	1,135			733	1,135
Austria	724	669			724	669
United States	123				123	
Yugoslavia	106	335	53	88	54	246
	17,533	17,659	1,522	2,190	16,011	15,469

The tense political and diplomatic situation between the two countries would continue to remain such until the end of the '20s.⁶⁶

Relations between the two countries in the 1930-1939

Albanian state in the early 30s faced numerous challenges in its foreign policy. The Tirana government having no diplomatic alternatives to help the Albanian population that remained abroad, started to think about systemizing them in Albanian territory, initially guaranteeing them the costs of food until they reach the destination where they will be settled, and the payment of travel expenses. The decree of 2 September 1931 "On establishment of Migrants" was the most important issue for the time (on the matter) approved by King Zog I.⁶⁷

Through this Decree the Albanian state strategically aimed to approach these emigrants to resist and not to suffer violence and persecution in neighboring countries, especially in Greece. Settling them in these territories was a strategy made available by the Albanian government to increase the number of inhabitants in some villages and to benefit them as a cheap labor force.⁶⁸ Mostly this population was settled in those areas where the land was left fallow and where the population can be achieved through the revitalization of the economy and agriculture. In addition to offering assistance to those who immigrate to Albania, the Albanian monarchy also focused on the extension and expansion of concrete cooperation and assistance to the Albanian population that had decided to stay and

⁶³ Toçi, Veniamin. *Interference of foreign capital in Albania and democratic attitude groups 1921-1925*, Tirana: "Mihal Duri", 1973, p. 151.

⁶⁴ *Ibid*, p.151.

⁶⁵ Rosseli, Alessandro. *Italy and Albania, Financial Relations in the Fascist Period*, London: I.B. Tauris, UK, 2006, p. 17.

⁶⁶ *Ibid*, p. 17.

⁶⁷ AQSH, F. 251, V. 1931, D. 232, p. 16. (AQSH - Albanian Central State Archive; Fund, Year, Folder, Page)

⁶⁸ *Ibid*.

not to depart from Greece. Preservation of identity, language, culture and academic education of this population will return to one of the strategic priorities of the foreign policy of the Albanian state during the early 30s.⁶⁹

The Balkan Treaty assigned in February 9, 1934 represents a point with great importance in interstate relations and diplomatic history of Albania and Greece as two Balkan countries. Negotiations for the implementation of this pact were made in terms of aggravation of the Albanian-Italian relations. Ahmet Zogu government was trying to break the tutelage of Italy to pursue an independent policy in foreign relations. This situation began when A. Zogu refused to extend the First Pact of Tirana. The only alternative for Albanian foreign policy remains adherence in Balkan Treaty.⁷⁰

Athens in early 1934 showed a particular interest for the position of Albania, because at that time Greece political relations with Italy were not in the top levels and not so cordial.⁷¹ For this reason, in late 1933 the Greece Minister of Foreign Affairs, Mr. Maksimos, assumed the task to reach between the Balkan states a natural agreement without disturbing the Great Powers.

Albanian government and diplomacy, tried at any condition to be part of the Balkan Treaty. Albanian governments concerned to demonstrate that Albanian state was part of Balkan Peninsula not only geographically but also politically. Through rapprochement with Greece, Turkey and Yugoslavia, King Zog aimed to show that Albania did not belong to Italy but she has an independent foreign policy.⁷²

Despite these efforts, Albania still remained outside the Balkan Treaty, helpless she lost a strategic opportunity to escape the Italian influence, which would result fatal in the following years. At the same time the failure of this goal, wasn't a failure of Albanian state, but it was a failure of policies of neighboring countries, such as Greece and Yugoslavia, which saw Albania not part of the Balkan Peninsula, but as part of the Italian political influence in the peninsula.⁷³

During the years 1936-1937 the Albanian state continued to maintain in its foreign policy a clear and constant line focused on the status of the Albanian population (minority) in Greece. This interest came increasingly, especially when in August of 1936 in Greece embraced fascism and John Metaxas became prime minister, ruling a fascist dictatorship. Over Albanian population immediately began a systematic persecution and collision. The Greek government Greek pursued various strategies to separate Albanian Muslim population from the Christian population.

With the dictatorship of J. Metaxas the few achievements that were realized between the two countries in the field of minority rights, especially that of education in the mother tongue, will turn back to ground zero. Albanian relations with Greece during the second half of '30s, besides political interests will be developed in another aspect that includes the field of economic interest.⁷⁴

The table below shows the level of interest rate of the Albanian National Bank compared with other countries. As we can see in the table the high level of interest rate indicates that the Bank of Albania has applied higher interest level than other countries in the region. The same policy has been followed by Greece for almost a decade.⁷⁵

⁶⁹ Ibid.

⁷⁰ AQSH, F. 252, V. 1934, D. 55, p. 145.

⁷¹ Shpuza, Gazmend. "Albania and the Balkan Pact of 1934", *Historical Studies*, Tirana: No. (1-4), (XXXIII), 1997, pp. 37-38, 40.

⁷² Ibid, p. 41, 48.

⁷³ AQSH, F. 252, V. 1934, D. 54, p. 78.

⁷⁴ AQSH, F. 251, V. 1936, D. 164, pp. 309-312.

⁷⁵ Fishta, Ilias Monetary and credit system in Albania 1925-1944, Tirana, Tirana University, Faculty of Economy, 1971, pp. 170-171.

Countries	Interest rate expressed in %		
	1929	1932	1938
Albania	9	8	6
Italy	7	5	4 1/2
France	3 1/2	2 1/2	2 1/2
Britan	5	2	2
Austria	7 1/2	6	4
Greece	9	9	6

Referring to import-exports dates between Albania and Greece during 1938-1939, we can note that the rapport between the two countries is clearly in favor of Greece. In 1938 the value of Greek exports to Albania amount to 1,434 gold fr., or 14.7%, while imports amounted to 737 gold fr., or 3.2% of the total value.⁷⁶ One year later in 1939 this relations change completely, this explained by the fact that Albania was occupied by Italy, which influenced in economy and trade relations with other regional countries.⁷⁷

Conclusions

Political and diplomatic relations between Albania and Greece during the years 1920-1930 are characterized by tension and discussions on the issue of minorities.

The decline of Greek influence in south Albania during these years came as a result of the increasing of Italian influence in the Balkan, especially in Albania.

Albanian rejection from the Balkan Treaty, led to the isolation of the Albanian kingdom in the region and its capitulation to Italian foreign policy.

The question of the Albanian minority in Greece remained an unsolved problem during this period.

On the other hand the Greek minority in Albania benefited all the rights included and derived from the agreement signed with the Albanian state in the early '20s.

Influenced by a tense political situation, economic relations remain at a low level of development.

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* (AMPJSH – Albanian Archive of Ministry of Foreign Relations; Fund, Year, Folder, Page).

* (AQSH – Albanian Central State Archive; Fund, Year, Folder, Page).

⁷⁶ Ibid, 194.

⁷⁷ Ibid, 194.

THE ROLE AND IMPACT OF KOSOVO LIBERATION ARMY IN INTERNATIONAL DIPLOMACY: A CASE STUDY OF ISSUES OF KOSOVO FROM 1998 TO 1999

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Abstract

The paper in itself involves International insistence in all aspects in solving Kosovo issue within the framework of Yugoslavia-Serbia and the various attempts of Albanian people, who do not allow something like this to happen at all. In the beginning, politic alternative of Kosovo attempted for years in achieving its political rights with politic means, peaceful policy, known as political Doctrine of Ibrahim Rugova, and Democratic League of Kosovo respectively, which by time as estimated by all, was accepted that with such, policy may be able to achieve what the people of Kosovo was determined in achieving for centuries. In this paper, I documented that the Kosovo case was completely ignored in International Conference during the entire period before the presentation of KLA (Liberation Army of Kosovo). After the signing of Agreement of Dayton in 1995, the situation in Kosovo became worsened. Kosovan Albanians looked behind their shoulders and learnt that Bosnians, Croatians, Slovenians, and Macedonians got separated from Yugoslavia and created independent countries, whereas Kosovan Leadership still continued with the call for endurance by proclaiming peaceful policy and still not understanding that International Diplomacy was compelled to evolve contrary with their historical determinations to preserve Yugoslavia by all means. Albanian people understood this idea on time and as a result, KLA came to surface an enabled International Diplomacy in general and American Diplomacy in particular to incorporate the solution of Kosovo issue within the mosaic of status solving, as it was done to other Republics in former Yugoslavia.

Keywords: Kosovo, international diplomacy, Kosovo liberation army

Introduction

In this paper, I started with the introduction of a brief history of International Diplomacy of Kosovo issue until 1998, which I believe reflects the best the role and impact of the Kosovo Liberation Army, not only in the political scene in Kosovo, but also in International Diplomacy.

Warren Zimmermann, the last former U.S. Ambassador in Yugoslavia, concluded that Yugoslavia was destroyed from the top to the bottom. Therefore, in his opinion, the catastrophe faced by Yugoslavia did not come as a result of old ethnicity or religion hostilities, or the collapse of communism at the end of the Cold War, and not even the failure of the policy of western countries. There is no doubt that these factors have worsened the situations of things, but the death of Yugoslavian's and the violence are the results of conscious actions of nationalist leadership.² Since World War II, Yugoslavia was the first country to be destroyed, and very soon, the next will be that of Soviet Union. According to his evaluations, this case were different and does not have anything in common, of which I considered it not to be his professional analysis but was rather based on the assessment of their diplomatic strategy. According to Warren Zimmermann, the Soviet Union is a

centralized dictatorship, an ideological tyranny, and a despotism exercised by a single ethnic group and a Colonial Empire, but Yugoslavia was another different case.

Consequently, according to Warren Zimmermann, what he assumes was the opinion of the Official American Diplomacy, thus if the Soviet Union deserved to fall apart, there was less moral reasons for Yugoslavia to suffer such fate.

Such determination and assessment shows in itself the commitment and tactics Kosovo alternative policy had to change the view of the West in general and, particularly that of America, about the importance of Yugoslavia in the International Political scene. Yugoslavia ⁷⁸would remain united⁴. Old Bush Administration, towards the end of his governing mandate, believed that Yugoslavia must be united, at least for as long as this unity can be achieved through democratic means. Even at this stage of determining the preservation of Yugoslavia, the U.S. supported Kosovo, but only in terms of achieving the "rights and freedoms according to international standards."

But on this ground, it was identified that it was impossible; hence, this was best illustrated by the former U.S. Ambassador to Belgrade, Warren Zimmermann who described a meeting with an intellectual Serbian art historian lady, who had lived very long in America, and her question to the U.S. Ambassador, 'how he would handle the problem of Kosovo'? Therefore, the U.S. Ambassador in Belgrade responds with the words: "It's so simple, *"I will line up Albanians against the wall and shoot them all to the last one."*

Neither this chauvinist criminal mindset of a Serbian intellectual, which almost expressed the opinion of majority of the Serbian people did not help the American Ambassador in Belgrade, Mr. Warren Zimmerman and the U.S. Diplomacy and International to understand that the case of Kosovo was not only an issue of human rights and freedom.

Kosovo Crisis

The Kosovo crisis has split the International community. International action in relation to Kosovo has prompted a fierce debate among governments and observers of international politics; whereas others might have understood the international response to Kosovo as an example of the return of the classic policy of the XIX century, others have considered that a new form of the collapse of the classical system dominated by self-interest state policies was emerging.

This commitment of America was difficult because Russia implemented the strategy of maintaining and strengthening the influence and prestige of the European continent, in its attempts to be re-considered as the Major World Power. Therefore, while adhering to its geopolitical interests, Moscow wanted at all costs to preserve and protect Serbia loyal ally. Other European countries, particularly the main ones which are Great Britain and France, tended toward their historical alliances with Serbia since World War II.

Efforts of International Diplomacy to Preserve Yugoslavia

Regardless of all violent acts which Serbia had committed to rule in Yugoslavia, the American diplomacy was engaged in maintaining the stability of international relations, but with a low intensity for the preservation of SFRY. Thus, this action could be spotted with last former U.S. Ambassador to Yugoslavia, Mr. Warren Zimmermann, who in his first visit to Kosovo in June 1989, carried an exceeded political-diplomatic definition of the U.S. that "

⁷⁸ Zimmermann Warren."Sources of one Catastropher Printing House: Besa-Tiranë1996. page.introduction

² Zimmermann Warren."Sources of one Catastropher Printing House: Besa-Tiranë1996. page.introduction

³ Zimmermann Warren."Sources of one Catastropher Printing House: Besa-Tiranë1996. page.introduction

⁴ Zimmermann Warren."Sources of one Catastropher Printing House: Besa-Tiranë1996. page..140

Zimmermann Warren."Sources of one Catastropher Printing House: Besa-Tiranë1996. page.introduction

⁶ Zimmermann Warren."Sources of one Catastropher Printing House: Besa-Tiranë1996. page.introduction

U.S. policy didn't bring to doubt Serbian Sovereignty over Kosovo ..." During his visit, he made attempts to convince the political leadership of Kosovo, Dr. Ibrahim Rugova, to take part in Serbian Elections of 1990, justifying his proposal, of "him threatening" with words. Otherwise, the ⁷⁹rejection of Serbian Elections will not help his credibility as a Democrat, and in this case, he mentioned the Irish experiences in the nineteenth century in Britain's House of Commons and the House of Deputies Algerians in France in 1950. In his book quoted in this paper, the U.S. Ambassador Warren Zimmermann, stated how that Ibrahim Rugova warmly smiled to his proposal as he usually did and would not concede at any point in time. Furthermore, he made it clear to the Ambassador that he will not stay even one day as Albanian Leader in case such steps is been undertaken. Rugova told the U.S. Ambassador that "Kosovo Albanians will never accept Serbian Authority,"¹¹ thus, the U.S. Ambassador stressed out that Ibrahim Rugova is "one of the most prominent political figures he has met in Yugoslavia."

During the time American Diplomacy understood that their political desire for the preservation of Yugoslavia was impossible and that the peaceful designation of Kosovo and their patience does not respond to violence with violence, thus they began to gain sympathy and support from the state, which was considered as the cradle of Global Democracy, America, at least in the field of human rights and freedoms. On Christmas Day in 1992, the Bush Administration (the Elders), which generally had been passive in the Balkans, with diplomats from the United States, told Milosevic (Serbian President), that the United States would militarily retaliate if the Serbs would start any armed conflict in Kosovo¹². Therefore, three weeks after President Clinton came into power in 1993, the Secretary to the State, Christopher again emphasized the "Christmas Warning"¹³.

Controversies in efforts of developing a foreign policy through the U.S. Congress Resolutions and Amendments culminated in the so-called Nickel's Amendment, which was adopted in November 1990 and entered into force after six months, and thus, this Amendment became a law over the entire opposition of the Bush Administration in order to stop the economic aid to Yugoslavia until Serbia will stop with violation of human rights in Kosovo. "The U.S. Ambassador in Belgrade, Warren Zimmermann, also considered that this approach of U.S. Senators on the Kosovo issue complicated the efforts in finding a peaceful and democratic way to the Kosovo Crisis. Thus, relying on such reason, he had tried several times through the telephone to explain to senators who supported Kosovo, especially Robert Dole and Nickels, to explain why their engagement would bring the opposite results of what they expected. In an attempt to talk with Senator Dole about this issue, a staff member had told him that Senator Dole is saying that why "this Ambassador has not interrupted calling the senators on the phone, but has instead stick to what he is paid for?"¹⁵.

First Conference of the European Council held on "Yugoslav Issue"

For the first time, a Conference of Yugoslavia was held by the EC on September 7th, 1991 in Hague, under the chairmanship of Lord Carrington. The conference was mandated to ensure peaceful accommodation of the conflicting aspirations of the people of Yugoslavia, based on the following principles:

- There is no unilateral change of borders by force⁸⁰

⁷ Zimmermann Warren."Sources of one Catastrophe Printing House: Besa-Tiranë1996. page.introduction page.18

⁸Weller Marc "Contentious Citizenship Koha – Prishtinë 2009. page.33

⁹Weller Marc "Contentious Citizenship Koha – Prishtinë 2009. page.34

⁷⁹ Zimmermann Warren."Sources of one Catastrophe Printing House: Besa-Tiranë1996. page.78

⁷⁹ Zimmermann Warren."Sources of one Catastrophe Printing House: Besa-Tiranë1996. Page. 80

¹² Albright Madeleine. Lady Secretary .autobiography, Printing House: Dudaj-Tiranë 2004 page. 443

- Protecting the rights of all in Yugoslavia
- Legitimate concerns and aspirations will be taken fully into account

At this Conference, the Kosovo issue was treated as if it does not exist at all. Practically, it didn't exist as an International problem, because, according to political pronouncements LD, it was treated as a problem of violations of human rights and freedoms, and so was it treated by the International community at the meetings.

The international community was mainly focused to appease Serbia in relation to Serbs in Croatia and elsewhere. It was clear that the conference hoped that the guarantee of a regime for minorities and autonomy for Serbs would reduce opposition of Belgrade to the independence of Republics¹⁷. As always, Serbia had rejected any proposal and therefore EC had offered recognition republics to those states that wanted independence, provided that the unilateral is to be subjected to some conditions, including in particular, the provisions on human rights and minority according to the proposed Carrington Plan.¹⁸ On the other hand, this had opened the way for recognition of Croatia, Slovenia, Bosnia and Macedonia Statehood, but this decision was disastrous for Kosovo. Kosovo was denied the right of self-determination as well as other republics, which set the date for December 23, 1991 until Yugoslav Republics submit an application for their Independence. Arbitrarily, the Conference has denied this right or opportunity of Kosovo. Requests were officially submitted by Slovenia, Croatia, Bosnia and Herzegovina, and "Kosovo has presented a letter addressed to Lord Carrington, Chairman of the Conference on Yugoslavia, for recognition on a day before the deadline."²⁰ This fact proved that our political parties and parallel created institutions do not function as genuine state institutions and at the same time, had not formed groups of experts who were familiar with the international legal and diplomatic procedures. This case was supposed to make them understand that it is not enough that it was related to such serious matter, as the justified demand for independence or separation of a state is required only with a letter and addressed to inadequate addresses. An amateur spectrum which accesses the political aspect of Kosovo has continued to the end of its existence. Requirements for the said issue were received by the Arbitration Commission of the EC, headed by a French constitutional lawyer, Badinter. In understanding the letter, the petition from Pristina was not taken into consideration at all by Badinter Commission. Different Conferences and diplomatic meetings proceeded to resolve the Yugoslav Crisis. Such Conference was held on August 26 to 28, 1992 in London, where the Kosovo issue was ignored even though "Kosovo took part in the Conference, but was not present in the hall where the discussion was held in a room known as the " echo chamber ". Direct television broadcasting could be transmitted and here and then, Lord Carrington and other senior officials would visit the room and in an arrogant way as required by Rugova and his delegation. However, there was no any substantial commitment to the issue of Kosovo²¹.

Fortunately, this conference also failed, as Serbian hegemonic appetites for the creation of a Greater Serbia again "saved" Kosovo. Thus, I affirmed that we survived, because if they would have accepted the recommendations of the current and later Conference, international diplomacy would certainly sacrifice the interests of the people of Kosovo.⁸¹

13 Albright Madeleine. Lady Secretary .autobiography, Printing House: Dudaj-Tiranë 2004 page. 443

14 Zimmermann Warren."Sources of one Catastrophe Printing House: Besa-Tiranë 1996 page.129

15 Zimmermann Warren."Sources of one Catastrophe Printing House: Besa-Tiranë 1996. page.132

16 General Convention of Carrington for a long-period solution, October 18, 1991

17 Weller Marc "Contentious Citizenship Koha – Prishtinë 2009. Page .98

18 Weller Marc "Contentious Citizenship Koha – Prishtinë 2009. Page .99

19 Weller Marc "Contentious Citizenship Koha – Prishtinë 2009. page.100

20 Weller Marc "Contentious Citizenship Koha – Prishtinë 2009. page.100

At the Council Meeting held in Edinburgh on 12 December 1992, the EC stated that "the autonomy of Kosovo within Serbia must be restored", by indicating to Kosovo Albanian leadership, that their wider interest will not be represented in the context led by the EU.

European Diplomacy runs in the CSCE framework, but OSCE was more concerned of the risk of the wide spread of instability from Kosovo to Macedonia, which would include, Greece and possibly Turkey, which results in the implementation of the so-called preventive diplomacy. OSCE began its Mission in Kosovo, Sandzak and Vojvodina on September 8, 1992 and remained there until June 1993, when Belgrade had withdrawn the consent made to this Mission, as the CSCE arrived at a decision that crippled Yugoslavia should be suspended from participation in the duty of this International Organization.

"After the signing of the Dayton Agreement in 1995, the situation in Kosovo began to get more difficult. Kosovo Albanians were aware of Bosnians, Croats, Slovenes and Macedonians experiences who had split from Yugoslavia and had created their independent states, but whereas, their political leadership still continued with the call for patience."²³

Action of International Diplomacy toward the issue of Kosovo

International Diplomacy was stereotype, slow and not unique. Everyone knew that Serbia under Milosevic's leadership is making terror of genocide proportions against the Albanian people in Kosovo, but this was still reluctantly admitted publicly as they were aware that if the international democratic public would understand the truth of what was happening in Kosovo, then their governments would be required to undertake serious steps in preventing this tragedy. Furthermore, the visit of the German Foreign Minister to Albania on 6 February 1998 with regards to the issue of Kosovo, stated: "We are concerned and Milosevic must understand that the situation there is being monitored closely, especially by the U.S. and Germany government. A Serbian minority in Kosovo cannot rule 90 % of Albanians there. Thus, we shall seek a political solution, as we are aware that Belgrade makes deceptive polity " ²⁴, but, Mr. Kinkel, after this meeting also in his conference held with reporters, did not hesitate to proclaim the diplomatic stands on Kosovo issue. At this press conference, he stated: "Related to Kosovo issue, we also have the same opinion for the issue of the Kurds, not separatism. We do not support Kosovo Independence. Kosovo unfortunately was not included in the Dayton Agreement, but we will try to do something, but we cannot interfere in the Internal Affairs of Kosovo, as we did not even support the separatist movement."²¹. France formulated this position as: either the existing status quo or independence, but a substantial autonomy. Minister of Foreign Affairs of France, Hubert Vedrin , in a meeting with his Albanian counterpart , Paskal Milo, March 6 , 1998 in Paris, however expressed the position of French diplomacy on the issue of Kosovo as: " I want to confirm here the attitude of France toward Kosovo, which has to do with finding a formula of autonomy as it has existed , an autonomy with significant role, but in no way to think about independence". Strange stand about Kosovo was done by the Prime Minister of Albania, Mr. Fatos Nano, who during the meeting in Crans Montana but also expressed openly against the independence of Kosovo without being asked to do so".

Contact Group⁸²

The entire international fondling diplomacy, rather than appeasing Milosevic and Serbia, created a self-deception and self-esteem to the Serbs that they are really "celestial people" and that they are more powerful than the whole world. It was perhaps understandable

²¹ Milo Paskal. Diary of a Foewreign Minister –Conflict of Kosovo 1997-2001. Toena-Tiranë 2009. page. 33

22 Milo Paskal. Diary of a Foewreign Minister –Conflict of Kosovo 1997-2001. Toena-Tiranë 2009. page. 36

23 Milo Paskal. Diary of a Foewreign Minister –Conflict of Kosovo 1997-2001. Toena-Tiranë 2009. page 75

24 Albright Madeleine. Lady Secretary .autobiography, Printing House: Dudaj-Tiranë 2004. page. 445

that after them, they were supported by almost the entire European diplomacy. This support of Serbia stands as an evidence from the Contact Group Meeting in London which was a transatlantic task force for the Balkans, comprising of the United States, Russia, United Kingdom, France, Germany and Italy. At this meeting led by Secretary for Foreign Affairs of Great Britain, Mr. Robin Cook, in which an effort was made to Serbia with the threat of applying sanctions if violence continues in Kosovo, after the speech of U.S. Secretary, Mrs. Madeleine Albright, who among others said: " Lancaster House, the magnificent building where we have gathered today, is the same building in which foreign ministers from Western countries had held so many fruitless sessions for Bosnia. From the beginning of the decade (the 90-s), the international community had underestimated the first signs of ethnic cleansing in the Balkans. Therefore, we should clearly bring out wrong lessons from such experience. Violence in Kosovo is new, but the problem created by Milosevic's ruthless ambition is not new. I have warned that the Kosovo issue will have repercussions throughout the Region; therefore, Serbs cannot be allowed to call it an internal matter of their own. KLA would not exist, unless the rights of Kosovans have not been denied, and also concrete measures should be taken, to enforce our authority over Belgrade. This is how we forced Milosevic to sit at Dayton table, and this is the only language Milosevic understands "²⁴. These suggestions were supported only by the UK representative-Secretary for Foreign Affairs, Mr. Robin Cook, others: French Foreign Minister Hubert Vedrine, insisted that the sanctions should be postponed, condemned the commitment with the KLA and declare clearly our opposition to the independence of Kosovo. Also, Lamberto Dini of Italy, was concerned whether the sanctions applied against Milosevic should be reduced, instead of adding the willingness to cooperate and encourage us to discuss more thoroughly how to stop the smuggling of weapons to KLA. Yevgeny Primakov-who was against such meetings, in sign of protest, sent one of his deputies, who used blocking tactics and opposed any punitive measure against Serbia of Milosevic"²⁵. Virtually, the same stands had the Contact Group in its Second Meeting held in March 25th in Bonn, Germany, as headed by German Foreign Minister Klaus Kinkel, and as he himself says, Albright stated: "This meeting has convinced me that this group was not the proper organization to oppose Milosevic". Since its formation, the Contact Group claimed that the issue of Kosovo should and can be solved by balanced statements that will be adopted from time to time. Since the beginning, the majority of this group have perceived the problem of Kosovo as an internal matter of Yugoslavia. Therefore, these diplomatic dredging persuaded Madame Albright, that the role of America is not enough just to act as " part of the deal in Kosovo " , but America must lead this process. The U.S Administration also did not want to get involved into a new confrontation, which may require the use of force, nor was the Department of Defence, which had a compromise on the issue of maintaining U.S. troops in Bosnia, was willing to take into consideration the possibility of other missions in the Balkans. "Hence, as a result of this and my personal horror, the administration is not reaffirming the warnings of Christmas 1992 ".

⁸³**Warnings of U.S. Diplomacy**

This inert approach of Kosovo issue arising from most responsible levels of America, compelled Secretary of the State, Madeleine Albright to act and persuade or compel her subordinates to urgently discuss the possibility of bombing, which is the "Lack of a clear warning, which Milosevic would interpret as a green light to practice repression." With regard to this purpose, on April 23, 1999, Madeleine Albright, called Bob Gelbard and Strobe

²⁵ Albright Madeleine. Lady Secretary .autobiography, Printing House: Dudaj-Tiranë 2004. page. 445

²⁶ Albright Madeleine. Lady Secretary .autobiography, Printing House: Dudaj-Tiranë 2004. page.446

²⁷ Albright Madeleine. Lady Secretary .autobiography, Printing House: Dudaj-Tiranë 2004. page. 446

²⁸ Albright Madeleine. Lady Secretary .autobiography, Printing House: Dudaj-Tiranë 2004. page. 447

Talbot to discuss this issue with Bob Berger who "pointed out that the steps we were undertaking were not sufficient. Kosovo will go towards a confrontation of a large scale, if such political agreement is not achieved, which will not happen unless Milosevic is made to feel threatened, and he will not feel threatened until the use of coercion is applied primarily. Our stand at this time was that "nothing is excluded. This statement sounded weak; hence, Sandy Berger tried to intercept these discussions, and angrily asked: "How can you talk about bombing in the middle of Europe? What are the goals you want to score? What are you going to do the next day? It is an irresponsible action to proceed with threatening statements without a reasonable plan. From the way the State Department are talking about bombing, it seems that you are completely out of your minds!" However, the Secretary of the State, Albright, decisively stopped Berger, and said: "I cannot afford anymore! Whenever someone talks about the using force, personal attacks commence. Five years ago, when I proposed the use of force in Bosnia, Tony Lake did not let me bring my justification to an end, Now acting as the Secretary of the State, I am insisting that at least, we should sit and discuss this issue!:"²⁹

Presentation of Kosovo Liberation Army

The entire international and local approach toward the issue of Kosovo has not proved any productive results which the people of Kosovo has hoped for with full of patience and sacrifice. But logically, this vacuum between words and actions created the space for other progressive forces, but now, not political but military forces took the responsibility and leadership of Kosovo into their hands. Therefore, in this way, they have succeeded in making and compelling international diplomacy to think and act differently; but until then with conferences, the resolution submissions, complaints, suggestions, demands and requests are without any positive results. This force was presented to the public as the Kosovo Liberation Army, KLA. The beginning of organizing of the first cells of KLA was extremely difficult which also carried its own price, but its growth didn't stop, and the sons and daughters of Kosovo and other ethnic territories had willingly joined. And so from a guerrilla cell, the KLA was raised in a military force that would protect people from Serbian genocide. Seeing this, the Serbian forces launched a powerful offensive in Drenica, precisely in the village of Vojnik, the family of the Commander - Abedin Rexha, called Sandokani. KLA forces under the direction of legendary Commander Adem Jashari, destroyed the Serbian military machinery, who shamefully retreated and fled Drenica. Serb forces during the withdrawal as a sign of revenge, killed a teacher, Halit Geci in the village of Llausha, and severely injured one pupil. Therefore, at the funeral of the teachers, Halit Geci, in November 28, 1997, KLA appeared for the first time in public⁸⁴ (Rexhep Selimi, Muje Krasniqi and Daut Haradinaj).³⁴ Then after the defeat of December 30, 1997 and January 22, 1998, military machinery of the state police begun with preparations for a large-scale police and military attack, with the sole purpose of killing the Commander of the first cells of KL, Adem Jashari, his brothers and his friends. This attack will begin in the early morning of March 5, 1998. This time, large military forces and police surrounded Prekaz, which is the main target of Jashari's

³³ Albright Madeleine. Lady Secretary .autobiography, Printing House: Dudaj-Tiranë 2004. fq. 447

³⁴ Dreshaj Sylë. Genral Movment of Albanians in war to Independency in Kosovo Dukagjini-Pejë 2002. page. 23

³⁵ Dreshaj Sylë. Genral Movment of Albanians in war to Independency in Kosovo Dukagjini-Pejë 2002. page. 32

³⁶ Malcolm Noel. Kosovo one Short History. Koha-Prishtinë& Shtëpia e Librit-Tiranë. 2001. page. 303, 304

³⁷ Albright Madeleine. Lady Secretary .autobiography, Printing House: Dudaj-Tiranë 2004. . 444

³⁸ Albright Madeleine. Lady Secretary .autobiography, Printing House: Dudaj-Tiranë 2004. page. 443

Malcolm Noel. Kosovo one Short History. Koha-Prishtinë& Shtëpia e Librit-Tiranë. 2001. page. 303, 304

⁴⁰ Milo Paskal. Diary of a Foewreign Minister –Conflict of Kosovo 1997-2001. Toena-Tiranë 2009.. page. 74

neighbourhood. The fight for the elimination of the Jashari was strict. The enemy deployed iron besiege in Prekaz and they attacked from different angles, firing with different kinds of weapons, but they encountered the commitment and extremely strong resistance, as if they were struggling with a whole army of professional and not just a few people. After a long and heroic resistance, the enemy managed to set the fire and destroy the Jashari neighbourhood. Adem Jashari with his brother Hamza, father Shaban and others fought to death, *The War of Adem Jashari was a general call to the people of Kosovo, and one could not indefinitely escape the war as imposed by a ruthless invaders. At the same time, this message was addressed to the international diplomacy that Kosovo people will pay any price to be liberated from Serbia.* Such a message of its own Commander was accepted almost by all the people of Kosovo, as well as the International Community. Particularly, the United States realized that it is impossible for Kosovo to remain a part of Serbia or any co-federal creature, named Yugoslavia and the presentation of KLA forced the international community to understand that the problem of Kosovo is not only a problem of rights and freedoms but much more.

Serious problem that could destabilize the entire Balkans which the entire Europe feared Massacre of Prekazi as emphasized by the Secretary of State of the United States herself, Ms. Madeleine Albright, "raised" the commitment "to gisht the fascism of Milosevic.. In this regard, Mrs. Albright noted that during the said period "in the face of crisis, we had constantly pressed the Serb leaders not to launch a new wave of repressions, while reminding them of the Christmas Warning (not to attack Kosovo militarily as the America will couterfight)." ³⁷ We wanted to convince moderated Albanians, while promoting the dialogue with Belgrade, which is aimed at restoring the Autonomy for Kosovo". Perhaps, for this purpose, the top U.S. interlocutor in the Balkans, Ambassador Robert Gelbard denounced the Kosovo Liberation Army, KLA as a "terrorist group" (23 Feb. 1998). But several months later, in June 1998, the State Department said the U.S. through the spokesman, James Rubin stated "that Americans had not even considered or not considered KLA as terrorist"³⁹. This statement for those who are updated with the policy of the most powerful countries, was a signal that something is changing in a positive and hopeful positive direction in solving the Kosovo issue. Thus, a small window which allows for the final solution of the Kosovo status to be different than it was proclaimed by the said day is opening in American diplomacy.

In conclusion, if Kosovo Liberation Army did not appear in public, Kosovo would not be independent and also international diplomacy in general and the U.S. in particular would not act as it had acted on the resolution of Kosovo issue.⁸⁵

Conclusion

- In all the process of solving of Kosovo issue, International Diplomacy was pro-preserving of Yugoslavia territorial integrity
- International Diplomacy attempted to solve the crises of Kosovo with peaceful means at any condition.
- Problems, such as Kosovo or Yugoslavia case, was proved that it could not be solved with conferences, resolutions or declarations.
- Relying on any political-diplomacy discussion (though tempted), none of the cases can be preliminary excluded.
- Presentation of KLA came in the most suitable and favorable time for Kosovo, right at the moment when the fall of communism and cold war was expected to happen.

Zimmermann Warren."Burimet e një katastrofe" Shtëpia botuese Besa-Tiranë 1996. page. 79

- If it had come in the public earlier, there would have been ten times more casualties, and international diplomacy would have had more favorable access to Kosovo, and if it had come later when Yugoslavia would have strengthened its positions, International factor would not support Kosovo.
- Kosovo is the best evidence that diplomacy is the art of using possibilities and moments, as it was the case of Conference of Rambouillet.
- Serbian policy identified with its president, Millosheviq, was a good lesson of how to loose a century international diplomacy support and friendship
- Kissinger's quoting: "Diplomacy without force is like a symphony without musical instruments", was an explicit saying.

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EUROPEAN UNION – RETROSPECTION AND PROSPECTS

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Abstract

European Union has entered into a turning point of its history. The number of member-states has increased nearly 5-fold. Therefore, the need of new institutional and legal solution is urgent.

Political context of the undergoing integration processes is different than at the beginnings: the “cold war” is the past. The threat of large military conflict is in Europe smallish. New threats and challenging are emerging, instead of: terrorism, organized crimes and natural environment protection. There are new “actors” at the global economic and political scene – with increasing importance of China, India and other “emerging markets”.

A historical perspective leads to better understanding of these processes and to find better solutions. And brings to light foundations of the European unity: common civilization values and the aim of peaceful development.

Keywords: European Union, integration, history, politics

Sixty years of Schuman Declaration

The European Union – retrospection and prospects

Sixty years after the announcement of Schuman Declaration, the European Union has found itself at a turning point since it has been enlarged by a group of as many as twelve member states which stands for an 80% growth. The new Europe is facing the challenges of the third millennium in which the whole world is different than it used to be sixty years ago.

The set of institutional and legal solutions of the European Communities established for 6 states has turned out to be insufficient. Thus, the Treaty of Maastricht provided for the need of its revision. The first not very successful trial to introduce such changes was the Amsterdam Treaty agreed upon in 1997 and next partial trial was the Treaty of Nice from December 2002. In summer 2003 a proposal of a “Treaty establishing a Constitution for Europe” was presented by the European Convent. This treaty was rejected following its defeat in national referendums in France and the Netherlands. However, a straight majority of the solutions suggested in the above mentioned Treaty was included in the Treaty of Lisbon, which came into force on 1st December 2009.

Entering the path of cooperation by the European nations, which was shown in May 1950 by Jean Monnet and Robert Schuman, was a result of the experiences of previous generations and whole historical eras. As Jerzy Łukaszewski explicitly stated⁸⁶: ‘The future cannot be separated from the past. History is a continuous process. It is like a river the upper reaches of which still affect the lower ones. The one who does not know the sources and the initial impulses of European integration cannot understand the tendencies, traditions and the written, as well as the unwritten, rules which nowadays set the direction of its development’.

⁸⁶ Łukaszewski J. 2002. *Cel: Europa. Dziewięć esejów o budowniczych jedności europejskiej*, Noir sur Blanc, Warszawa, p.11

This work is an attempt to address, from such a perspective, the essential issues of the future of the united Europe, such as the foundation of common values, sovereignty and peaceful development.

Europe as a community

It is a very common tendency not to distinguish the history of the European Community as an institution initiated at the beginning of the 1950s from the European community which is not capitalized. Owing to that community the notion of Europe is not narrowed down to a geographical terms but is pervaded with rich cultural, political and social meanings which constitute the heritage of the European civilization. Three main cultural streams participated in the above mentioned establishment of Europe as a community. The oldest one is the civilization of ancient Greece. It is not an accident that the word 'democracy' is derived from the Greek language. It was there where different branches of philosophy, science, literature and art were initiated.

The second centre of European culture was ancient Rome. Owing to it the majority of European, and other, nations have the same alphabet. The means of conveying universal values has also become the system of law or the very Latin language⁸⁷.

The third source is the Christianity, which as a matter of fact was taken from outside but it is Europe which radiates it over the world. A range of European nations were shaped in the circle of Christian culture. An important example is Poland where accepting Christianity stands for the beginning of the written history of the state and the nation.

The integration in the scope of economy also dates back to distant centuries. Roman money was accepted far beyond borders of the empire. Cities in Poland were located on the Magdeburg Law. Many European cities were associated in the Hanseatic League. The economic integration gained speed in the 19th century, the era of steam and electricity as well as stormy development of a new system, capitalism. The classics of the economic thought, such as J. S. Mill or A. Smith laid the theoretical foundations for modern economy, whereas D. Ricardo explained the benefits of international exchange of material goods in his theory of comparative costs.

Among the thinkers of past centuries, the pioneers of the idea of the unity of Europe, there were also Poles. In his work *O wiecznym przymierzu między narodami (On eternal covenant among the nations)* Wojciech B. Jarzębowski presented a project of the European constitution which at the time of the 19th century was quite innovative.

Unfortunately, instead of a progress in integration the World War I broke out in Europe. In the interwar period an important role in the intellectual debate played Richard N. Coudenhove-Kalergi, whose book 'Pan Europe' was the source of inspiration for the Pan European Union. Among the projects of unification put forward by politicians, the conception of the United States of Europe draws particular attention. That conception was presented on the forum of the League of Nations in June 1929 by Aristide Briand, the multiple minister of foreign affairs and prime minister of France⁸⁸.

The outbreak of the next world war provoked people to reflection on the reason why it was not possible to avoid it in spite of the fact that the World War I broke out only twenty years before and the trials which were undertaken to prevent the next potential conflict.

The proposal to initiate such a cooperation, which would safeguard peace, formulated by Jean Monnet and approved by French Foreign Minister Robert Schuman, was announced on 9th May 1950. A year later under the Treaty of Paris the European Coal and Steel

⁸⁷ Kubiak Z. 2003. *Piękno i gorycz Europy. dzieje Greków i Rzymian*, Świat Książki, Warszawa.

⁸⁸ Marszałek A. 1996. *Z historii europejskiej idei integracji międzynarodowej*, UŁ, Łódź.

Community was formed, the institution which initiated the history of the present European Union.

In the first years of establishing the legal and institutional bases for the European Communities an important role played: Robert Schuman, Konrad Adenauer and Alcide de Gasperi. Those politicians were Catholics, who were famous for their religious beliefs. It is worth noting that in that period in 1995 the Council of Europe approved the sky blue flag with a circle of twelve stars on it, which is one of the symbols of Holy Mother. On that occasion the Council of Europe funded a stained glass in the cathedral in Strasburg.

Looking from the perspective of the previous centuries of forming Europe as a cultural community as well as several decades of the development of the European Communities it is possible to note a kind of move away from the underlying principles, which were the clear inspiration in the first years of forming the European structures.

There are lots of examples illustrating this view. One of them is given by the project of the Treaty establishing a Constitution for Europe in the version proposed by the European Convent in July 2003. In the preamble to this document there was a reference to the heritage of the ancient Greece and Rome, whereas the existence of Christianity was carefully concealed. What is more, in the last sentence of the preamble there were words: 'being grateful to the members of the European Convention for drafting this Constitution on behalf of the citizens and states of Europe', which was ironically promoted by the rejection of the Treaty in France and in Holland.

Thus, it is so necessary and essential to reflect on the foundations of the European unity. In this context it is worth reminding that John Paul II repeatedly warned that democracy which is formed without any internal cement, that is any system of values, can be easily transformed into totalitarianism: 'it is a threat of a democracy allying with ethical relativism which deprives the life of a civil community of a long-lasting moral point of reference, at the same time radically taking from them the ability to identify the truth since if there is no ultimate truth being a guide for a political activity and giving direction to it, such ideas and beliefs can be easily used for the sake of the purposes set by the authorities. History teaches that democracy without values is easily transformed into an open or disguised totalitarianism'⁸⁹.

The question of sovereignty

The word 'sovereignty' is derived from the adjective sovereign (French *souverain* means the supreme, ruling) and refers to the politics, standing for 'independence from any power in relations with other states'. Such a sovereignty was applied in some of former absolute monarchies as well as the totalitarian states of the epoch of Hitler or Stalin, which existed in recent times. Nowadays to some extent sovereign are the United States of America.

At present it is not possible to measure the sovereignty in binary number system treating it in a static and comprehensive way, assuming that there is sovereignty or there is no sovereignty. In this way are concealed both economic as well as political and cultural mutual bonds which were accumulated among the states at the time of globalization.

Moreover, sovereignty is not an independent carrier of the supreme values. That is why, a voluntary limitation of sovereignty is frequently effected in order to achieve other benefits all the more so because sovereignty is reduced in one respect and broadened in the other. States join various international institutions and integration groups in this way achieving many economic and social benefits at the expense of renouncing a part of its

⁸⁹ Encyclical: *Veritatis splendor*, n.101, quotation after: *Europa jutra*, selected and drawn up by A. Sójka. 2000. Publishing House: M, Kraków, p. 252 – 253

sovereignty. Then they gain the opportunity to co-decide not only about themselves but also about the whole community to which they belong.

The question of sovereignty was among the key issues on the debate over the causes of the cataclysm of World War II as well as the ways to prevent a similar tragedy in the future, which can be even more dreadful bearing in mind that it is possible now to make use of nuclear weapon.

One of such proposals was presented by Winston Churchill in his speech in Zurich in September 1946 - it was the reconciliation between Germany and France. Moreover, he was also in favor of establishing such an European integration group in which: 'the military strength of an individual state will become less important since small countries will be of the same importance as the big ones in this way being proud of participating in common cause'⁹⁰.

The author of the project of the postwar order in Europe which initiated the establishment of the present European Union is the French politician, Jean Monnet. He deemed utopian the idea to build a European federation in a short period of time. In his opinion, the edifice of community constructions should be erected gradually, making use of favorable opportunities in appropriate timing.

According to both Jean Monnet and Winston Churchill, the initial condition for the new European construction is the reconciliation between Germany and France. It should be effected by means of a joint undertaking of governments and nations. To that project were supposed to be invited other democratic European countries. In such an accord the status of Germany and France were supposed to be the same. Such a proposal, formulated according to the principles of partnership and put forward as soon as five years after the world, made it easier for Germany to come back to the family of world nations.

Monnet was convinced that the unity of Europe cannot be built by way of realization of a single project. He claimed that integration should be started from a selected economic sector and then broadened onto following areas. Integration was supposed to safeguard peace so its aim was of political nature. The tool of its realization was economy. Jean Monnet proposed that integration should embrace the two key sectors of industry, which at the time decided upon the military potential of the military industry. These were coal and steel industries. Another argument in favor of such a solution was also the fact that the hotbed of conflicts between Germany and France used to be the Ruhr Basin. Establishing the proposed community made it possible to solve the disputes in a peaceful way by means of mediation of supranational institutions.

Monnet's proposal was accepted by the French Foreign Minister. It was announced on 9th May 1950 and is referred to as the Schuman Declaration. Negotiations were started and one year later was signed the Treaty of Paris, under which the European Coal and Steel Community was set up. It started its activity in 1952.

It is also noteworthy that it was the principle of limiting sovereignty in favor of the community institutions representing the states which laid at the root of the project of European integration, which with the course of time led to the establishment of the structures referred to as the European Union in the Treaty of Maastricht. Gradually, competence of the Community institutions is growing. It is accomplished as a compromise between the supporters of deeper integration and its opponents.

The fear connected with rejecting part of sovereignty can be observed in all societies of countries candidating to the European Union⁹¹ - since the first enlargement by Great

⁹⁰ Quotation after: Churchill W. *Speech in Zurich, September 1946*, in: *Building European Union. A Documentary History and Analysis*. Ed. T. Salmon, W. Niwll 1997. Manchester Univ. Press, p. 26 (own translation),

⁹¹ The process of the enlargement of the European Union has not been completed yet. At present the country closest to the membership is Croatia.

Britain, Denmark and Ireland in 1973 to the last enlargement by the group of twelve states from the years 2004 and 2007. In Norway the membership in the Communities has been rejected twice, following the completed negotiations, by slight majority in national referendum. The issue of its presence in the European Union is still dividing the Norwegian society.

The debate over the future of the European Union is thus connected with one of the most fundamental disputes – between the supporters of the federation model and its opponents.

Is Europe meant to become a federation?

The word federation is derived from Latin (*federatio* means alliance) and stands for a structure in which the entities forming it transfer part of their rights to the federal bodies representing them.

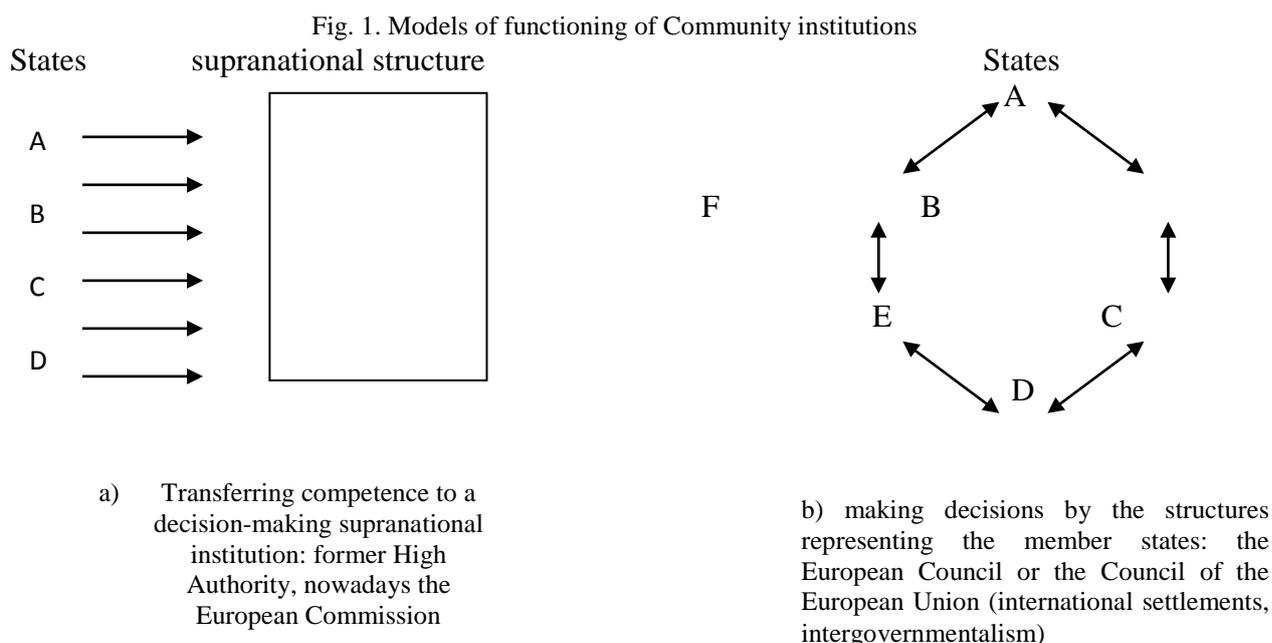
In the 20th century some unaccomplished ideas of federation were put forward under pressure of some stormy events. Among them was the concept of the Marshal Joseph Piłsudski to establish a federation which would among other things include Poland and Ukraine. In the period preceding the outbreak of World War II and in its initial years the negotiations were held to federalize Poland and Czechoslovakia. At the end of the year 1939, in the face of looming threat from Germany the proposal of a French-British Union was being considered.

At that time the Research Institute for Federal Union was established. British authors published several books on the perspective of European federation which contributed to strengthening of the federal stream in different countries, including Italy.

During the war the supporters of federalism perceived it as a permanent solution to the issue of threat from Germany and protection against the possible outbreak of the next war. The matters of this kind were included among other things in the manifesto from Ventone by Italian federalists Altiero Spinelli and Ernesto Rossi in 1941 or *Manifeste de la Resistance Europeenne* adopted in Geneva in July 1944 by the participants of the resistance movement from 9 countries. That year in the USA the Legal Committee of the 5th Pan European Congress drafted the Project of a Constitution for the United States of Europe.

The founders of the conception of the European Coal and Steel Community, Jean Monnet and Robert Schuman, were pragmatists. They deemed utopist the possibility to set up a European federation several years after the war, although, at the same time, they were in favor of establishing it in longer run. It is worth noting that the founded according to their conception European Coal and Steel Community established the institution of the High Authority, which exercised supranational competence. The member states renounced part of their sovereignty in favor of the above mentioned institution. Thus, in the first Community there was a clear leaven of a federal structure.

The two subsequent Communities established 6 years later, the European Economic Community and EURATOM were of different character. In this case the most important decisions were not made by supranational institutions but as a result of intergovernmental settlements (fig. 1).



Such an essential change was a result of several factors. The formula of the European Economic Community was much broader than the one adopted in two other Communities which were limited to the sectors explicitly defined in their names. In practice, the European Economic Community covered all the rest of the economy. Thus, in that case maintaining the federal character of the decision-making structures would make it necessary to limit the sovereignty of the member states in plenty of new areas. There was no political consent for that all the more so because in the second half of the 1950s the threat from the block of the East European states considerably diminished. As a result it ceased to be one of the prime movers in the scope of defense policy as it used to be in the period of establishing the European Coal and Steel Community.

Another formula of the EEC and EURATOM as well as changeable political conditions contributed to the fact that for the next decades the main stream of integration was not set by politics or the issue of defense but more and more frequently by the economy.

The dispute between the supporters of the federal option and its opponents was repeatedly arising in the course of the Community history and is still alive. In June 1979 the first general election to the European Parliament took place, whereas already in June 1980 Agostino Spinelli, who was famous for his federalist beliefs, sent a letter to the deputies criticizing the way of functioning of the community structures and the mode of arranging the decision-making settlements. He suggests the consolidation of the law which is scattered among individual Treaties as well as other changes by accepting the Treaty on European Union. There was a slight response to that letter. Only 9 deputies came to the meeting in the restaurant in Strasburg. In this way the so-called 'crocodile club' initiated its activity (the name is derived from the name of the restaurant in which the meeting took place). Due to the fact that another group embracing the opponents of the federation called 'kangaroo club' was formed, the European Parliament became a forum for discussion between the federalists and supporters of the intergovernmental option⁹².

The proposal aiming to limit the scope of issues settled on the basis of the unanimity principle as well as to strengthen the importance of the European Parliament and other institutions was the plan of Genscher-Colombo, presented at the beginning of 1981. In the

⁹² Cf. Swann D. 1996. *European Economic Integration; The Common Market, European Union and Beyond*. E. Edgar, Cheltenham, p. 43-44.

course of discussions, in June 1983, the European Council adopted the Solemn Declaration on the European Union which did not include many facts.

The next step belonged the Parliament, which in February 1984 adopted the preliminary Treaty establishing the European Union. That proposal was not legally binding. It was just a voice in the debate over the future of the unified Europe. One year later, in spite of the protest from Great Britain, Denmark and Greece, it was decided to summon an intergovernmental conference in order to prepare a new treaty.

As a result of the negotiations, being a compromise between the supporters of different options, the Single European Act was adopted. It did not satisfy the supporters of closer integration, it did not meet the expectations of those deputies, which were expressed in the draft project of the Treaty on European Union. Thus, on the ceremony of signing the Treaty in February 1986 in Luxemburg the European Parliament and Commission were represented only by its vice-presidents in this way showing reserve towards it.

At that time the European Commission was chaired by Jack Delors, one of its most dynamic presidents, who exercised his office for two consecutive terms of office (10 years is the hitherto record). The settlements of the Single European Act were only gradual points towards further integration. In the sphere of economic solutions the above mentioned Treaty provided for the implementation of single European market till the end of 1992. A natural supplement of that stage was the program of a single currency. The premature project of the currency union provided the so-called Werner plan from November 1970.

The idea of a single currency was once again mentioned in the reports of Delors in 1989. This time it was well-received and the program of the economic and currency union was included in the Treaty of Maastricht of the year 1992.

This Treaty is another compromise. In the working version of the Treaty, being the initial material for further works, there was a provision on the European federation. In the face of a decisive objection from Great Britain, it was removed from the Treaty⁹³.

The next Treaties: the Treaty of Amsterdam and Nice do not include any important new solutions. We will not find any reference to the federation as one of the aims of integration in the Treaty of Lisbon, either. For this reason, in the dispute over the future of Europe questions are asked whether it is supposed to transform into a European federation. The dispute between the supporters of federalism and the intergovernmental option is probably going to last long. As before it is going to shape the patterns according to which further integration is going to follow.

Integration versus the European security

As it has been already mentioned, safeguarding peace in the postwar Europe was the underlying condition for Monnet's project of unification. In less than half a year from the time when this program was presented by Schuman, France put forward another proposal called Pleven's plan. It provided for setting up single European defense structures.

The negotiations started in February 1951 led to signing the treaty setting up the European Defense Community by the foreign ministers of the six European states. In 17 detailed settlements, protocols and declarations accompanying the treaty were among other things defined the principles of cooperation between the future European army and NATO, relations between the new institution and Great Britain as well as were specified the principles of financing it and its institutional structure.

⁹³ After signature of the Treaty John Major said the following thing: 'Great Britain has made effective use of the negotiations from Maastricht in order to strengthen the power of governments of the member states. Now it is clear that the Community is going to remain a union of sovereign national states. It is as the people expect it to be, namely that the decisions are taken by their parliaments' according to: 'The Economist', 25th September 1993.

Several months later, in September 1952, in the Luxemburg resolution the will was expressed to establish the European Political Community. A new team, chaired by Henry Spaak, was appointed to prepare the project of the new system. It was preliminarily accepted by the six member states in March 1953. It provided for replacing the already existing European Steel and Coal Community and future European Defense Community by the European Community.

The institutions of the European Community were supposed to have a supranational character: bicameral parliament, consisting of the Popular Chamber and the Senate. The Popular Chamber, appointed in general elections, was supposed to consist of 268 deputies. The division of seats would depend on the number of population of the given state, whereas excluding the opportunity to obtain majority by two bigger states. France was supposed to have 70 seats in the Chamber (its overseas territories were taken into consideration), Germany and Italy – respectively 63 seats, Belgium and Holland – respectively 30 seats, Luxemburg – 12 seats. The Senators, in the number of 87, were supposed to be appointed by the country parliaments.

The European Political Community, in the period of two years from the time the Popular Chamber was constituted, was supposed to take over the competence of the European Coal and Steel Community as well as the European Defense Community.

Equipping the Community with the institutions of federal character, at the same time in the draft version of the Treaty were included the provisions which aimed at limiting its power over numerous issues. The unanimous consent of the Council of National Ministers was required to undertake any international actions by the Executive Council. Unanimity was also supposed to apply when ratifying international agreements and treaties.

The commencement of the negotiations took place during the period of considerable political changes occurring both in the world as well as in some of the six member states. The daring project of the European Community was enthusiastically accepted in some federalist circles. It was also endorsed by the second Hague Congress, held from 8th to 10th October 1953. The circle of its participants was limited to the representatives of the six member states, whereas the authorities and parliaments of individual countries treated that project with reserve. However, the most meaningful change was taking place in France, which in the years from 1952 to 1954 following the change of government gradually went over from the position of the initiator of the Community projects to the position of the most obstructive and difficult negotiation partner.

The first round of the negotiations was held in Rome from 22nd September till 9th October 1953. Then the idea of direct elections to the future parliament was accepted. The most daring attitude was shown by Germany, the Dutch endorsed the idea of a custom union, whereas the French were the most doubtful and reserved.

The second round of the negotiations, held in Paris from 12th December 1953 till 8th March 1954, was dominated by the institutional issues. There was divergence regarding the role of the Upper Chamber in the Parliament and the principles of the single market (these experiences were later applied in the negotiations over the establishment of the European Economic Community). The agreement on merging the European Coal and Steel Community and the European Defense Community was not reached, either.

That phase of negotiations was supposed to be evaluated by the Council of Ministers of the European Steel and Coal Community on 30th March 1954. It was postponed, however, in the face of mounting difficulties in the negotiations.

Several months later, on 30th August 1954 a deadly blow was dealt to the idea of the European Political Community by the French parliament, which under the pretence of procedural reservations decided not to put the ratification of the treaty to the vote. In this way the far-reaching idea of political and defense cooperation was ruined for several decades.

However, the idea of the single market did not suffer any damage. It emerged several years later during the negotiations over the Treaty of Rome, establishing the European Economic Community.

The issue of European defense, abandoned 50 years ago, emerged repeatedly on different stages of its development. Already in the year 1958 de Gaulle initiated preliminary talks on the political cooperation. A year later it was put forward the proposal of regular meetings (every three months) of the foreign ministers of the six member states prepared by a small secretariat. In July 1961, during the 'summit' of the leaders of the member states in Bonn was summoned a commission chaired by Christian Fouchet, French ambassador in Denmark. It was supposed to specify the ways of closer political cooperation. The proposals put forward by the commission, referred to as Fouchet's plan, aimed to set up a 'union of states'. During the negotiations the name 'the European Union' appeared for several times (in the document of January 1962 referred to as the 'union of states and Europeans').

Finally, facing considerable difference of opinions, Fouchet's plan failed. The later act of signing the treaty between France and Germany in January 1963 confirmed some politicians in their belief that these countries wanted to dominate.

Following several years the issue of cooperation in foreign policy emerged again in Davignon's report from the year 1970. Regular meetings of ministers of foreign affairs or leaders of the member states were proposed. The initiated dialog was called the European Political Cooperation. However, the scope of that cooperation was limited.

The cooperation in the scope of foreign policy was confirmed in the Single European Act (in article 30). The condition to assume a common stand, in the mode of intergovernmental settlements, was unanimity. The will of closer cooperation in the issues of defense was also declared. The institutional framework of the common foreign and defense policy was initially shaped in the Treaty on European Union, the second pillar of the European Union, and next in the Treaty of Lisbon by appointing 'the minister of foreign affairs' of the European Union.

Great Britain and the European integration

In the speech of Zurich, which has already been quoted, Winston Churchill also said: 'Time is short (...) If we want to build the United States of Europe, under whatever name, we need to start now (...) The first step is to set up the Council of Europe (...) It is a very urgent work. It should be chaired jointly by France and Germany'⁹⁴.

The words about the Council of Europe came true in less than three years later. Interestingly, Churchill claimed that the work to build the community European constructions should be jointly led by France and Germany. It was not without reason that he did not name his country then since Great Britain was in favor of integration of the postwar Europe but did not want to participate in it. It limited itself to being a catalyst or a midwife in the process of the birth of the united Europe. However, it could not find its place in this project. Thus, this country did not answer Schuman's appeal of 9th May 1950. Great Britain was the big absent in the European Coal and Steel Community in spite of the clear pressure from the USA.

The above mentioned absence resulted from several factors. Firstly, from the belief that the European peace was going to be sufficiently safeguarded if the former adversaries, Germany and France, would participate in such a structure. Thus, Britain's participation in it was not necessary. Secondly, the traditional isolationism became apparent, that is the insular feeling of being different from the 'continent'. Thirdly, the transatlantic cooperation and its bonds with the Commonwealth countries⁹⁵ were more important for Great Britain than the

⁹⁴ W. Churchill Speech in Zurich, op. cit. p. 27-28

⁹⁵ Clement Atlee in his speech in the House of Commons stated: I am worried at any suggestion that we could approach Europe more than the Commonwealth. The countries of the Commonwealth are our closest friends

European bonds. Fourthly, Great Britain was in favor of a loose formula of integration which would be limited to establishing a common trade zone. It opposed to the idea of customs union and all the more the political integration, which played such a significant role in the conceptions of the 'Fathers of Europe'. Fifthly, the model of the British agriculture was different from the French one as well as the opinion on what should constitute the future of common agricultural policy.

The British also demonstrated similar reserve towards the conception of the European Defense Community. After its fall in 1954 the British delegation participated in the negotiations, chaired by Henry Spaak, over the establishment of the European Economic Community. However, it withdrew from them when the six member states agreed that the aim of the future Community is to obtain the custom union, whereas the British wanted only a free-trade zone.

When the establishment of the three Communities came true, Great Britain took an independent integration initiative. It set up the EFTA, the European Free Trade Association, along with Austria, Denmark, Norway, Portugal, Switzerland and Sweden. The association was later joined by Finland, Island and Liechtenstein. The British proposal to conclude an agreement between the EFTA and the EEC, which was supposed to broaden the free-trade zone onto the both groups, was rejected by France. Another British proposal to connect the membership in EFTA and EEC was also rejected by Gen. de Gaulle, who was ruling in France at the time.

Characteristic is that already in the year 1960, that is in less than a year since the activity of EFTA was started, Great Britain decided to join the European Communities. Also Denmark, Ireland and Norway followed the example. The difficult negotiations had a surprising outcome on 14th January 1963. General de Gaulle during the press conference expressed his opposition against joining the Community by Great Britain. The negotiators found out about the French standpoint from the journalists!

In 1967, at the time of rule of Harold Wilson, Great Britain repeated its application for participation. Like the first one it was rejected by France. In order to change this state of affairs it was necessary to wait till de Gaulle left the French political scene. His successor as the President, Georges Pompidou, already in his first conference, which took place on 10 July 1969, announced that he is not against Britain's membership in the Community.

The next negotiations for membership started in June 1970. In January 1973 Great Britain along with Denmark and Ireland became members of the European Community. The refusal to participate in the Communities at the time of its establishment meant that Great Britain voluntarily resigned its leadership when it was the only winner of World War II among the member states. Great Britain's way to membership to some extent explains its attitude towards the European integration – frequent reserve towards the federalist proposals which limited the sovereignty of member states. It also allows us to understand better the difference of opinions on the European issues between France and Great Britain.

Conclusion

The experiences of the past, according to the old maxim *historia magistra vitae est* – allow us to understand better the presence as well as indicate how the future should be shaped. Studies of the European integration teach that the issues which bothered Europe several decades ago are still surprisingly up-to-date nowadays.

First, it should be asked why the six states decided to cooperate. Setting up the European Coal and Steel Community had the fundamental political aim: to safeguard peace

(...) we are not only an European Power but also a member of the big Commonwealth and Empire'. House of Commons Debates, 5-th Ser. col. 450, col. 1314-19 Also Anthony Eden expressed his opinion in a similar tone.

and prevent a new war. In order to accomplish that, the initiators of the integration made use of the economy by starting it from two crucial sectors at the time. That aim was accomplished between the states which quite recently and in the distant past used to be at war. The process of reconciliation proceeded as well as the cooperation was becoming closer and closer. The best example is given by the role which was played in the unifying Europe by France and Germany.

In contrast to the economic integration, the political integration proceeds slowly by way of numerous failures. The latest proposal in this respect is the provision on the institution of 'the minister of foreign affairs' included in the Treaty of Lisbon. However, common foreign policy, including the defense policy, is still more a matter of a distant vision than a precise plan.

Like in the past, the issue of sovereignty is still up-to-date today. The federalist conceptions, which were alive both in the interwar period and during the war, turned out to be an illusion. Instead of a supranational integration, won the conception of 'step-by-step' integration. The first of the Communities was more federalist than two subsequent ones since its decision-making body was a supranational institution, whereas in the two subsequent ones the most fundamental decisions were taken by way of intergovernmental settlements.

Last but not least, the fundamental issue for the future of Europe is on what kind of values it is going to be built. The politicians of that time, Robert Schuman, Konrad Adenauer and Alcide de Gasperi, were aware of how unrepeatable the ongoing events were. They wanted to build the future of Europe on respect for its cultural heritage. Do the politicians who are reluctant to mention the Christian past of Europe propose in exchange any other firm point of reference to ethical values?

The experiences of the first fifty years of the European integration also teach how long, lasting even whole decades, was the way to compromise or from an idea to its fulfillment. In this process for over 5 years participates the group of states from East-Central Europe, including Poland.

KOSOVA/O AND THE CHALLENGES OF RECOGNITION

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Abstract

Kosova si a new state in the Balkans created during the process of dissolution of the former Yugoslavia. The creation of this new state was very difficult and complicated, as well. This from both perspectives: internationally and locally. The process of Kosova independence differs from the approaches we may have, but we all agree that it was a difficult process and that Kosova would not have achieved independence, without strong international engagement. The project/ion of Kosova independence is not a pure Kosovar Albanian projection. It is also an international project as well, at least to a determined extent. Kosova since its Declaration of Independence has been recognized by a considered number of states but still the challenges of recognition are being met by Kosova people and Kosova institutions. International Community regarding the right of Kosova to self determination was split to some extent whereas also we could see different approaches within the academia and scholars regarding the right to self determination of Kosova. This has made the process of Kosova recognition to be a difficult process from international perspectives even though Kosova is already recognized from more than 100 states of the World. In addition International Court of Justice didn't find Kosovo Declaration of Independence violating the International Law.

Kosova institutions also have not shown to be enough strong in the process of lobbying for more recognitions. Therefore needs for recognitions are crucial and Kosova institutions have still a task to ensure as much as possible recognitions using arguments about the right of Kosova to self determination and explaining that Kosova is a sui generis case that can not be a precedent for other people aspiring self determination.

Keywords: Recognition, international, independence, Kosova, federation

Introduction

Process of dissolution of jugoslav federation resulted with the creation of new states. Thus from this federation that had eight federal units (six republics and two autonomous provinces) seven new states are created. The first from these federal units that proclaimed independence was Slovenia followed by Croatia, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Macedonia, Monte Negro, Serbia (Vojvodina remains within Serbia) and finally Kosova with its declaration of independence.

Process of creation of the state of Kosova was a long and a difficult one, whereas this paper will not cover in details reasons of why and how Kosova became the part of Yugoslavia. But a part of paper will deal with the Kosova status within Yugoslavia and with the treatment Kosovar Albanians had from Yugoslavia and Serbia since the creation of the federation.

According to the 1946 Constitution

The foundations of Yugoslav federation were created during the Second World War, whereas the federation was sanctioned by the Constitution of the People Republic of Federative Yugoslavia, adopted on 1946. According to this Consitution Yugoslavia was

constituted of six republics and two provinces⁹⁶ whereas Kosova was integrated within this federation without being asked and without the respect about what Kosovars declared⁹⁷ and without respecting promises given to Kosovar Albanians during the anti fascist war. Nonetheless Kosova became a part of Yugoslav federation and at the same time becoming the part of constitutional system of Republic of Serbia. This constitutional position of Kosova hadn't ensured equal position of Kosovar Albanians with the people from other Yugoslav republics. Even though during some determined phases the Albanian position noted improvements, it anyway, most of the time brought Albanians into the position of the second hand citizens.

Since the Constitution of 1946 until the second constitution was adopted in 1963, Kosova continued to be the most economically undeveloped part of Yugoslavia and the most oppressed part as well. The security system of Yugoslavia degenerated extremely and Albanians were object of continual illtreatment. They for a long period of time were pushed to leave the country and go to Turkey⁹⁸ and thus a big number of them left the country forever. Albanian Constitutional position continued to shrink even more, based on the Serb insistence and this resulted with the adoption of 1963 Constitution that divested Kosova from the federal constitutive element of the Yugoslav federation.

According to 1963 Constitution

Famous Communist Yugoslav leader Tito, finally in the so called Brione Plenum⁹⁹ managed to clean bad-famed structures led by Rankovich. By this, a wave of communist freedom and democracy overflowed Yugoslavia including Kosova as well. In 1968 Albanians organized demonstrations and protests asking for equality with other people of Yugoslavia, requiring the free use of national symbols, etc . Afterwards preparations for adoption of the new constitution begin. Thus the 1963 Constitution was amended and finally Yugoslavia adopted the new Constitution in 1974 that, in a way made the position of Kosova equal to those that other republics had¹⁰⁰.

According to 1974 Constitution and on

The Constitution advanced constitutional position of Kosova but nonetheless Kosova remained the most undeveloped part of Yugoslavia. But this situation that was a good basis for development and equality didn't have a long life. Tito died in 1980 and it was clear that things would change. In 1981 students being unpleased with their economic situation demonstrated asking for beter living conditions. From economic requests demonstrations got dimensions of political requests asking for advancement of Albanian position and asking for the status of Republic of Kosova. The reactions against demonstrations were extremely huge and against Albanians were taken draconinc measures using military and police special units.

⁹⁶ See 1946 Constitution - Federal Republic of People of Yugoslavia

⁹⁷ On December 31, 1943 and January 1-2, 1944 in Bujan was held the Constitutive Conference of the Kosova Council for Liberty that is more known as Bujan Conference and where a document was adopted (Resolution) by which the aspirations of people were expressed to join Albania. This, according to the Resolution would be achieved more easily by joining the antifascist war together with the people of Yugoslavia. More about this see in: Rezoluta e Konferencës së Bujan.

⁹⁸ Noel Malcolm, Kosova një histori e shkurtër, Koha-Prishtinë&Shtëpia e librit-Tiranë, 2001

⁹⁹ The IV Plenum of Central Committee of the Yugoslav Communist League was held in Brione, on July 01, 1966 where some high level officials of security (UDBA) were accused for misuse of position. This made that Rankovich fameke resign from the party and UDBA and from this plenum a climate for improvement of Albanian position in Kosova.

¹⁰⁰ The SFRY Constitution, article 2, stipulated that the federation was comprised of the Republic of Bosnia and Herzegovina, Macedonia, Montenegro, Croatia, Slovenia and Serbia and the autonomous provinces Kosovo and Vojvodina.

Kosova was put under the extraordinary measures. Many young people were killed, extremely a big number were arrested and imprisoned and thus measures against Albanians took extraordinary sizes. Meantime Serb Academy of Sciences came up with a program¹⁰¹ by which they asked for restructuration of federation and according to this program “ the biggest evil for Serb nation was established by the text of the 1974 Constitution, a constitution that not only divided Serbia in three parts but it created also an environment for genocide against Serbs in Kosova”¹⁰². This program was almost completely anti Albanian whereas changes within the communist party of Serbia brought Solobodan Miloshevich at the top of the party.

Arrival of Miloshevich at the top leadership of the communist party noted the beginning of the end of the Yugoslav federation. He started practically to implement tendencies of creating Greater Serbia with the activities of oppression in Kosovo where situation was anyway economically underdeveloped and politically very difficult. The first intention was elimination of federal status of both Kosova and Vojvodina. Afterwads the next phase would start toward Greater Serbia creature. Thus the process for changes of the constitution started under the very tense situation whereas the position of Miloshevich was strengthening more and more in almost daily basis. Measures against Albanians were increasing continually and these measures were having a support by other federal republics as well. This because they had a perception that by changing the Kosova status Miloshevich would be satisfied and thus he would stop with his politics. On the other side they didn't want to have someone from Kosova to be Miloshevich's satellite in the federal bodies, since there were no more Albanian representatives in the federal structures. All that came from Kosova at that time was not representing of Kosova. They came to vote on the Republic of Serbia interest.

Changes of the Kosova Constitution were made under the extraordinary measures and oppression agains majority population of Kosova. Practically with these changes Kosova lost almost all rights. Albanians tried to oppose changes of the Constitution but they were not listened by other republics. Many protestors were killed, a huge number were imprisoned, illtreated, arrested, expelled from their jobs, etc. No matter of this Kosova Constitution changed (this is known as Bloody Constitution) and Kosova status was changed completely. With the Constitutional changes during 1989/90 the process of Yugoslavia eneterd into the final phase of dissolution. From this until the end of of NATO intervention in 1999 Kosova was a country, very similar to occupied countries. In one side there was a Serbian state apparatus executing its power by the use of force against the majority, establishing a system of segregation and violence where every one could be an object of illtreatment, etc. On the other side Albanians with their political leadership created a parallel system and at the same time the political leadership prepared platform for the future. In this way several constitutional and political acts were adopted and undertaken based on which the Republic of Kosova was born. Professor A.Bajrami enumerates the following acts:

- Constitutional Declaration – June 02, 1990;
- Constitution of the Republic of Kosova – September 07,1990;
- Referendum for Kosova as a sovereign and independent state organized on September 26-30, 1991;
- Resolution of Kosova Parliament for Kosova as a sovereign and independent state – October 19, 1991;
- Amandments on the Constitution – October 19,1991;

¹⁰¹ A document produced by Serbian Academy of Arts and Science (SANU) known more as Memorandum, by which there was intended a restructuration of Ygugoslavia Federation.

¹⁰² Victor Meir: Fundi i Jugosllavisë – goditja në Kosovë, Lubjanë – Liria, pg.82

- Multy Pary Elections for the Parliament of Kosova and Presidential Elections twice: On May 24 1992 and on March 22, 1998¹⁰³

Measures undertaken against majority could not stand forever and it was clear that Kosovar Albanians would change their means of resistance, since it was clear that with only nonviolent resistance their aspirations were not going to be reached. It was a matter of time when the conflict would take other dimensions. And the conflict produced big consequences. Some consequences will be mentioned in the further text.

The war started

When tendencies of Serbian politics became more apparent, the Western Republics of Yugoslavia began to prepare for defense and got ready for secession. Very strong federal army dominated by Serbs under the pretext of protecting the integrity of Yugoslavia undertook an attack against Republic of Slovenia. Miloshevic and Serbian politics were not showing any interest for Slovenia and therefore it had to be allowed to take the direction of independence.

The war in Croatia was longer and terrible whereas war in Bosnia and Herzegovina is characterized to as the most terrible wars happened in Europe.

Two Western Republics gained international recognition followed by Bosnia and Herzegovina that paid very high price.

International Community has been active trying to find peaceful solution of the conflicts in former Yugoslavia but it did not manage to prevent the bloodshed and war. The engagement of the International Community during the war in Croatia and Bosnia and Herzegovina seemed to have forgotten the difficult situation in Kosova where a silence was being seen, and that, for practically two reasons: first, the Albanian political leadership was determined for a nonviolent resistance and second, the Serbian measures undertaken against Albanians established a silence that in fact was more a silence of expectation and the hope that the International Community would intervene and stop violence and oppression in Kosova. But it was obvious that this would not last forever.

Noninclusion of Kosova in the Dayton Conference¹⁰⁴, where a solution for stopping the war in Bosnia and Herzegovina was found, in Kosova made a situation where other options appeared vis-a-vis nonviolent resistance that was present for a long period of time. On the other side, Miloshevic due to the Dayton Conference being treated as a factor for peace, expended repression in Kosova. Kosovar Albanians were anyway outlawed and they were not protected by any mechanism. They were now being kept forcefully within a creature called Federal Union of Serbia and Montenegro.

It continued in Kosova

A new option appears in Kosova – an option of active resistance, according to which only war would bring liberty and only if there is a war the International Community would engage. Thus military formations appear in Kosova with the name UCK.

Under these (non)constitutional and (i)legal circumstances Serbia undertook various discriminatory acts and activities against Kosovo Albanian where every Albania could be an object of treatment by Serbian police and military forces. Arrests, interrogations, beatings, trials, expelling from jobs, closing schools, killings, and segregation became a phenomenon

¹⁰³ Arsim Bajrami, Sistemi Kushtetues i Kosovës, CIP 2011, Prishtina pg.56

¹⁰⁴ Conference was held in November 1995, where chaired by Holbrooke and co-chaired by EU special Representative Carl Bildt and the First Deputy of Foreign Russian Minister Igor Ivanov. After 21 General Framework Agreement for Peace in Bosnia and Herzegovina, was reached. See more at <http://www.britannica.com/EBchecked/topic/153203/Dayton-Accords/285655/The-road-toward-peace>

and the daily reality.¹⁰⁵ Oppression time after time was more intensive whereas at the end of 1998 and early 1999 made finally the International Community decide for and joint action against Serbian forces, results of which are in general known: it has been estimated that, by June 09, 1999 over 90% of the Kosovo Albanian population - over 1.45 million people – were forcibly displaced. In the period 1998-1999, numerous UN and other international agencies expressed dismay at the atrocities being committed by Serbia in Kosovo and demanded that they cease immediately. It should be noted that these mass expulsions of Albanian civilians from their homes in Kosovo, involving the threat of force and the actual use of force (including artillery bombardment and arson), began long before the start of NATO military action in March 1999. Figures compiled by the UNCHR showed that by August 1998, there were 260,000 internally displaced people within Kosovo and 200,000 refugees outside Kosovo; again, the UNHCR noted that between 150,000 and 200,000 new refugees were driven from their homes between the beginning of January 1999 and in mid-March 1999¹⁰⁶.

The war in Kosova ended with an agreement signed in Kumanovo (Macedonia) named Military Technical Agreement, between Serbian Government and NATO in June 09, 1999. A day after the UN Security Council adopted Resolution 1244 that brings new era in Kosova with the international civil administration established (UNMIK).

Kosova spent several years under the UNMIK administration whereas on February 17, 2008 it declared its independence.

Independence and recognition

After a long process of negotiations in Viena led by former President of Finland Marti Ahtisari and based on his proposed Comprehensive Proposal, Kosova Parliament adopted Declaration of Kosova Independence. Thus, Prime Minister Hashim Thaqi, during the session of the Parliament addressing MPs and the opinion cited the Declaration: "we leaders of our people democratically elected, through this Declaration declare Kosova as a sovereign and independent state. This reflects the will of our people and is totally in accordance with the recommendations of the UN Special Envoy Martti Ahtisaari and his Comprehensive Proposal of solving the final status of Kosova".

Kosova Declaration of Independence is a very important document of constitutive character on creating the state of Kosova. It is very important to explain main parts of the Declaration before dealing with the recognition and the debate within scholars, academia, diplomacy and within a part of the International Community about whether Kosovo fulfilled the criteria of being a state or whether Kosova has the right to ask for recognitions.

In the Declaration it is clearly stated that Kosova is a special case that came up from a process of nonconsensual dissolution of Yugoslavia and it doesn't create any precedent to be used in whatever situation in the world. Declaration further mentions the war and violence in Kosova; it expresses appreciations to the International Community for the military intervention in 1999; it mentions negotiations mediated internationally; expresses commitment to fulfil international obligations and confirms readiness of Kosova to respect Ahtisaari recommendations; it appreciates contributions of all men and women for their sacrifices for determining a better future for Kosova and based and through this Kosova declares itself a sovereign and independent state.¹⁰⁷

¹⁰⁵ Bashkim Rrahmani and Majlinda Belegu, The engagement of the Republic of Slovakia is very important, Bratislava October 2013, 10 Years of SlovakAid Conference

¹⁰⁶ *Written contribution of the Republic of Kosovo, submitted to the International Court of Justice, April 17, 2009, pg. 60-61*

¹⁰⁷ Arsim Bajrami, Sistemi Kushtetues i Kosovës, Prishtina: CIP 2011, pg. 129

Did Kosova fulfil the criteria of being a state? According to the Montevideo Convention (1933) there should be fulfilled the following criteria in order to an entity be treated as a state: - a defined territory,-a permanent population,-a government and capacity to enter into international relations.¹⁰⁸

Answer for each of the Montevideo criteria regarding Kosova is not difficult to be found. Kosovo territory was clearly and historically defined. Even when it was treated as an autonomous province within Yugoslavia federation it was an entity within exactly this territory it has today. Majority of population has always been compact and Albanian. It had a democratically elected government that indeed showed capacities to enter into international relations. Moreover the process of negotiations for the Kosova status and preparations for declaring independence were coordinated with the International Community.

At the day when the Declaration of Independence was adopted Kosova start to receive recognitions from various states and from various parts of the world. But there were states that opposed Kosova independence and debate started about the rightfulness of Kosova to create the state and to be recognized.

What does recognition means and is tha so important?

Recognition is a statement by an international legal person as to the status in international law of another real or alleged international legal person or of the validity of a particular factual situation.¹⁰⁹From this in relation to Kosova we see that more than 100 international legal persons based on a factual situation that was valid for them issued statement regarding the status in the international law. Once recognition has occurred, the new situation is deemed opposable to the recognizing state, that is the pertinent legal consequences will flow. As such, recognition constitutes participation in the international legal process generally while also being important within the context of bilateral relations and, of course, domestically.¹¹⁰

Efforts of Kosova institutions for as many as possible recognitions are based on what is mentioned with the above paragraph and these may be further explained. International Law considers that creation of new states is factual issue and not a legal issue and it is considered that by its creation the state becomes the subject of the international law. But from the point of view whether the recognition is a conclusion of a fact or it becomes a subject of the international law there were created two theories of recognition: *constitutive* and *declarative*. The first, considers that the state is not a member of the international community unless it is recognized by the other states or by the international community. The second, considers the new state becomes a member of the international community (before recognition) if it has fulfilled the required conditions. The current international practice remains between two these theories whereas practically it is discretion of a state to decide on recognizing or refusing to recognize a newly created state.

What are arguments when opposing recognition of Kosova

The issues of self determination and the right to secession are the basis of a debate where pro-s and con-s derive. International Law has reserved the right for self determination and secession is reserved only to post colonial era and these rights were reserved only for the former colonies. Kosovo according to them was not a colony and therefore it had the right to inner self determination and the right to secession did not belong to Kosova. In addition they consider that Kosovo has unilaterally declared independence.

¹⁰⁸ See Montevideo Convention on the Rights and duties of States, 1933, available at: <http://www.oas.org/juridico/english/treaties/a-40.html>

¹⁰⁹ Malcolm N. Shaw, International Law, Cambridge University Press, fifth edition, 2003 pg. 368

¹¹⁰ Id. At 368

It is an understanding that the first attitude, seems to see the international law as a static creature that doesn't change, whereas international order undergoes changes based on an evolution of international norms. On the other side it is a question if Kosova Declaration of Independence was simply unilateral.

The fall of Soviet Union and the dissolution of former Yugoslavia brought many changes in the world map not only geographically but also politically. From these two big creatures there were created new states and they were not colonies. And the needs for recognitions appeared. Europe took needed steps in this regard. The European Community adopted a Declaration on 16 December 1991 entitled "Guidelines on the Recognition of New States in Eastern Europe and in the Soviet Union" in which a common position on the process of recognition of the new states was adopted.¹¹¹ It was noted in particular that recognition required:

- *Respect for the provisions of the Charter of the United Nations and the commitments subscribed to in the Final Act of Helsinki and in the Charter of Paris, especially human rights;*
- *Guarantees for the right of ethnic and national groups and minorities in accordance with the commitments subscribed to in the framework of CSCE;*
- *Respect for the inviolability of all frontiers which can only be changed by peaceful means and by common agreement;*
- *Acceptance of all relevant commitments with regard to disarmament and nuclear proliferation as well as to security and regional security;*
- *Commitment to settle by agreement, including where appropriate by recourse to arbitration, all questions concerning state succession and regional disputes*¹¹².

These new requirements set up to be fulfilled for the new countries related to recognition, note a new set of rules for new emerging states. Related to Yugoslavia on the same date, European Community adopted a Declaration on Yugoslavia in which the Community and its member states agreed to recognize Yugoslav republics fulfilling certain conditions¹¹³. Thus some additional requirements were drafted for the Yugoslav republics to be fulfilled so they could be granted recognition.

These new rules created by the EU clearly established new/additional standards states have to fulfill in order to be equal partners within the international community. An analysis of the Kosova Declaration of Independence shows concretely Kosova commitment to fulfilling all international obligations that derive from EU documents, as are: respect for human rights and minorities; all guarantees that there are no territorial claims from the other countries in the region; commitment for dialogue and peace in the region, other obligations from the Ahtisari Comprehensive Plan for Solving the Kosova Status, etc. And actually all of these obligations were measured in a way through a long period of time by the international bodies and after the negotiations were concluded in Vienna a sign was given that Kosova could take its own direction toward building Kosova new state. Debates whether Kosova was equal to former republics of Yugoslavia federation may lead to an unlimited discussion using various legal and political arguments, but there are no strong arguments that prove opposite. Kosova entered into the federation not to be part of Serbia. Since that federation was dissolved and since almost all units declared their independences, it was the definite right that Kosova take its direction towards building the state as per the will of its people.

In addition to this, Kosova could not afford living as: in cases of the lack of representation from one side and the continual repression on the other side, then we have to

¹¹¹ Malcolm N. Shaw, International Law, Cambridge University Press, fifth edition, 2003, p. 374

¹¹² Malcolm N. Shaw, International Law, Cambridge University Press, fifth edition, 2003, p. 374

¹¹³ Id. at 375

deal with that that comprises the “remedial self determination”¹¹⁴. The concepts of remedial determination strengthen Kosova right to self determination and is additional argument that Kosova had a strong right to establish its own state and should avoid doubts to the states for recognition Kosova state.

Was the Declaration of Independence purely unilateral?

The process of Kosova independence was not purely unilateral. It is also a product of a long international process and strong engagement of the International Community. Kosova especially after 90's has been in various ways part of the international community activities. Many declarations, resolutions, conferences, etc were held regarding Kosova. Yugoslavia firstly and afterwards SRJ neglected and refused all the times requests made by International Community. SRJ delegation, for example refused to sign the Rambouillet Conference¹¹⁵ documents that hypothetically could have been the last chance of convincing Kosovar Albanians to be somehow part of SRJ creature. The NATO intervention and UN civil administration created a new environment opening a space for democracy and a process of state building for Kosova being internationally supervised. The process of establishing democracy and in building state responsible and accountable institutions was done in complete accordance and under international supervision. “Standards before the status” introduced by Michail Shteiiner (SRSG) on December 2003 is a document by which a series of conditions were to be fulfilled by Kosovo Provisional Institutions before the negotiations for final status talks. In 2005 Special Envoy of UN Secretary General, Kai Eide monitored the fulfillment of standards and based on his report the negotiations between Serbia and Kosova delegation led by Marti Ahtisaari (UNOSEK)¹¹⁶ were held in series of rounds and this finally opened doors to the Kosovo Institutions to coordinate with the International Community and Declare the Declaration of Independence. Thus Kosova Declaration of Independence is not exactly unilateral.

Thus as noted Kosova is a unique and sui generis case not to be used in any place of the world as a precedent.

Conclusions

The process of recognition of Kosovo from the states that did not recognize it yet is not expected to be an easy process and it needs quite more efforts: both nationally and internationally. Kosova state institutions and not only them should strengthen their structures in order to better use the arguments that go in favor of recognition. Responsible for lobbying within state structures should better coordinate and work internationally spreading Kosova arguments favorising recognition based on the new rules and attitudes that exist under the current international law, especially in the new rules created based on the breach up of former Yugoslavia. International Law (*ius cogens*) is not at all violated by the Kosova Declaration of Independence and this is confirmed with the International Court of Justice with its opinion. Kosova is a sui generis case and there are no similarities between Kosova and other entities that aspire independence thus no precedent can be built upon Kosovo case. Kosovo is

¹¹⁴ Marc Weller, Shtetësia e kontestuar: Administrimi ndërkombëtar i luftës së Kosovës për pavarësi, Koha 2011, p.441

¹¹⁵ After “Recak Massacre” where innocent villagers were massacred by Serbian military and police forces, the Contact Group organized the Rambouillet Conference held from February 6-23 1999 and from March 15 – 18 1999. The document for solution of Kosova Crises offered to both parties, was refused by SRJ delegation and due to this International Community opened the doors for military actions against SRJ forces that indeed were executed by NATO allies. See more about: Rambouillet Conference, at: Marc Weller-The Rambouillet Conference on Kosovo, Royal Institute of International Affairs 1999, article first published online: 16 December 2002, DOI:10.1111/1468-2346.00069

¹¹⁶ More information about negotiations and the Status Proposal available at www.unosek.org

recognized by 23 EU member states and it is already a member of IMF and the World Bank, and many other arguments that should be used in a much better way always coordinated with international mechanisms. The priorities and the needs for recognition should be more designed and with them should be approached international organizations and the lobby groups. It is crucial to enter into the public opinion of Serbia and in some other states that stand strongly against Kosova recognition with the arguments showing commitment on fulfilling international obligations and readiness to enter into all forms of cooperation with these countries. Definetely there was no breach of international law by proclaiming independence even if we rely in the strong principles of Westphalian legal order.

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THE LATIN LANGUAGE AND CULTURE ON ROMANIAN TERRITORY IN THE 11th – 16th CENTURIES

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Abstract

Unlike the Central and Western Europe, where culture and civilization were expressed through Medieval Latin and native languages (each with their evolution stages), in Transylvania, Moldavia and Wallachia (situated at the crossroads between Orient and Occident) this duality took specific forms in which the Byzantine and Slavonic influences and those of different other western trends blended in an admirable cultural synthesis. This paper follows the most important evolutionary moments of the Latin language on Romanian territory, underlying the fact that, even being mostly under Byzantine and Slavonic cultural influences, Moldavia and Wallachia were (like Transylvania) connected to the western culture of Latin heritage through the contribution of the Catholic Church from the two neighbouring catholic kingdoms (Hungary and Poland) and through the diplomatic relationships with those kingdoms and with Italy, Germany and France.

Keywords: Mediaeval latin culture, romanian principalities

Introduction

The retreat of Roman authorities from Dacia at the end of the 3rd century, the Great Migration, the important material destructions, the oblivion of city life and of the former administrative institutions (both juridical and cultural) of the Roman State generated unfavourable conditions for the development of culture and writing with a Latin alphabet as a basis for a lofty intellectual activity. And yet, the Romanised population, which continued to speak Latin and kept the contact with the Roman world on both shores of Danube, also knew and used the Latin writing at least until the 4th century. The fact that the eastern Roman Empire lost the southern regions of Dacia and Scythia Minor at the end of the 6th century, respectively the beginning of the 7th century, explains the lack of written texts in Latin alphabet from 7th to 10th centuries in these areas.

Main Text

Latin culture and language in transylvania

The premises for the Latin language culture in Transylvania were created by organizing the dioceses from Cenad, Oradea and Alba Iulia in the 11th century; by attributing territories to the Hungarian feudalism; by gradually assimilating the native feudalists, which converted to Catholicism and adopted Latin as the official language in order to keep their rights and privileges and to be able to climb the hierarchy of the Hungarian kingdom; by colonising an important number of Szekler and Germans (Transylvanian Saxons). The Latin culture from Transylvania developed and was strongly related to that in the Hungarian kingdom and, through it, to the culture from Central and Western Europe; yet unlike the occident, where the literary texts (meaning works of a religious nature, chronicles, scientific works, but also literary ones) were early and in great number, the most important monuments of the Medieval Latin in Transylvania were the non-literary texts, with a practical feature

only: diplomatic, juridical and private documents. Until the middle of the 12th century, the issuing of these documents was modest. As equally modest was the copying of the liturgical books in the monasteries' *scriptoria*, because the Transylvanian catholic churches' need for books was met partly by bringing them from the west; in the 11th and 12th centuries, the books of catholic churches were copied by educated clergymen in the workshops of the dioceses and in the *scriptoria* of the abbeys – the most important were the Benedictine abbeys from Cluj-Mănăştur and Sâniob Bihor (S. Jakó, R. Manolescu, 1970: 122-123).

The cultural monopoly held by the Catholic Church was reflected in the educated strata from Central and Eastern Europe (therefore in Transylvania too), almost exclusively represented by clergymen. Until the middle of the 13th century, at the University from Paris (the main centre where the catholic clergyman was given a superior education), is signalled the presence of students coming from these areas. At Paris studied the anonymous notary of king Bela III, and the royal notary Paul (later bishop of Transylvania), who wrote the royal act from 1181 that decided the written recording of the quarrels debated in the royal court (S. Jakó, R. Manolescu, 1970: 129). The cultural relationships with France were also maintained through the Cistercian monks and Premonstratensians which maintained written contacts with the tutelary monasteries from France¹¹⁷. Starting with the middle of the 13th century, when the cultural crisis of the Catholic Church worsened, the strong attraction exerted by the University of Paris started to decrease; instead, the influence of the Italian universities, which had a more laic orientation, strengthened – Bologna (the most important centre for juridical studies in the era), Padua and Ferrara. Gradually, the clergymen educated in the Italian schools replaced the "magistri of liberal arts", who were educated in the spirit of the French culture. With the rebirth of the cities and with the development of crafts and commerce, the area in which it was used and secularized the Latin writing grew larger and so, by the 3rd and 4th decade of the 13th century, Transylvania covered the gap which separated it from the European occident (S. Jakó, R. Manolescu, 1970: 128-129). The transformation that took place in the medieval mentality regarding writing and education (which started to be looked at as a means of self-sufficiency), a process manifested in the second half of the 12th century and at the beginning of the 13th century, contributed decisively to the cultural progress. This new idea, a direct result of society's development, is reflected by a wider spreading of written papers and by the upsurge of the document issuing activities. The purpose and reason of writing activities became laic, and the consequence of spreading of the written paper was the establishment of schools and forming of a social class of pen wielders – first secular clergymen¹¹⁸ and, starting with the beginning of the 14th century, laic persons too (who attended Episcopal schools, in which a great attention was paid to the juridical education necessary for writing documents). The Episcopal schools from Transylvania were ruled by clergymen with academic education (*canonici lectores*¹¹⁹); in 1309, following a synodic decision, the *magistri* who taught in these schools had to have academic studies (S. Jakó, R. Manolescu, 1970: 73). Between the 14th and the 16th century, in the catholic schools organised within the Episcopal centres or within monasteries, and that had Latin as the teaching language, the students were taught in the same manner like in the western basic programs – elementary knowledge and the seven liberal arts divided in two cycles: *trivium*

¹¹⁷ The Premonstratensians (The Order of Canons Regular of Prémontré) had, before 1224, monasteries at Dealul Orăzii, Abram Bihor, Almaşu and Meseş; the Cistercians were settled at Igriş Arad and Cârța Sibiu (S. Jakó, R. Manolescu, 1970: 130).

¹¹⁸ Clergymen that, after completing their academic studies, didn't follow an ecclesiastical career, but activated for the benefit of laic society – respectively, they wrote documents, remaining priests only by name.

¹¹⁹ These clergymen usually had a good juridical education; they were the ones who wrote the documents issued by the *loca credibilia* of the respective churches.

(which comprised grammar, rhetoric and dialectics) and *quadrivium* (arithmetic, geometry, astronomy and music). These kind of schools existed in Alba Iulia, Oradea and Târgu Mureș.

Following the development of the cities, and the intense crafting and commercial activities, it became necessary to organize a new type of school, an intermediary educational school designed to meet the new demands, which would train a larger number of literate persons. The oldest news¹²⁰ available refer to the existence, in the middle of the 14th century, of some city schools led by laic persons (usually a notary), which were appointed by the city council; these schools functioned first in the big crafting and commercial centres: Brașov, Sibiu, Cluj, Bistrița, Baia Mare. Finally, there were also village schools, attested by documents, even from the first half of the 14th century, which functioned around parishes; in these schools, the *scolares* and *scolastici* (clerks) taught the children religious notions, religious songs and probably elementary writing notions. The documents from the end of the 15th century mention a large number of *litterati* (clerks) in the villages, even among serfs, and in the middle of the 16th century already there were numerous villager-clerks who drew the simplest documents, written in their native language (S. Jakó, R. Manolescu, 1970: 76-77).

For higher studies, the young people from Transylvania went to Prague, Krakow and Wien, where they came in contact with the big cultural and scientific trends of the era: in Prague they came in contact with the Hussite teachings; in Wien and Krakow with a culture which, on an old scholastic background, was under a growing humanist influence.

As pointed above, the oldest and numerous texts written in Latin were the diplomatic, juridical and private documents. In the 12th – 16th centuries, the chancellery that were issuing documents, both laic and ecclesiastical, were numerous: the chancellery of the voivode and vice-voivode; the chancellery of the Szekler's Count (*comes*); counties', cities', dioceses' chancelleries etc. A rich activity of elaborating written documents was held by the so-called confirmation places, specific medieval institutions organised within monasteries and *capitula*. Among them, the most important were de Episcopal *capitula* from Alba Iulia, Oradea and Cenad and the convents from Cluj-Mănăștur and Dealul Orăzii. The number of documents issued in Transylvania is considerable: if by 1200 were issued 31 documents, then between 1201 and 1250 – 265, between 1251 and 1300 – 524, between 1301 and 1350 – 2401, by the second half of the 16th century there were over 3700 documents; in the following centuries, the growing pace accelerated relative to the spreading of literacy. As a result, the documentary material before 1542 can be estimated at about 25000-30000 pieces, respectively pages (S. Jakó, R. Manolescu, 1970: 102).

The chancelleries had a dominant role not only in the practical use and the development of Latin writings, but also in the training of intellectuals and in the laic culture of Transylvania. "It is significant not only the fact that there are not known theological or religious works written by clergymen members in chancelleries, but also the fact that the authors of historiography, juridical science, political literature works, even literary prose and laic poetry from Transylvania (from those preserved) raised often from chancellery scholars." (S. Jakó, R. Manolescu, 1970: 84)

The monasteries that had a more intense cultural activity, and later the *capitula* in which there were organised schools, were not only veritable centres of ecclesiastical erudition, but also centres of keeping and transmitting the classical Latin culture; in the 15th century, their libraries, and those of some parishes in the cities (often sheltered in settings especially built for them) comprised also, along with the majority of religious books, scientific books and classical Latin and Greek literature. It is known that the library of the Benedictine monastery from Cluj-Mănăștur, founded in the 11th century and destroyed

¹²⁰ The oldest information dates since 1387 and originates at Baia Mare: *iudex et iurati habeant constituere unum rectorem pro informatione puerorum valentem* (S. Jakó, R. Manolescu, 1970 : 75, n. 1).

around 1220, also had 54 codices around 1430; in 1442, the parish library from Sibiu had 138 handwritten books, the majority theological, but also tomes of natural sciences, Vergilius' poetry etc. (S. Jakó, R. Manolescu, 1970: 94-95; M. Dragomir, 2006: 43). The Episcopal library, respectively of the *capitulum* from Oradea, had an important number of books at the beginning of the 15th century, and so, before 1419, it was necessary the creation of a position of librarian (S. Jakó, R. Manolescu, 1970: 96). Between 1460 and 1465, when John Vitéz was provost and then bishop, this library became famous in the humanist circles, which borrowed from it only rare books (the known cardinal Sbigniev Olesnicki from Krakow asked in 1449 the works of Titus Livius and the works of Enea Silvio Piccolomini) (G. Ivaşcu, 1969: 57). Vespasiano da Bisticci, the owner of the most famous Florentine workshop for copying books, said about the library of Vitéz, founded to "enrich Dacia", that it contained "books that belonged to all branches of science" and that "there were few books in Latin that he [Vitéz] didn't had" (S. Jakó, R. Manolescu, 1970: 96). After the collection of Vitéz was embedded in Corvina Library, the library from Oradea continued to receive donations: bishop Valentine Farkas (between 1490 and 1495) donated 203 codices with various content, and Sigismund Thurzó (between 1506 and 1512), given his friendship with the famous venetian typographer Aldo Manuzi, enriched the library's stocks with printed editions of Greek and Latin classics.

The religious literature from Transylvania comprises hymns (some with an elevated poetic technique) and sermons, like the ones of Peter Nowag from Alba Iulia (dating from 1429-1435), or the ones of John Zekel from Sibiu (dating from 1502). The most famous sermons are the ones of the Franciscan monk Pelbart Temesvári, whose collection, named *Stellarium* or *Pomarium* was printed between 1498 and 1504.

The laic literature written in Latin is represented first by the historical works – chronicles. Among them can be mentioned: the final part of *Chronicon Dubnicense*, written maybe by a Romanian in 1479-1480; the writing of Georgius of Hungary, the so-called *Captivus Septemcastrensis* (the Transylvanian prisoner), dating from 1475-1480, named *Tractatus de ritu, moribus, condicionibus et nequitia Turcorum*, in which he describes his long captivity at the Turks, to which he fell in 1438 after the siege of Sebeş; he gives details about the expedition of sultan Murad in Transylvania and about the pro-Christian attitude of voivode Vlad the Devil; the memoirs of George Szerémi, written in 1544-1546 (*Epistola de perdicione regni Hungarorum*) which comprise especially information about the uprising led by Gheorghe Doja, in the époque of Zápolya and Martinuzzi.

The contact with the western European world, which was under the influence of humanist culture, has made its mark on Transylvania. The Transylvanian humanism, which developed first at the Episcopal courts, and then in the cities, was the one which prepared the way of the Reformation, by imprinting a preponderant laic content on the culture. The oldest centre with an important role in spreading the humanist culture in Transylvania formed at the Episcopal court from Oradea. Thanks to the activity of John Vitéz in his time as a provost, and then as a bishop, at Oradea were attracted many foreign humanists, and it was organised a veritable humanist circle that marked profoundly the local cultural creation. Vitéz was interested in music, natural sciences, he founded an astronomical observatory in Oradea, had philological preoccupations (proved by the improvements he made on some of the codices in his library).

Another important centre of humanist culture, that dates from the time of bishop Laszló Geréb (1475-1501), nephew of Mathias Corvin, and flourished in the time of bishop Francis Várdai (1514-1524), was the Episcopal court from Alba Iulia. The humanist tradition of this centre would be then taken over by the court of Transylvanian princes. The humanist circle from Alba Iulia was especially interested in the Roman inscriptions (studied by canon John Megyericsei) and in other monuments from the Antiquity. In the humanist group from

Alba Iulia most important personalities were, at the end of the 15th century and in the next one, John Lázói (a poet that imitated the models of Antiquity), Adrianus Wolphardus (editor of Ianus Pannonius' verses), Thomas Pelei, Stephanus Taurinus, and Antonius Verantius etc.

The most representative personality among Transylvanian humanists of Romanian descent was Nicolaus Olachus (1493-1568); his connections with the grand cultural personalities of the time, Belgians, Germans, Danish, Spanish, Italians, but especially with Erasmus of Rotterdam, ensues from the correspondence with them. In the ennoblement diploma from 1548, king Ferdinand underlines the special qualities of Olachus and the respect shown to him by the great personalities of the time: *Sic autem versatus es in Belgis, ut te hominem externum sumates iuxta et infimates omnes amarent, colerent et observarent, docti etiam homines, ob excellentem omnium bonarum artium cognitionem, ac linguarum Graecae et Latinae peritiam, dicendique et scribendi oratoriam simul et poeticam facultatem suspicerent et admirarentur.* "And you behaved in Belgium thus, that you, a foreigner, were loved and valued and respected by all, noblemen and commoners alike, even by cultivated people, thanks to your special knowledge of all good arts and Latin and Greek, and thanks to your talent to oratorical speech and poetic writing..." Nicolaus Olachus wrote epitaphs at the demise of Erasmus (1536) and other verses in Latin, the historical work *Hungaria* (in which he speaks also about the Latin origin of Romanians, offering rich historical, geographical and ethnographical information on Romanian Principalities), a *Chronicon* (in which are described the events from Mathias Corvin to Ferdinand I).

In the 16th century, other cities from Transylvania, but especially Braşov, started to have an important role in the development of humanist culture. Representative for this is the activity of the humanist Johannes Honterus (Braşov, 1498-1549). He was the author of a Latin grammar spread throughout Europe in 14 editions, and of a *Cosmography* in prose (with an ulterior variant in verses, edited in 1541 in Braşov and 1546 in Zürich) – 17 editions. He founded in 1535 the first typography from Braşov and reorganised the local *gymnasium* on humanist principles; he printed for this gymnasium schoolbooks and collections of the works of great Antiquity authors in Latin, Greek and German. In his attempts to compile a set of laws, Honterus succeeded in 1544. His work was continued by Toma Bomelius and Matei Fronius, who finalised the Szekler's set of laws in *Statuta iurium municipalium Saxonum in Transylvania*, printed in 1583 (M. Dragomir, 2006: 47). Having as a basis the Roman law, John Baranyai Decsi (Ioannes Barovius Decius, 1560-1601) tried to reform the whole juridical system of Transylvania through his grand work named *Syntagma institutionum iuris* (1593). The writings known as *Breve Chronicon Daciae seu Annales templi Coronensis et Cibiniensis*, which were referring to the events from the 12th century and 1571, were written on multiple columns on the walls of the Black Church from Braşov and on those of the Dominican Church from Sibiu, and were saved by printing them in 1600 and 1746.

The consolidation of the Transylvanian Principality entailed the first works about state done by public people, with important jobs in the institutions of the time: Michael Siegler (Michael Sieglerus, first half of the 16th century – 1585), notary of the Szekler community, author of an *Chronologia Rerum Hungaricarum*, which contains news regarding also Transylvania until 1563; Stephen Szamosközy (1565-1612), the official historiographer of Stephen Bocksaï and Sigismund Rákóczi, published roman inscriptions from Dacia while he was in Padua, where he furthered his studies, and he left a series of writings in Hungarian and three fragments in Latin in which he presents the society of the time and the events surrounding the entrance of Michael the Brave in Transylvania until his killing: *Libri* (1566-1586), *Pentades* (1598-1599) and *Hebdomades* (1603) (M. Dragomir, 2006: 48-50).

The latin language and culture in moldavia and wallachia

After Transylvania was included in the Latin culture area, its influence extended in the two Romanian principalities, Moldavia and Wallachia, where the Latin language and writing are beginning to be used in the 13th century first by the catholic clergymen (Hungarian and Transylvanian German colonists), and then in the princely and town chancelleries too. For the internal necessities, the Latin language was used by the Catholic Church, by the catholic inhabitants (especially Germans and Hungarians) and by some higher level schools. There are tombstones with inscriptions written in Latin, like the one of count Laurence from Câmpulung, which dates from 1300, or those of some catholic inhabitants of German origin from Baia and Suceava, dating from 15th-16th centuries. Although the official language of the written culture in the two Romanian Principalities was Church Slavonic, Latin was the language of the external, both official and private, relationships. Some of the researchers¹²¹ claim that a Latin Department existed within the princely chancelleries from Wallachia and Moldavia starting with the second half of the 14th century; yet, the number of preserved documents is low. Only in the next century, following the establishment of a central chancellery, the formalizing of the Latin notary position, and of the amplifying of the relations of Moldavia and Wallachia with the Latin culture states, the diplomatic activity in Latin becomes constant, and the number of written documents increases considerably (N. Grămadă, 1935: 154; M. Paraschiv, 2004: 24). Even if they were evidently fewer than the immense mass of the internal Church Slavonic documents, the Latin ones show an active diplomatic life and permanent relationships with Transylvania, Hungary, the Roman-German Empire, Poland, The Holy See etc. There are thousands of Latin documents preserved in the Romanian and foreign archives: political treaties, commercial privileges, and also a vast correspondence, all issued in the 15th and 16th centuries by the princely chancelleries, by town councils, by high officials or private individuals.

Sporadically, the Latin language was used for writing some works, especially for ones with religious content. Therefore Nicholas, catholic bishop of Siret (1413-1428), made a theological compendium. Also, in cities from Wallachia and Moldavia (Târgoviște, Câmpulung, Suceava, Bacău, Baia, Chilia etc.) existed Dominican and Franciscan monasteries endowed with libraries that contained books handwritten and printed in Latin. Once the respective monasteries ceased to exist, the stocks of books of these libraries were scattered, especially in the second half of the 17th century; but fragments of these stocks ended up in Transylvania, where are stored to this day. By researching these fragments, it could be deduced that, starting with the 15th century, the Franciscan monasteries from Bacău and Baia had quite important libraries. For example, there was preserved a codex on paper which contained scholastic works; it was copied in 1467 in one of the catholic monasteries from Moldavia for the use of Vicar Francis of Baia, and it was used later on in a monastery from Chilia. In the library of the monastery from Bacău there was attested the existence of a tome of Dominican sermons, issued at Nürnberg in 1492.¹²²

The educational teaching of the Latin language in the two Romanian Principalities was represented first by *Schola Latina* from Cotnari¹²³ (Moldavia), established in 1563 at the initiative of Jacob Despot Heraclides. Within the Cotnari establishment, which had the

¹²¹D. Ciurea, "Le scritte latine nei Paesi Romeni. Saggio di paleografia e di diplomatica", Roma, 1940, p. 38; idem, "Observații pe marginea documentelor latine românești", extras din *Apulum*, II, 1943-1945, Alba-Iulia, 1945, p. 1, 5; idem, "Diplomatica latină în Țările Române. Noi contribuții", în *Anuarul Institutului de Istorie și Arheologie "A.D.Xenopol"*, VIII, Iași, 1971, p. 3,9,11; Mihaela Paraschiv, *Documentele latine de cancelarie din Moldova (sec. XIV-XVIII). Studiu lingvistic și stilistic*, Iași, 2004, p. 24.

¹²²S. Jakó, R. Manolescu, cited work., p. 95; 135

¹²³For details see Maria Marinescu-Himu, "Contribuții la istoricul limbii latine în țara noastră", în *Studii Clasice*, V, 1963, reedited in the commemorative volume *Dialoguri culturale româno-grecești. Studii*, București, 2004, p. 67-78.

feature of an elementary and middle school, the students learned grammar for three years; next, there were two years of rhetoric and dialectics. The rhetoric courses aimed at forming the skill to write royal charters, diplomatic papers, letters etc.; the dialectics courses introduced the students to the Aristotelian logic. The ultimate purposefulness of those two disciplines was to prepare the students *ad dicendum et iudicandum*.

In the next century, at the academic school from Târgoviște (Wallachia), led by professor Pantelimon Ligaridis, Latin education knows great flourishing. Unlike *Schola Latina* from Cotnari, the humanistic school from Târgoviște was a superior one, through its lessons of Latin and Greek, and all its activity; it prepared the era of an intense cultural activity inaugurated after 1679 by the steward Șerban Cantacuzino, himself a former student of the school.

Conclusion

The succinct presentation of the Latin writings from the Romanian territory between 11th and 16th centuries proves that the three Romanian Principalities were always connected to the Western culture, and that the language and culture of Latin heritage were a constant presence in Romanian civilization.

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ADJUSTING EMOTIONS/LINGUISTIC ADAPTATION: CINEMATIC MULTI-PERSPECTIVES ON *THE HOURS*

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Abstract

As the terms themselves suggest, *linguistics* is the study of the human language, *literary criticism* includes the evaluation and the interpretation of literary texts and *film studies* foster the critical analysis of films and TV shows. Since written texts and audiovisual products are considered the mirror of the society to which they belong, the relevance of the three disciplines as possible analytical approaches to decode and understand society both anthropologically and culturally, is fully acknowledged in the academic world. Abandoning the conventional idea according to which linguists, literary and film critics have to work in separate environments, however, can promote a fertile intellectual dimension, in which a multi-leveled approach of analysis can be developed: film adaptations of literary texts, for instance, can encourage several eye-opening interpretations.

The present paper analyses Michael Cunningham's novel *The Hours* and Virginia Woolf's masterpiece *Mrs Dalloway* as examples of multi-perspective texts. While not exhaustive, the study fosters a cross-cultural approach to film adaptation especially focusing on emotions and the way they can be transported into cinematic representation.

Keywords: Linguistics, literary criticism, film studies, *The Hours*, emotions

Introduction

In the quote taken from Allen F. Repko's *Interdisciplinary Research: Process and Theory*, the main aim of selecting the so-called multidisciplinary approach is clearly explained: scholars' choice to prefer a multifaceted method of analysis that could take into consideration the heterogeneous, even contrasting, investigative approaches offered by different disciplines can bring eye-opening results in studying and examining complicated issues. In fact, as Taylor Huber and Morreale (2002) clarify, "each discipline has its own intellectual history, agreement and disputes about subject matter and method" (2) and, therefore, a cooperative involvement of two or more of them can contribute to carry out a complete and diversified research. In the light of these considerations, universities and research centres all over the world have recently chosen to follow the multidisciplinary method, allowing many new analytic perspectives to flourish: to name but a few, the cooperation between science and technology, engineering, and mathematics, or the fusion of technologic findings with medicine, ecology or economics have contributed to make innovative and challenging studies spread¹²⁴. In the humanistic field multidisciplinary has

¹²⁴ The cooperation between science and other disciplines, both technical and humanistic, is a relatively new approach developed in the academic areas through post graduate curricula and PhD programs: the application of science and also the use of computers (computational science) are nowadays essential to business and research. In many cases, indeed, scientists, engineers or economists can model and solve complex problems around us with innovative analytic paths which take into consideration the intermingled

been accepted too: among the several examples the connection between philosophy and biology, anthropology and economy, law and literature are the most popular cases¹²⁵.

Linguistics, Literature and Cinema: a mutual relationship

Acknowledging the effectiveness of this multi-method analysis, the need to narrow the apparently non-reducible gap between literature and language has become an interesting area of research among scholars. Yet in 1960 Cannon, citing Wellek and Warren's work, highlights the importance of the linguistic analysis in the process of understanding literature, specifically poetry. According to what the two comparative literary critics explain in their masterpiece entitled *Theory of Literature* (1948), in fact, the analysis of literary texts must be based on two perspectives that they called *extrinsic* and *intrinsic*. With the first term they focus on all those elements living outside the text, e. g. the author and the cultural background; whereas the second adjective includes linguistic parameters, such as phonetics, prosody and rhythm of the language used. Both categories, according to Wellek and Warren are essential to fully understand the literary work. Thus, they aim at abandoning the idea that sees the two disciplines as two autonomous entities, but they suggest to study literature through linguistics. In the second part of the twentieth century, besides, Lester (1969) makes readers aware of the fact that linguistics plays a crucial role in the process of understanding literature offering two reasons: firstly, considered words and sentences as the *skeleton* of literary texts implies the need to know and understand language to interpret literature; secondly, language is seen as the unique means the writer has to create the text, therefore readers has to be familiar with the author's means of communication if they want to decode what he has written (366).

In this regard, De Beaugrande (1993) points out that language "is not merely something that people learn to produce and receive, but something that mediates most other modes of learning" (444), and, therefore, it can be thoroughly essential in the case of analyzing and comprehending literary texts. Following his perspective, what he defines the *traditional contrasts*, which see linguistics as an abstract, descriptive and theory-based system, whereas literature as a concrete, evaluative and practice-centered artifact (423), can be overcome promoting an innovative approach to both disciplines based on the cooperation between literary theory and discourse analysis. Used as an umbrella-term, as the author explains, the expression *literary theory* abandons the idea according to which literature has to be considered only as something *written*, but it includes the study, criticism and contextualization of the literary work within its situational and socio-cultural context (435). On the other hand, the conventional concept associated with linguistics has been revised too: following the approach offered by discourse analysis linguistics becomes a dynamic and interactive system (432) which can be easily melted with literary theories connected to a specific written work. As explained above, an interdisciplinary method that can take into consideration the multiple perspectives of analysis given by both disciplines is doubtless successful in discovering and conceptualizing the object under examination.

Along with literature and linguistics, the interest of the academic world has fostered the inclusion of audiovisual materials in the multidisciplinary areas of research: given their complex structures, indeed, TV shows and films need a multi-level method of analysis to be

society that is always on the move. For a more detailed description and contextualization of multidisciplinary approaches developed in the second part of the twenty century see "The Oxford Handbook of Interdisciplinarity" (2012) edited by Frodeman, Thompson Klein and Mitcham.

¹²⁵ Many are the examples of Universities and research centres which foster the interdisciplinary perspective: the Department of Language and Literature of the University of Verona (Italy), for instance, is developing a cross-curricular path that aims at getting and keeping in relation literature and law, literature and medicine and literature and science (for a complete and detailed explanation see Carpi 2003, 2005, 2012).

fully understood. In considering these products, Freddi and Pavesi (2005) draw attention to the fact that the language spoken in films is inseparably linked to the situational context – depending upon the plot itself, the setting and the exact moment in which the characters are interacting – and the socio-cultural context¹²⁶, being deeply influenced by historical and cultural factors. Moreover, in any audiovisual product language and images are mixed together to create meaning in the environment to which they belong, as in the case of source culture, and in which they are imported, that is target culture. Using Díaz Cintas' (2008) words, what the academic world “is witnessing is the emergence and settling down of a new medium (audiovisual) as opposed to traditional ones (paper). Mono-dimensional (printed) documents are some-how becoming multi-dimensional (audiovisual) programmes (90). Given the complexity of audiovisual material, a multidisciplinary approach seems, therefore, an optimal solution to decode and understand audiovisual products. As Zabalbescoa (2008: 28) aims at highlighting, in fact, TV shows and films include several parameters that work together to bring them to life: first of all, the audiovisual structure is based on two general factors: non-verbal and verbal means. The former consists of music and visual effects (audio components), the picture and photography (visual components), and the latter encompasses dialogues and the sense of hearing (audio components), written words, and the ability to read them while sequences run one after the other (visual components). According to his explanation, filmic structure is composed by two types of signs and two modes of communication that combine to create four types of signs: audio-verbal (words spoken), audio-non-verbal (other sounds), visual-verbal (writing) and visual-non-verbal (other visual signs). The author also highlights the audience's role in contributing to develop the audiovisual product: users become interlocutors having an active participation in the process. They are, indeed, part of the lymphatic system of audiovisual products as they actively use their eyesight and hearing to internalize the heterogeneous text (26). As a consequence, all the elements taken into consideration by Zabalbescoa are complementary and equally important, therefore, a precise investigation of stills, sounds and words has been required.

In the light of these observation, the analysis of an audiovisual product can be more complex in the case when the TV show or the film is inspired by a literary work: as a matter of fact, all the parameters that have to be taken into account when an audiovisual product is studied have to be associated and decode in relation to the original text: in addition to the reproduction of the setting, the environment in which characters live and their costumes, the process of cinematic transposition has not to forget the adaptation of the linguistic dimension. Written words uttered by the individuals described throughout the pages come to life, requiring bodies and voice first, then gestures and intonation. In this specific case, literature, language and the audiovisual text melt to leave room to a new product which present *linguistic images* and *visual dialogues*.

The Hours: a close up on emotions

As stated above, contemporary high education studies in the field of foreign languages have undergone significant changes to make them more competitive and empower greater-quality offers worldwide. In this light, exploring both literature and linguistics together fosters a cross-cultural perspective through which their multifaceted interactions become meaningful milestones within the transformational changes in culture.

Such interaction between literature and linguistic is needed not merely because these two fields have reached impressive results in research and theory, but also because they are

¹²⁶ Taking into consideration Mey's ([1993] 2001) definition, “context is a dynamic, not static concept: it is to be understood as the continually changing surroundings, in the widest sense, that enable the participants in the communication process to interact, and in which linguistic expressions of their interaction become intelligible” (41).

the mirror of a complex and diversified context that is our society. A step further and we get to the point; discourse analysis and literary theory melt together to introduce another approach within text analysis: the cinematic perspective.

In this light, a meaningful instance of multi-perspective text to analyze by means of the above mentioned approach is Michael Cunningham's novel *The Hours*¹²⁷. This work creates a dazzling maze of inter-textual references to both Virginia Woolf's literary production as well as to her biography. Just as Postmodernism relied on intertextuality, reminding us that all texts are potentially plural and have no defined boundaries, Cunningham manipulates his novel establishing a two-way relationship between himself and Woolf, thus offering an overt dialogue between past and present that involves a third participant: the reader. Indeed, as Allen argues, readers are actively involved in infusing texts with meaning in that "texts are always involved in the expression or repression of the dialogic 'voices' which exist within society" (209). These voices represent one the most peculiar characteristics to notice in the novel and play their role in and out of the text through the *stream of consciousness*. How can this literary device be transposed into a film? To this respect, Claes (56-7) distinguishes between 'phenotext', that is the text the reader sees and *in* which references are made, and the 'source text', the invisible text called upon by the phenotext and *to* which references are made. Hence, the filmic adaptation uses the exterior dialogue to render the interior monologue, instead of resorting to the cinematic cop-out of the voice-over narration. More significantly, Hare's script makes frequent allusions to *Mrs Dalloway*¹²⁸ in a manner that also viewers who have not read the novel can understand and appreciate it, intertwining the stories more frequently than in the novel. This technique draws direct parallels amongst the lives of the characters, thus making them appear more recognizable to the audience.

The filmic adaptation also implies an adjustment of the intricate relationship amongst writer, narrator and reader/audience that acquires hereby an empowered position within the text as they are all called to experience narration. Cunningham's work and Hare's adaptation show three women who measure out their lives in one day and whose existence is evidently unhappy. As a matter of fact, *The Hours* as both novel and film proposes itself as an emotional-based identification amongst the three characters of the book and the spectator, following a multi-levelled structure that operates in a semantic and pragmatic perspective.

The semantic perspective highlights Cunningham's use of the names of the characters that appear in *Mrs Dalloway* and other novels or essays by Virginia Woolf also altering and inventing new ones to be used as variations on the former, thus asking the reader to explore the web of inter-textual relations among the works. For instance, when Clarissa in *Mrs Dalloway* goes out into the city, Scrope Purvis observes her as she crosses the street and he finds her "a charming woman" (Woolf 4). Cunningham replaces this character with Willie Bas who notices Clarissa's "certain sexiness" (Cunningham 13). This is an evident example of constructive connotation in that Cunningham here just changes the characters' names

¹²⁷ Cunningham's novel won the 1999 Pulitzer Prize for fiction. As in *Mrs Dalloway*, the intertwined events take place in a single day and recount the lives of three women: Clarissa Vaughan, a middle-aged socialite, Virginia Woolf herself, and Mrs Brown, a housewife in 1949 Los Angeles, who is reading the novel *Mrs Dalloway*. One of the main features that emerges in this novel is the "logic of contamination"; indeed, Cunningham suggests that, in the same way viruses survive and contaminate people and places over time, *The Hours*, repropounding Virginia Woolf's powerful novel, seems to become part of the transmission process.

¹²⁸ The events and actions of this novel happen in one day only, in London. The work tells the life of Clarissa Dalloway, a 51-year-old woman, who leaves her home to buy flowers for the party she has arranged for the evening. As she is out, her mind is captured in a web of memories. The reader sees the events through the protagonist's and the other characters' eyes, thus entering a series of mental tunnels from which there is no escape.

preserving their rather genital sounding effect, thus strengthening the link between Scrope Purvis in *Mrs Dalloway* and the “phallic” Willie Bas.

At a pragmatic level, a significant event to ponder over is Sally’s kiss to Clarissa in *Mrs Dalloway*. In the novel this kiss is referred to as the most exquisite moment of Clarissa’s life, a sort of present she receives that is “wrapped up, and told just to keep it, not to look at it – a diamond, something infinitely precious, wrapped up, which [...] she uncovered, or the radiance burned through, the revelation, the religious feeling!” (Woolf 38-9). In the novel *The Hours* the three women all reflect on or receive a kiss. Indeed, the scene in which Virginia and Vanessa are seated and the maid, Nelly, leaves them alone, the two sisters share an “innocent” kiss on the mouth: “It is an innocent kiss, innocent enough, but just now, in this kitchen, behind Nelly’s back, it feels like the most delicious and forbidden of pleasures. Vanessa returns the kiss” (Cunningham 154). Afterwards, the reader experiences another kiss, this time between Laura and Kitty. Also in this case, they are in the kitchen and Kitty is crying. Laura, in the effort to calm her down, leans towards her and embraces her when, all of a sudden, Kitty looks at Laura and they kiss: “Laura desires Kitty. [...] Laura desires Dan, too. [...] She can kiss Kitty in the kitchen and love her husband, too. She can anticipate the queasy pleasure of her husband’s lips and fingers [...] and still dream of kissing Kitty again someday” (Cunningham 143). Their kiss, if compared to the previous one, seems more sensual.

In *Mrs Dalloway* Clarissa and Richard share two kisses, the first one when they were young: “A kiss? Had Richard kissed her, or had she, Clarissa, only believed Richard was about to kiss her, and evaded it?”. The other kiss is in the scene in which Clarissa comes back home to arrange the party and leaves Richard. Unlike the other kisses, this one is on Clarissa’s cheek. After Richard’s death, Clarissa would regret her behavior and ask him forgiveness for not having kissed “him on the lips, and for telling herself she did so only for the sake of his health” (Cunningham 203). In all the instances quoted above, Woolf and Cunningham share a concern that ties the unitary consciousness to the sexual duality of the mind. Both Cunningham and Woolf knew well what it was like to live in a heteronormative society. This concern appears in the transposition of the novel into film in that emotions intermingle with narration, making it clear that feelings can be motivational forces for both readers and audience. The process through which emotions can be activated implies different levels of feelings defined by Grodal (1996: 129) as follows:

- Vividness: the power of an isolated percept;
- Salience: the percept in context;
- Excitations: local activations linked to central human concerns;
- Emotions: activations linked to global narrative concerns.

On this premise, the emotional flow expressed through feelings is controlled by a group of modal qualities (Grodal 1996: 136):

- Intense: vivid or salient percepts with no-narrative concerns.
- Saturated: salient percepts that activate associations charged with affect.
- Tense: percepts induce “action-readiness”
- Emotive: percepts induces autonomic outlet (tear and laughter)

According to these schemata, both readers and spectators elaborate and conceptualize data in relation to their knowledge of characters, genre and other social aspects. As a matter of fact, genres rely on generic narrative filters that activate emotions in the audience while watching a film scene. Thus, for both the literary work and the film the relationship between the three women is an essential issue to grasp the content of the novel. In this light, the extract quoted above relating to “the kiss” is a clear example of emotional adaptation. Indeed, in Cunningham’s novel (1999: 110) the kiss that Laura shares with Kitty represents a form of consolation:

Kitty nods against Laura's breast. The question has been silently asked and silently answered, it seems. They are both afflicted and blessed, full of shared secrets, striving every moment. They are each impersonating someone. They are weary and beleaguered; they have taken on such enormous work. Kitty lifts her face, and their lips touch. They both know what they are doing. They rest their mouths, each on the other. They touch their lips together, but do not quite kiss. It is Kitty who pulls away. "You're sweet", she says. Laura releases Kitty. She steps back. She has gone too far, they've both gone too far, but it is Kitty who's pulled away first. [...] Laura is the dark-eyed predator. Laura is the odd one, the foreigner, the one who can't be trusted. Laura and Kitty agree, silently, that this is true.

Even though, at the beginning, the not-quite kiss these two women share implies some eroticism expressed by the closeness of their bodies, all of a sudden the situation becomes uncomfortable and Laura is the transgressor. In the film, this scene is represented through a close-up on Laura as she pulls back and her face looks confused as her mind realizes the voices of the children who are playing outside. Therefore, the initial intimacy of the action is disturbed by the "children's intrusion" into Laura's house, which brings her back to her role of mother rather than lover. Kitty is here filmed from above, her eyes are open-wide as she says "You're sweet", as in the novel, so that the audience perceives her character as innocent and ingenuous. The different element that appears in the film is the sentence spoken by Laura as Kitty leaves her house: "You didn't mind?", and Kitty answers "What?" suggesting the audience that the kiss represents a fact to be ignored. This behavior leads us further; it implies the unspoken transgression of which Laura is guilty and, as such, it needs a verbalization in the film scene, since it might be difficult to understand its message with only visual information. This shifting representation of the kiss takes on a symbolic meaning as a metaphor of Laura's desire to leave her domestic life.

In the same way, the kiss that Virginia shares with Vanessa is the result of her wish to escape from the daily life that has trapped her, hence the same situation Laura experiences. The only difference to notice is to be found in the characters' position; in fact, in Cunningham's novel (1999: 154), Virginia and Vanessa sit while the maid, Nelly, is cooking:

Here is Nelly with the tea and ginger and here, forever, is Virginia, unaccountably happy, better than happy, alive, sitting with Vanessa in the kitchen on an ordinary spring day as Nelly, the subjugated Amazon queen, Nelly the ever indignant, displays what she's been compelled to bring. Nelly turns away and, although it is not at all their custom, Virginia leans forward and kisses Vanessa on the mouth.

What strikes the reader here is the fact that the kiss appears as a stolen moment of pleasure. The "subjugated Amazon queen" embodies all society's rules, which Virginia does not stand and loathes. The childish play she creates in kissing her sister as Nelly is cooking in the same room, just in front of them symbolizes, on the one hand, the secret sympathy they share as Vanessa returns her kiss and, on the other hand, Virginia's victory on social hypocrisy. In the filmic adaptation the kiss conveys a different value. Indeed, the action takes place as Vanessa leaves the house and Virginia forcefully kisses her. Here, the kiss loses its symbolic features, its emphasis on positive sensations and the secret pleasure portrayed in the novel. Hereby, the film displays Virginia's despair and emotional confusion stressing on the presence of tears and drawing a parallel with Laura's kiss as an action whose aim is to break the social bonds, thus epitomizing and etching the similarities between Laura and Virginia. As noticed above, the visual representation of the novel needs specific interpretative moves in order to make the audience realize what is actually happening; most of these moves depend and rely on a symbolic reading of the film. As such, the film focuses on how emotions are transmitted, making it clear that any adaptation is the result of a specific reading of the source material, adding, transforming or eliminating dialogue and events and/or using fictional strategies in the mise-en-scene.

Conclusions

Within the cross-cultural fields of investigation, *Mrs Dalloway* represents a striking instance of how a text can be read through various perspectives also relying on the cooperation of the literary, linguistic and cinematic approaches. Indeed, alongside the development of cinema as a mass form of both cultural representation and social entertainment, the 'moving image' has empowered its role, thus becoming the expression of the multi-perspective reality in which men live. From the experimental films, at the beginning of the twentieth century, in which images transformed the real world into dreamy scenarios, the cinematic adaptation represents now a way to connect the various domains of culture into a mutual research of our evolving society.

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LANGUAGE POLICY, NATIONAL IDENTITY AND POLITICS

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Abstract

The abstract dwells upon the mechanisms of language policy change in concern with national identity feeling as used in the pursuit of political dominance. Every day some languages are dying out, others are spreading its influence around. To believe that it's a natural development of a language is absurd because the decision on a language destiny (to develop or go extinct) is determined by the political, economic and social conjunctions of an area.

On the one hand, historically comes that political dominance moves forward and shapes the phenomenon of lingua franca. The English language, alike as the Russian (or Spanish and others), achieved the status of a lingua franca 'colonising' regions around. Language 'colonisation' process mainly consisted of implementation of the language of the dominating party into the conquered region and, thus diminishing the significance of the local language. As soon as the local language is given the second or third priority, this serves a sign that the local population is ready to be overtaken by another culture. Such political tricks were used by Great Britain, later the United States of America in the XX c., Soviet Union, Spain, France, etc.

On the other hand, local languages or language varieties (and other social conjunctions, such as national identity) are used today (usually by the side of the opposition) to bring about changes in the political situation and people's mentality. Many regions today are striving to revive their languages realizing the significance of their culture and national unity which might be well manipulated for the political reasons.

The significant role that political and social conjunctions are playing in shaping the language policy and national identity around the world, unfortunately, is very often underestimated.

Keywords: Language policy, national identity, political dominance

Introduction

Being an integral part of the national identity, language reflects what is most essential for any nation, its culture, history, customs and traditions. Language policy, in its turn, reflects any changes in a country or the world (social or political) being often used in concern with national identity feeling in the pursuit of political dominance.

The article is devoted to illustrate the interrelation and interdependence of three major factors that shape language development today: language policy, national identity and politics. Therefore, the main objectives of the article are as follows:

1. to display the phenomenon of language colonialism, i.e. when political dominance determines the status of a language as a lingua franca;
2. to illustrate the destiny of local languages under the 'colonization' of the lingua franca;
3. to show the interrelation between the language policy and national identity feeling;
4. to demonstrate how language policy and national identity feeling might be applied by the opposition uprising today to attain independence.

Main Text

There are two major mechanisms of language policy change that correlate with the national identity feeling and are intermingled within politics.

The first and the most obvious one is the 'language colonization' provided by the political dominance of the country. The language of a superpower is colonizing territories around, spreading its influence and, as a result, gets accepted as a lingua franca. Doing this, it is automatically minimizing the role of the local languages or other lingua francas in the region colonized. "Language has always been the companion of empire," claimed the sixteenth century Spanish grammarian Nebrija, which means that the language of more powerful invaders will always subdue the local language variety, pushing it to the edge of extinction.

On the other hand, the process of 'language decolonization' is taking place today. Minority languages or language varieties (and other social conjunctions, such as national identity) are used today to bring about changes in the political situation and people's mentality. Many regions today are striving to revive their local languages by uprising and emphasizing the emergency of the national identification that is provided by the language. This might be well illustrated on the example of Ireland and the UK some years ago or the Northern Ireland and Scotland in the UK today, or Catalonia in Spain. Referendums are organized for the territory independence based on the national and language grounds when Standard English or Spanish are refused to be spoken on the territory of the countries relatively. Thus, it's obvious enough what a significant role the political and social conjunctions are playing in shaping the language policy around the world.

Phenomenon of 'language colonization' goes back in history, when the political and economical superiority of one country won the cultural and language dominance over the occupied territory. This is what shaped the phenomenon of the lingua franca. For example, the English language was first exported by once extremely powerful Great Britain to new territories and its colonies. Later in the XX c. this role was overtaken by politically more influential country, the United States of America. Similarly, the example of the Russian language dominating over the Post-Soviet area for almost a century and, as a result, many Soviet Union member countries were on the edge of losing their national identity and languages as well. Both cases were conditioned by the powerful nations which displayed their dominance by prioritizing their national culture and language over the other ones. In the Soviet Union, for example, this was achieved by implementing the "russification" language policy when the non-Russians were limited in personal language rights whereas this wasn't applied to the Russian population. This means that if you were ethnically a non-Russian, you could speak the Russian language everywhere whereas the use of your native language was territorially limited. This was a crucial change in the people's mentality, because it directly weakened the national identity feeling of many nations. Because the language reflects the cultural and national peculiarities, it becomes much easier to change a person's mentality by depriving them from a chance of speaking their national language. Promotion of the Russian language could make the Russian culture easier implemented in the member countries. The result of the "russification" language policy was that the number of the Russian language speakers immensely increased from 150 mln people in the beginning of the XX c. to 350 mln people in 90 years.

Even more dramatic was the situation in the UK where since the rise of the purist linguistic conservatism and 'Forster's Act' in the XVIII c. the only variety accepted in the society and to be spoken at schools was the Standard English. Those who mistreated the social and language ideology were physically punished (at schools) and even withdrawn from the society. In contrast to the Soviet Union, hegemonic English ideology lasted for several centuries that has drawn the country to the dramatic language situation today. During the last

couple of centuries there are 2 officially accepted extinct British languages: Auregnais spoken in the Channel Islands, last speaker died in 1950 and Norn, spoken in the Shetland Islands, Orkney Islands & Caithness, last speaker died in 1880 (Unst, Shetland Islands). As a result of the Highland Clearances in the eighteenth century, the number of Gaelic speakers in Scotland dropped from 231,594 people in 1881 to 92 000 in 2001. The Welsh language had become a minority language by 1911, spoken only by 43.5% of the population. The number of Welsh speakers had dropped down to 18.5% in 1991. Similarly catastrophic statistics can be provided concerning other minority languages in the UK: Cornish (0.8%), Irish Gaelic (7%), etc.

This clearly demonstrates the essential catastrophic outcomes of language colonization by dominating lingua francas that might bring other languages and cultures to extinction.

In such cases national identity feeling might restore the language situation. Lately, more and more often this notion is used in political discourse by minority nations in pursuit of independence. In a society where national identity and national feeling are brought back to people, they are ready to rise and fight for their rights. This is what is happening now in many Post-Soviet countries, Great Britain, Spain (Catalonia), etc..

After the fall of the Soviet Union the post-soviet countries started “decentralization” of the Russian language policy. Considering that the majority of population in Kazakhstan were Russian speakers in 1991, the president of the country, N. Nazarbaev, clearly realized that his country was losing its national identity and the culture. Thus, first, he started with crucial changes in the state and language policy of the country. He claimed the Kazakh language to be the state language in the country since 1989 providing the Russian language with the *de jure* status of an international language of communication. Later on he launched the process of ‘kazakhization’ which considered a number of Acts to be taken in order to revive the cultural and national identity among the population. The efforts aimed at diminishing the role of the Russian language were proved to have succeeded in several years when the number of schoolchildren studying at Kazakh educational institutions had reached the number of those from the Russian institutions in 2000-2001. In the following 5 years the number of Russian schools dropped in number of 303 around the country, with the number of Kazakh schools increasing in 46. Business communication is also mainly conducted either in the Kazakh language or English. According to the government language planning, the number of Kazakh language speakers is estimated to rise from 60% to 90% in 2020, whereas the number of Russian speakers is already 89% and it will rise to the point of 90%. In Ukraine, the ‘russification’ process has gone that far away that, according to the research, 30% of Ukrainian by origin schoolchildren claimed the Russian language to be their native language. This demonstrates the consequence of the Soviet policy that has brought to social changes in Ukraine, i.e. the loss of language skills has resulted in the absence of the national identity recognition. Considering that in some regions there are absolutely no schools in Ukrainian, in order to bring the country back to its origins and national culture, the Russian speaking institutions started to be boycotted: the number of Russian kindergartens was reduced in 22%, schools in 29% and students studying in Russian dropped in 22 %.

A more complicated situation is taking place in the UK. If the post-soviet countries have started struggling against the Russian language colonization after the fall of the Soviet Union, the British regions are doing that being a part of the UK bearing the idea of becoming independent in their mind. To make people vote for independence, local politicians, first of all, have to solve the issue of the fading national identity feeling. In order to do so, a new language policy is implemented that emphasizes the importance of the national language to revive and the nation to unite. One example is Scotland that is pushing its “Say Yes to an independent Scotland’ campaign during the last years. One of the major moves is made by

implementing the Scottish culture and language in the educational system. There is a Scots language Centre that is working hard on the Scots language promotion, the Scots Spelling Committee that is giving recommendations on spelling and pronunciation, a number of writers are publishing books and poems in Scots. Meanwhile, the Scottish Gaelic is given a rise, as well. If the Education (Scotland) Act 1872 completely ignored Gaelic, and led to generations of Gaels being forbidden to speak their native language in the classroom, according to the Gaelic Language (Scotland) Act 2005 and the National Plan for Gaelic, they are aimed at introducing Gaelic language education in primary schools and raising the number of people speaking it up to 100 000 people. This will help to restore the Gaelic language to 'a state of natural growth'. Interestingly enough, in contrast to the Scots or Scottish Gaelic, according to the Welsh Language Act 1993 and the Government of Wales Act 1998, the Welsh and the English language are provided the common grounds and must be treated equally in public and government spheres. Thus, the Welsh is the only language today in the UK that is provided a status of a state language *de jure*. Television and Radio are available today in the Welsh language. The 2004 Welsh Language Use Survey revealed 21.7% of the population of Wales to be Welsh speakers, compared with 20.8% in the 2001 census, and 18.5% in 1991. Even though today Wales is also contemplating about applying for its independence, in contrast to Scotland, the Welsh officials admit that they are not ready for such a big step, neither economically, nor socially.

Conclusion

The few cases provided in the article reveal the interrelation between the language policy and political conjunctions that determine the development of a language (positively or negatively) and national identity feeling among the natives. A language policy change might be considered as the first step to significant changes (political, social, economical) taking place in the region in future.

Thus, it is paradoxical that the notions of language policy, national identity and political conjunctions are so interrelated and interdependent but have not been given a proper overview in social sciences and linguistics. The analysis of language policy as a political tool intended to bring social changes and interfere in the life of a nation seems to be of great significance because this can serve as a starting point of a nation history change. The uniqueness of the research is provided by its interdisciplinary character and the fact that it could bridge social sciences and linguistics. Finally, the research of language policy under the influence of political conjunctions can be, on the one hand, applied in political studies to observe the moods and tendencies in political life of many countries; on the other hand, this could serve a good signal to the language policy makers, linguists and academicians to work hard on protecting the languages that might seem to be under the danger of lingua franca 'colonization'.

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READING A PRIMARY OCCURRENCE IN COMMUNICATION DEVELOPMENT IN THE FOREIGN LANGUAGE

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Abstract

Reading & understanding a text means being able to spot the ideas in it; to understand the given knowledge in order to compare them with the previous ones; to imply; to notice what is important, to split the known from the unknown in order to make use of ones knowledge. Readability is on the same rank with usability. Lexical knowledge and background make up two of the most essential elements that define the readability of a text.

Precise reading, different techniques to ease its understanding has continuously changed especially in these years when its understanding is measured through testing. Reading comprehension development phases from analyses to synthesis enable you to deepen its study. In the long run, this study passed from a simple reading without defining objective to the one with measurable objective.

Deepening the study for reading, increase its importance in a general communication in foreign language. Its complexity in many areas, affects not only the actors that play inside a class but also even the ones outside it.

Keywords: Communication, procedure, stimulation, game, interactive method

Introduction

As any other activities, reading has its own theory and practice which are closely interlinked. Theory intends to show the way to be followed to accomplish the relevant objectives.

Experience has proven that reading process is at a higher level when students have a project of reading or of its previously set objectives. There may be a wide range of reading objectives at school. Reading is for information, learning, execution of a given task, pleasure etc.

Main Text

Whichever is the purpose of reading proposed to the students, it would be helpful to divide the reading process in several phases:

First phase: Awakening of interest

The students have a quick text reading to capture its elements such as title, subtitle, source, data etc, in order to help them have an initial assumption over the general meaning. Some reading guidelines are related to the nature of message (if we are dealing with a letter, an article, newspaper, part of novel etc), nature of language used (familiar, argotic, technical language etc), nature of recipient (for whom the message is sent), nature of writer (Is he/she the same person? A group of persons? Is he/she coherent? Does he/she speak about himself/herself ? Does he/she give his/her opinion?)

Communication and use of reading start since the initial stage. Questions made to the students highlight only those skin-deep features disguising the core elements.

Second phase: discovery of the meaning of main ideas

In this phase the text should be read in details and very attentively. After the termination of questions of the first phase, it is proceeded with a silent reading during which the main ideas may be drawn. In case of a story, the identification of main characters may be sought, places where events occur, drafting of a list of the main events. Questions of « true/false » type are used with the view of promptly finding out if the text is understood. This fairly rapid reading is a key phase as it prepares the ground for the student to have an overview of the reported ideas. Further, the text is again read in silence but that time more carefully, in order to retrieve the proper information. This phase is developed for the more advanced students. Its assessment may be conducted through techniques and activities such as discussion, oral or written questions, multiple choice questions, tabular presentations etc. During these activities the students have the chance to use new words and expressions revealed to them in the first phase, i.e. the one of awakening of interest. After making sure that students have properly realized the ideas expressed in the text, they are required to further proceed and express their critical judgment on it, based on the ideas drawn. In this phase the students should read the text in more details and more attentively.

Third phase: realization of meaning

By information drawn from the text, the students attempt to realize a previously set objective, as for instance the construction of a genetic tree according to family descriptions, designing a scheme of movement of trains, drawings on the basis of written descriptions etc.

The guidelines we will suggest are comprehensive as they are directed to the general public, at schools, universities and course centers but they also include all communication skills.

The initial reading serves to have an idea on the general meaning. The text should be read for the first time without writing and underlining anything. The complete reading is done without focusing on difficult words or expressions.

Second reading is related to the elaboration of reading procedure. During the second reading, students highlight sections they deem as the main and interesting ones. The underlined words and paragraphs should be interrelated, in order to form a shorter and coherent text, thus highlighting the personal understanding of the student. They may ask teacher's help or consult the dictionary only if they do not know any keywords but should find the text meaning by themselves.

Comparison of procedures through collective discussion

The students should compare their procedure with the one of other readers and see differences and common aspects. Further, they need to change their procedure to improve it, if appropriate. Discussion allows the analysis of different versions of each student. The discussion is initially based on the text analysis and interpretation. Reading becomes a source of exchange of opinions, without being only a pedagogical prerequisite but also a communication need.

Explanation of a pending question, individual work

After discussion, it is necessary to adopt a personal attitude to the text and reading, asking the students to reflect individually and each of them should specify the method of text reading, thus constituting for the teacher a subject of assessment.

The students should explain verbally or in writing, what they wish to highlight, justifying it as properly argued. This exercise should be carried out during one class. Firstly, it allows the student to study the text in his own way. The activities to follow are linked with a systematic study about the text features, most of which lead to the writing procedures.

First contact with the text encourages reading

A compulsory reading is required in the class but the way how the teacher introduces it to the students encourages further reading. The preliminary text presentation is very important as it may cause a positive, neutral or negative feedback.

The purpose of preliminary presentation is to give students significant directions in harmony with their knowledge and sense of maturity. Accordingly, the presentation of a text is largely dependent on the public and method of teaching.

Some of the following guidelines may be used for a text presentation:

- Cite the work from which the selected text for study is extracted.
- State the author of work in question and the time in which he/she has written it.
- Specify the features of the literary genre he/she belongs to.
- Specify the relations of that work with other works of the same author.
- State the psychological and socio-cultural background of the author etc.

Reading skills and their classification

Reading skills differ from one student to another and as such, we may group them in three levels:

Basic skills: the students are required to draw visible information of the written section. The students with these skills understand for whom or what it is about and properly highlights information.

Advanced skills: students with these skills identify:

1 – internal links of the written section such as casual link, chronological link or reference link.

2 - discovery of main rules of written language such as adjustments, types of sentences, verbal forms etc.

3 – use of context such as for instance the use of polysemy for the text meaning.

Excellent skills: the students of this level are able to read between the lines and discover what the author implies without openly stating it. The students find the text connotation and meaning of a word or sentence across the context or comparing two pieces of information.

Skill distinguished students

“Know how to read”. They are capable to understand any types of written documents. They practice reading by more sustainable linguistic means and will be more motivated than the ones who possess only basic skills. When class work is performed with a written document, the primary objective is not its immediate understanding but learning reading strategies, thus making the students acquire long-term skills and instill in them the desire of reading diverse texts of high level linguistic complexity.

The activities for use of reading strategies should aim at an active, independent reader to cope with the text length or difficulty.

Communication reading presupposes the application of interactive methods. This is one of the directions of the curriculum of foreign languages, to make students active participants of the reading process and build the groundwork to express and develop their individuality, an objective to be emphasized in the first pages of the curriculum.

The work in groups is based on these methods. Most of the activities related to the text are realized with the work in groups.

Written texts have always a thematic character. This means that the teacher chooses a particular topic in accordance with the interests and psychology of the age group he/she works with, selecting in accordance with it the reading sections to be elaborated in the classroom, so that the students become skilled in both written understanding and oral and written communication.

In the new textbooks the students and teachers will find a wide range of topics linked with the daily life, problems and concerns of the adolescents, their desires and dreams for the future and other related topics recommended in the national curriculum.

New texts drafted on the basis of curriculum guidelines, bring an innovation in respect of the acquisition of cultural skills of the students, one of the three main objectives of the reading process. By reading, students will also develop positive skills and attitudes to the culture and lifestyle of other peers living abroad and will better reflect on their culture.

The texts offer a diversity of socio-cultural situations with authentic documents making the students react as if they were within a real communication environment.

Awareness to other cultures is linked not only with the authentic material presented in the texts but also with the students and features such as:

- their attitudes: being open and interested in new ideas, new experiences, other peoples and civilizations;
- if they have the will to pursue a relativist approach to their views and system of cultural values;
- if they show readiness and skill to stray from attitudes and prejudices on cultural gaps.

The students come in the classroom with a general culture acquired from their experience, educational system and means of information. In the reading texts they face sensitive daily life changes such as food, drinks, meals, way of sitting at the table and laying the table; regular leave, leisure time, timetables and working skills ; standard of living, living conditions, social insurance, interpersonal relations, society structures, relations with the state, work, within the family and between generations etc.

To ensure a richer text with both linguistic and social and cultural information, it should be accompanied by photographs, drawings, maps, tables and statistics. Additionally, its presentation has to underscore the objectives of the author.

Before the students are directly exposed to the written document, the teacher may develop a series of activities prior to reading, to sensitize and gradually familiarize them with the topic.

The teacher may introduce the students to the type of document they will have in front of them such as an interview, bulletin, poetry, shopping list etc.

He/ She:

- may provide some benchmarks to facilitate the meaning.
- may make an overview of the content of document.
- may give some words or expressions to help the students imagine the content of document and the latter has to be compared with the original.
- may distribute an abridged version of the document with missing words for the students to fill them out by understanding across the context.
- may work only with the title, asking the students to imagine what it is about and compare their product with the original text etc.

This phase serves the teacher to employ and practically use all knowledge acquired by the students until that time, applying it in a specific situation.

In the second phase of reading, the teacher may ask questions directly linked with the understanding of the written document.

-The students look in the text for information about the scene, acting characters, time of event, namely highlighting concrete facts answering the questions: Who / Where? When? Why? How? What?

- The students are guided to find the main idea of the text, seeking elements to judge about the author's style; if it is journalistic, literary or familiar etc.

-The teacher guides them to discover the meaning of words in the context, find elements to argue the type of written document, giving also examples from their experience.

-The teacher may distribute the same text, where the paragraphs or events are irregularly placed and the students standardize the chronology and their coherence. This would make them discuss within the group to agree on the version they will introduce.

-In separate pages the teacher may give the words of different characters and the students should find out their author.

-The teacher may distribute the text removing some words to be found out by the students and put them in the proper section supplementing the meaning of the sentence. It may occur that the student does not remember the word used in the text but says a synonym he/she has previously learned. This is a fact to be positively assessed by the teacher and the right word is concurrently given.

-The same method may be also applied to interrupted sentences to be completed, in order to have the meaning given by the text author.

There may be a wide range of activities, suffice that teachers use imagination and have adequate will to work.

During the third phase, after reading and comprehensive meaning of the written document, a more advanced work needs to be done.

In this phase the students are proposed activities allowing them to personally react to the text, share their opinions and feelings and draw a connection between what is articulated in the text and their life experience. Therefore, teaching enters into a more advanced phase, such as the extension to communication objective which is also the ultimate goal of the reading process.

-After reading they discuss about the problem posed and provide a solution, arguing it by linguistic means and techniques of reading they have just finished. At that time, the new linguistic material they have studied helps them express themselves.

-Interviewing games in different groups may be organized in the classroom about the issue in question.

-Opinion polls of all students are organized, with a division of pro and against opinions on the proposed solution.

-According to their own groups, the students may be given different texts about the same topic, with potential contradictory context. They should agree between them to find out those elements. After in-group discussions, work is done to compile the proper text. The texts of all groups are compared, explaining the reasons of use of a certain linguistic structure or meaning unit.

-The same method may be applied by distributing photos in groups, and postcards or drawings with a content on the same topic and the students are required to draft a specific text where the document contents is written. In this case, the teacher shifts from an oral meaning-oriented activity to a written product, thus harmonizing the four skills constituting the main objectives of the curriculum and standards of achievements in the reading process as a means of linguistic and cultural communication.

Texts represent a basic material both for the study and acquisition of lexical and grammatical linguistic structures to be elaborated by the teacher, proposing other contexts

other than those offered in the text, in order to realize the skill of students to participate in various communication situations they may face.

Regarding the topic on students' friendship, they are required to describe by adjectives the physical and moral representation of their best friend and others may give the opposite meaning of those adjectives without depicting any students in the classroom.

The students are required to furnish as many reasons or causes as possible which may break up a potential friendship between them and justify their opinion. To ensure a game-oriented activity, the oddest reasons may be given in order to create a lively classroom environment.

If the students are asked the question: "If you were a Mayor, what would you change in the city?", they will seriously think how the living conditions in the city might be changed, express their wishes and react to the present conditions to have a European city. The teacher may develop this discussion in the form of a competition between the classroom groups, where one group will serve as a jury to vote the best options and the winning group. This invitation makes the students discuss with each other with the view of identifying the best options and the best experience they acknowledge so far.

In reference of the foregoing, the students establish a potentially new education, assessing the ideas and opinions of friends and developing their personal ones or substituting their unconsolidated opinions with more clear ideas. In this connection, an interesting activity is also the game, which has always formational and educational character. Its purpose is that students reinforce their knowledge by entertaining themselves, without having the impression that they are learning. For example,,: *Amuse yourselves establishing some order and clarity in the speech of your Member of Parliament*. Phrases are irregularly built and without any logical connection, so the task of the student is to put them in order to express clear ideas. This is amusing and makes them laugh with the odd combinations they may find.

Such funny and diversified activities make learning more attractive, dynamic, relaxing, involving all students to participate and share their own opinions, meeting the purpose of communication.

Even if we analyze international tests such as Delf and Dalf, in which the four skills are measured, reading always constitutes the starting point of any written or oral communication.

Since the first part of exam which is listening, we guide the students that before listening, they should read the questions written in the text and from there they start to understand what they will hear and after listening, they communicate by completing the written questions.

In the second part of exam, reading, they are focused to shift to a couple of readings until reaching the communication in writing, answering to the questions under the reading section.

Even in the third part which is writing, after reading the topic the students start to communicate with themselves, looking for ideas and strategies to highlight what they know, judging and assessing in accordance with the topic chosen for that test.

As regards the last part of exam including expression skills, the students choose a short text between the two proposed ones. They are guided to discover the issue raised in the text. They should introduce their properly argued view and defend it also during the debate.

Reading is the source of communication development in the four measured skills, listening, reading, writing and speaking.

Conclusion

Reading process is an integral part of the reading process in general as the whole activity of understanding written texts cannot be developed out of the scope of communication

activities, discussions and debates or common questions and answers where everyone in the classroom has his own attitude to the text.

Indeed, to understand a text means to be capable to go beyond verbal forms of speech, in order to identify the ideas 'hidden' in it, compare them with the previous knowledge; distinguish what is essential, new and make use of the body of knowledge.

Although many pedagogical practices have been positively developed in this field, there is still much to be done. Many issues about the main factors of reading evolve around two components: reader and text. They need other empirical data, without disregarding the affective and emotional factors during the reading class.

A continuous review of the criteria for selection of texts helps above all with the presentation of an interesting document or material for the students.

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CONCEPT OF HUMAN IN SHORT STORIES OF IVAN TURGENEV

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Abstract

Ivan Turgenev (1818- 1883) – a Russian novelist of the XIX centuries developed concept of human in his "Notes of a Hunter" which is the collection of short stories. As a representative of romanticism Turgenev comparing nature with society gives preference to the former. He expresses his sympathy to folk, peasants who are closer to nature, than representatives of higher strata. In his "Notes of a Hunter" Turgenev demonstrates a rich spectrum of the Russian national character. The "Notes of a Hunter" have also a generalized image that passes through all its parts. This is an image of nature which serves as a powerful force. Nature is considered by Turgenev as a measure of moral values as well as a criterion for assessing the actions of man, his inner world. Therefore, the characters of his works are often characterized by Turgenev through their relationship to nature, which affects to human and forms his inner world. Turgenev believes that human's character is being formed under the influence of environment. However, when Turgenev says about environment he means not only society but also nature. Correlation between nature and society is manifested differently in characters of his literary heroes. Elements of nature are stronger in characters of peasants. But in characters of landowners elements of society take supremacy over the nature. Therefore, peasants are closer to the nature than landowners. Also they are spiritually and morally are higher than landowners. The description of literary characters allows Turgenev to develop a philosophical concept of human.

Keywords: Ivan Turgenev, concept of human, nature, society

Introduction

Problem of human has been one of the central topics in literature of all peoples. Each concrete historical epoch offered its specific philosophical concept of human. The concept included definite system of value orientations, stable internal motives and attitudes of human activity determined by socio-economic and cultural conditions. It also expressed the public mood and social feelings and mentality of personality, its relation to human, society and nature. In such a situation the philosophical concept of human dominating in a society has had a great influence on representatives of literature. However, a literary concept of human has not been able to include all varieties of philosophical concept of human. The literary concept of man aims to express different forms of human individuality, to show contradictory complexity of human interactions and finally to influence on formation of certain public sentiment, to create various options of collective feelings and thereby express disobedience, disagreement with dominating interpretations of the conceptions of personality.

The article deals with analysis of concept of human in the literary stories of one of the most outstanding Russian novelists of the XIX centuries Ivan Sergeyevich Turgenev.

Main Text

Ivan Turgenev as a great Russian realist writer describing almost all main types of the Russian reality of the XIX century contributed very much to the characterology of the Russian literature.

In its ideological and aesthetic significance of the images and characters in the literary works of Turgenev are more important than plot- event aspect of his works. Explaining this distinctive feature of Turgenev's literary works prof. S.E.Shatalov notes that there is a definite discrepancy between author's interpretation of characters of his literary heroes and plot- event aspect of the works. Turgenev gives preference to the former (Shatalov, 1960).

It should be noted that above mentioned feature of Turgenev's works is especially evident in his short stories. It is enough to read the "Notes of a Hunter" by Turgenev to ensure diversity and completeness of characterology of the writer. In this story Turgenev approached the understanding of Russian life and Russian characters. Here the writer demonstrated a rich spectrum of the Russian national character, images. The "Notes of a Hunter" have also a generalized image that passes through all its parts. This is an image of nature, serving as a powerful force, and living outside people and social relations. Nature is considered by Turgenev as a measure of moral values as well as a criterion for assessing the actions of man, his inner world. Therefore, the characters of his works are often characterized by Turgenev through their relationship to nature, which affects to human and forms his inner world. Turgenev believes that human's character is being formed not only under the influence of society, but also nature. When Turgenev says about an environment he means not only society but also nature. The correlation between nature and society is manifested differently in characters of his literary heroes. Particularly in the characters of ordinary peasants elements of the nature dominate. The given domination serves as the source of moral purity and spiritual beauty of simple Russian people, peasants, notes Turgenev in his "Notes of a Hunter". But in the characters of landowners elements of society take supremacy over the nature. V. G.Belinskiy, one of the famous Russian literary critics of the XIX century notes that Turgenev wants to say that peasants are closer to the nature than landowners. Therefore, they are spiritually and morally are higher than landowners.

Turgenev's "Notes of a Hunter" includes several short stories. In the first story called as "Chor and Kalinych" Turgenev presents these two literary characters as typical representatives of the Russian people. Chor is clever and rationalist man. Kalinych is a romantic man. He is a dreamer. These two opposite characters are seen also in other stories of "Notes of a Hunter". Conditionally we can call the representatives of the first group as rationalists, and the representatives of second group as romantics. Between these two groups of characters Turgenev puts the representatives of the third group – Biryuk and Dikiy Barin, who are very complicated literary characters. Because on the one hand Biryuk and Dikiy Barin are strong, have a definite ideas, but on the other hand they are not consistent in the endeavors, activities.

Turgenev in the first story of his "Notes of a Hunter" describes three different types of the Russian men: Chor who is clever, rationalist man; Kalinych who is a dreamer, and Polutigin who is ridiculous landowner.

Kalinych as a romantic likes nature. He is aware of the nature's life. He like a bird of the nature is a kid of the nature. His closeness to the nature makes him kind, happy, and humanist man. He has a valuable knowledge on the nature. Turgenev characterizes Kalinych as a morally and culturally rich man. It seems that Kalinych is able to speak with flowers, trees, birds, animals. This closeness to the nature forms Kalinych as a representative of peasants. Turgenev does not hide his sympathy to this man. The writer wants to say that Kalinych is morally richer than Chor and Polutigin. According to prof. Shatalov, "The great merit of Turgenev is that he sees the source of genuine poetry and inspiration in the

characters of poor people like Kalinych, in beauty of the Russian nature and in the peoples' soul" (Shatalov, 1960).

Turgenev describes Kalinych amidst the nature. However he shows Chor in his own yard. Kalinych is closer to the nature than to society, so he deeply felt each event taken place in the nature. Therefore, when Kalinich spoke with other men he was interested in descriptions of nature, mountains, waterfalls, unusual buildings...". Turgenev notes that Kalinych does not show any interest whether he lives in a big or small house, whether he is walking in sandals or boots. His lovely place is the nature, and he was pleased and happy all that nature provides him.

Kalinych's poetic nature, his touching friendship with Chor, his musical talent, sensitivity to the nature, tell us about the rich moral forces of the Russian peasant, his ability to respond to the beauty in life and in the nature are distinctive features this Turgenev's hero. Thus, Russian peasants are being presented before a reader in a new light - as a spiritually rich man. Belinskiy meant these moral and spiritual features of people's life, when he said that the author of "Notes of a Hunter" succeeded to reveal such specific advantages of the ordinary Russian people which were not demonstrated so clearly earlier" (Belinskiy, 1956).

Chor presents another facet of the Russian national character. He is a typical representative of the rationalists. Turgenev in his "Notes of a Hunter" characterizes Chor as a clever man, having a great motivation and resources to realize his plans. He lives with practical interests, seeks to ensure all necessary conditions for his life. Chor is far from poetic perception of the nature. He has quite opposite features than Kalinych. "Chor grasps the essence of the reality, i.e. he built house, accumulated money, got married and have kids. Kalinych had also a wife but he was afraid of her. Later he was left by the wife. Kalinych stood closer to the nature; Chor did the same toward people and society...," notes Turgenev (Turgenev, 1982).

The difference in the characters of these two literary heroes is seen also in the process of the formation of their world vision. If the formation of the world vision of Chor took place under societal phenomena, society played a crucial role, the formation of the world vision of Kalinych is related to an influence of the nature. Chor gives priority to his own mercantile interests. He thinks primarily about his material interests. Unlike Kalinych, Chor approaches the nature as something which has purely material significance and brings benefit. He does not consider the nature as a source of the beauty. For him the nature is no more than a piece of work. Such a pragmatism in relation to the nature will be reflected in the words of other Turgenev's literary hero Bazarov (novel "Fathers and Sons"): "Nature is not a temple. It is a factory and a man is just a worker there" (Turgenev, 1982).

These two literary heroes differ from each other also physically. Turgenev describes Chor as a short, broad-shouldered and dense man, and Kalinych – as a tall, skinny man. It seems that Chor goes down to the ground, but Kalinych - up to the sky. Although the writer clearly demonstrates his sympathy to Kalinych, however the author pays tribute also to Chor when he notes: "Chor talked like a clever man. He could extensively explain his vision of some events" (Turgenev, 1982). However positive features of Chor are not stable. Furthermore, it is not clear in which direction they will further develop. That is why as noted above the character of Kalinych is nearer and dearer to the author than that of Chor.

Another story of Turgenev's "Notes of a Hunter" is "Rendezvous". It speaks of unrequited and emotive love of Akulina to the waiter Victor, Turgenev, as in other stories of "Notes of a Hunter", again emphasizes the idea he raised in other stories - peasant women like Akulina are morally higher than vulgar and heartless representatives of higher class. Thereby Turgenev continues the theme of rich moral qualities of simple peasants. The story is built on the parallels and contrasts, in which descriptions of nature interspersed appearance and inner world of literary characters. The story begins landscape sketches birch wood . Then

it replaces the sketch aspen groves. After matching birch and aspen groves, he proceeds to describe literary characters. The character of Akulina is given within the frame of scene birch grove.

A birch wood, the image of the white birch is associated with the image of Akulina. Turgenev shows matching colors and details in his description – autumn birch grove and Akulina. Instability of the weather in autumn when the sky clouds are constantly changes fits the mood of a girl who is sad because of the impending separation from a loved one, then any hope of waiting for him. And if birch wood constantly change depending on whether the sun was shining or not, then Akulina is smiling happily, “illuminated ” and shines when she sees Victor.

The change of mood of Akulina depends on the appearance of Victor. Victor is the sun for Akulina, the sun of her life (at least , for it is so for Akulina). However, Victor is a perverse man. Victor ruined the life of this young girl. He has caused her bitter resentment trampling - extending her love. Victor did not become the sun of Akulina. He did not illuminate and warm by its light and warmth of his love. He turned darker and darker clouds and made her life bitter and unhappy. Thanks to him, she bitterly suffered. He brought her only tears, grief, unhappiness. Referring to the character of Victor Turgenev wants to say the people who are far from their native land, nature, folk, they follow the way a Victor does. People like Victor are without soil. His immediate proximity to the life of land owner corrupted him. He took egoistical aristocratic habits and immoral behavior. Although he belongs to the class of peasantry however he despises peasants imitating his master.

He considers himself above peasants, above the very Akulina, whose emotional subtlety, poetic nature are very higher. Turgenev presents Akulina a woman of great moral beauty and strength. Concerning Victor he is far from his class, his people. Opposing himself to the people leads to his alienation from nature. Losing direct contact with nature, and Victor loses the fine, deep feelings, moral purity, and integrity of nature. Victor completely indifferent to nature: he drops on the grass cornflowers that Akulina with great love gathered. He absolutely is indifferent towards her life and her fate. Naturally, he does not appreciate Akulina’s fondness for him. He prefers happiness in loving community, the city and its empty fun. As a result he abandoned Akulina’s unrequited love. He finds it impossible to stay in the village because "in winter it is boring in the village” and in St. Petersburg “you can find such wonders which Akulina and others like her villagers cannot even dream and imagine. The difference between him and peasants Victor sees in education. However his so-called "education" is to imitate his master.

To Turgenev Akulina is as simple and natural as nature itself. She, like Kalinych, knows and loves flowers, herbs. She smartly and lovingly said about each of flowers, herbs (Turgenev, 1982). Unlikely prof. S.E.Shatalov rights, noting that "In the "Rendezvous" a bouquet of flowers here says nothing for in-depth representation of the image" (Shatalov, 1960). I believe that flowers are the best complement of the image of Akulina. Without flowers her image was incomplete and one-sided. On the one hand, flowers say about her poetic nature, sensitivity to nature, everything beautiful about her ability to respond to the beauty in nature, on the other hand - they characterize Akulina as a typical representatives of Russian woman who cares about household. She knows the names of herbs, flowers, trees and their qualities. Also, in the episode with a bunch of cornflowers Turgenev compares his literary heroes in term of their relation to nature. Again sympathy of the author is on the side of people who love nature. Based on relation of his literary heroes Turgenev describes their inner world, their personal qualities. Turgenev considers a relation of his literary heroes as one of the main criteria for assessing their personal qualities.

At the end of the story the author returns to the description of nature. He perceives human and nature in parallel, in their organic unity. Turgenev characterizes the tragic fate of

Akulina through the description of nature: "Gusty wind quickly raced towards me through the yellow, withered stubble" (Turgenev, 1982). The end of love of Akulina coincides with the autumn withering of nature, and "yellow leaves" are associated with the destruction of dreams and hopes of this young girl. Landscape breathes impending cold winter. "Thanks to Victor" winter of young and full of dreams life of Akulina came too early.

In the story "Kasian" Turgenev highlights one more aspect of Russian peasant truth-seeker. Kasian – literary hero of this story is a truth seeker. He wants thirst for justice, the humane treatment of humans and animals. As a representative of romantic group Kasian tries to get knowledge on natural phenomena, forest medicinal herbs. In the face of Kasian Turgenev first in Russian literature was able to create a poetic image of the peasant - truth-seeker. This is a new type of Russian peasant in general typology of folk characters, although much of his kinship we can find among other dreamers, romantics. He strikes the narrator and his appearance, and his spiritual wealth.

Every detail in the form or behavior of Kasian is something new and unexpected feature for narrator. Kasian is an original and exclusive character. It seems that Kasian lives out of the social relations, in the natural environment. In the forest, he feels like at home. Birds understand and speak with him. However his shelter is poor and uncomfortable. He tries to go out his shelter, to nature which is associated with freedom. He dreams of a life in the area where he may find not only fertile land, but also forests, rivers, pastures. Kasian was looking for the truth", and he dreams of another, better life. Kasian words of warm seas, about fairy countries show his desire to see the kingdom of happiness and justice. And this is natural because Turgenev's literary heroes are close to nature, they spiritually rich. They are concerned with the fate of their motherland, and life of their people and urgent societal issues. These features are inherent also to Kasian, who has high and rich moral and cultural qualities. By these features he surpasses representatives of the landlord class. He is exceptionally close to nature, and has a sensitive perception of it. Kalinych's attitude to nature was a natural and simple, Kasian's attitude to nature is defined by its complexity. His closeness to nature is inspired. The main thing in ideas of Kasian is protection of all life in nature. He says that "a lot of it, all the forest creatures, and field and river creatures, and marsh and meadow, and hors, and grassroots - and sin to kill her, and he believes that creatures should live on the Earth" (Turgenev, 1982). Careful respect for all living things, creatures in nature is distinctive feature of Kasian. He cares about animals, birds, protects them. During hunting Kasian makes everything in order hunter could not shoot birds. And no wonder that long hunts – nickname did not find any game. And when the hunter killed the cornrake, Kasian closed his eyes and did not move until the hunter raised bird. Then he came to the place where the dead bird dropped, bent down to the grass, shook his head, glanced anxiously at the hunter and whispered: "Sin ! .. Oh, that's a sin! Well, why did you kill the bird? " (Turgenev, 1982). Incidentally, it should be noted that until now Kasian, who barely answered questions of hunter suddenly started talking. And when the hunter said that he killed the bird to eat. Kassian said him: "You say not correctly. You will not eat the bird. You did kill the bird for fun" (Turgenev, 1982). And in this he supports Lukerya who is too angry to hunters because they shoot swallows. Kasian and Lukerya love nature. Both have a keen sense of unity with nature. Kasian spends much time in nature. Kasian is also a child of nature. "No wonder that he was called fleas, says the narrator" (Turgenev, 1982). But despite the fact that Kasian common with birds zachilikal after porshku , would pick up the song of a lark , he did not speak to the hunter. Kasian prefers to talk with birds rather than with those "kill birds".

Thus, Kasian like other literary heroes of Turgenev who love nature and people is a typical representative of romantics.

Conclusion

Creating images of folk, peasants in his short stories Turgenev shows them talented, intelligent, poetic, humane, and emphasizes that they are not different from an educated landowners. Furthermore, in some respects they even surpass landowners. Kalinych, Kasian, Jakob-Turok, Akulina, Lukerya and others are the same kids of nature, like birds, flowers, plants. They advocate the continuation of natural phenomena and complement them. To Turgenev, human and nature form part of a unified and harmonious whole. Deep and unbreakable bond between man and nature, a sense of unity between man and nature, the desire for harmony with nature are the basis of the philosophical concept of human. Nature for Turgenev is the basis of characterization and worldview of the writer. Sense of nature - it is not only admiration and admiration of her beauty. It is more and it is not available to everyone. Nature is the basis of human character. It is a force capable to influence the character of human and change way of moral development, to determine moral world of human. According to Turgenev those who loves nature cannot be indifferent to people.

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EXPLORING WORDING AND MEANING OF CONTEMPORARY SERMONIC DISCOURSE

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Abstract

The theoretical construct for the present paper is provided by Hasan's concept of genre (1984). Her model of identification of genre, which is based on Halliday's semantically driven model of language description, makes it possible to convey and specify the rich complexities at play between the discourse, semantic and lexico-grammatical levels for the genre under consideration. We apply the theory to nine English contemporary sermons. We focus our analysis on the relationship between wording and meaning. In order to exemplify this interrelationship in actual texts belonging to a particular genre we analyse one sermon in detail. By using semantic networks for entity and event it is possible to state semantic properties of functional elements that distinguish sermons from other genres. We then discuss the generic characteristics of sermons and show how the method of argumentation, which is based on everyday experiences or appeals to human feelings, leads the believers towards a Christian life-style and faith.

Keywords: Genre, sermon, systemic functional linguistics, semantic features

Introduction

This paper looks at how meanings unfold across the genre of Contemporary English Sermons under the application of tools developed within the fields of systemic functional linguistics.

The corpus material consists of nine texts. It is obvious that nine texts differ from each other on the level of words and sentences. Despite such dissimilarities, the speakers of the English language are likely to read there texts as sermons. The question to be asked, therefore, is: what do there nine texts have in common that can count as a recognisable genre of sermonic discourse?

To be able to investigate the above question empirically one needs to start at the lexico-grammatical level and trace surface grammatical features that have to do with meanings. This is because it is only the appeal to meanings that tells us that texts in the corpus belong to the same genre-repertoire of sermon. We introduce genre theory, which is especially suitable for the analysis of discourse meanings and makes it possible to convey the rich complexities at play between the discourse, semantic and lexico-grammatical levels for the genre under consideration.

Main Text

The last four decades have seen a growing research to find reliable criteria for classifying texts into types. Although the models differ when it comes to the issues of how generic structures should be represented, there exists a general agreement that genres realize social configuration at the semiotic and semantic level.

This paper applies a theory of genre as defined in Halliday's and Hasan's writings. For them genre is a semantic concept (Halliday 1989 [1985]: 38-39). According to Halliday's theoretical arguments, particular social context motivates particular configuration of semantic meanings (realised by linguistic units) which are in turn realised in lexico-grammar and phonology, and the result is texts belonging to the same register or genre. Based on Halliday's theory of 'language as social semiotics', Hasan (1984) proposed a theory of generic structure potential. One of the most attractive features of her model is that it depends on the notion of generic structures that are identified first in semantic terms and then further specified in terms of lexico-grammatical patterns capable of realising specific semantic properties. Therefore, according to Hasan's three levels of abstraction, one should be able to define genre: (i) at the level of discourse at which text structures are defined and generic structure is formulated; (ii) at the level of semantics, related to which is the statement about "crucial semantic attributes" (Hasan 1984:84) of the elements proposed at the discourse level; (iii) the lexico-grammatical level at which the description of lexico-grammatical patterns realising semantic properties of the elements in question is attempted. The semantic level is therefore the "key to the whole system" (Halliday 1974) as it is the semantic system that systematically relates the high-level concepts of meanings to their linguistic realisations at the level of lexico-grammar.

When it comes to applying Hasan's theoretical model to complex types of discourses in our society, where a text's semantic elements are realised by long segments of texts and not by particular utterance, one is faced with a problem. The lexico-grammatical analysis, which uses Halliday's techniques, is essentially a device for handling clausal phenomena. But text is a "structure of a higher order" (Butt 1988:78). The core of the problem lies in the fact that the relationship between semantics and grammar is not 'one-to-one'. Using Halliday's words "...one element in the semantic system is realised by more than one in the lexico-grammatical system" (Halliday 1974: 91). The above-addressed concerns are further elaborated at an appropriate point in the discussion concerning lexico-grammatical realisation of semantic elements proposed for sermon discourse.

To this point our discussion of genre was, in a sense, abstract, focussing mainly on those elements of discourse semantics that are relevant to our empirically based investigation of contemporary English sermons.

The language of sermons is a vast field and the need to restrict the scope of the study is required. Therefore, this study considers only the sermons belonging to the stream of Roman Catholicism, and in particular, contemporary sermons. The term "contemporary", refers to sermons that have come into existence after 1971. The year 1971 is seen as a turning point in the history of preaching, as it denotes the beginning of liturgical renewal emanating from Vatican Council II. This event had a tremendous impact on sermons by stating that sermons should be based mainly on liturgical and scriptural sources. Prior to this, sermons "...grew out of rhetorical principles and structures" (Lowry 1993:100).

The data in the present studies is analysed according to Hasan's generic model, which means that only the interpretation of semantic level and description of lexico-grammatical patterns are attempted. The phonological level, as well as other semiotic codes, are not taken into account at this stage. Therefore, the decision was made to collect written material. In order to select from the many sermons that have been published, a few preachers were approached and asked to name five books of published sermons that they have found the most useful in their own practice of writing sermons. After the lists were collected and compared, four of the most frequently appearing books were chosen: Barrett (1984), Donders (1988), Link (1989), McKarns (1985). The nine sermons were chosen from the above mentioned sermon books randomly, the criteria being however, that texts should be based on different scriptural readings.

Based on a qualitative analysis of nine texts we tried to identify significant stages of sermon discourse. The entry point is the discourse level where functional elements and their semantic functions are postulated by comparing each postulated element to the other elements in terms of their similarities. Similarities between elements can be stated only by referring to their semantic properties as the semantic functions endue the elements with particular semantic characteristics.

Before proceeding to the description of basic meanings by which the elements are defined, the general problem of meta-language for the semantic level of language system needs to be acknowledge and considered. Butt, in his article “Randomness, Order and the Latent patterning of Text” (Butt 1988 in Birch and O’Toole 1988), argues that in order to discuss the level of semantics it is necessary to include other levels of language systems or refer to human experiences as such, and points out that “the terms of semantic description are a revaluation of terms that do service in other environments” (Butt 1988: 78). Along the lines suggested by Butt, the framework was designed on the basis of which meanings can be approached. Thus two central notions related to human experiences were selected: entity and event (for further development of semantic networks for entity and event see Cloran 1994).

To display the semantic design of elements, which is being expressed through a particular organisation and combination of entities and events, the lexico-grammatical patterns of the interpersonal structure are examined. While the entities are represented by Subject role in the mood system of clause, the events are located into time or modulated by Finite element.

We will now exemplify those correspondences with one example, drawing attention to recursive semantic patterns that define functional elements and characterise the semantic shaping of the genre.

Example 1

The following example selected for the purpose of illustration is “*Don’t tell anyone*” by J. Donders (1988: 96-97).

Scriptural Event: 1. A leper came to him. 2. He fell on his knees in front of him. 3. He pleaded with his right hand over his mouth. 4. “If you want to, 5. you can heal me!” 6. Jesus looked at him, that creature of his, his brother, 7. and once again he was touched with pity. 8. He said: 9. “Of course I want to. 10. Be healed!” 11. Having learned from what had happened to him before, 12. he added: 13. “Please don’t tell anyone except the priests 31.1 you need to tell to get your health certificate.” 14. The man not only went to those priests 15. he told the story left, right, and center. 16. And they came again, the hundreds and the thousands, 17. looking for the easy thing – his touch – 18. while remaining unchanged. 19. They wanted to be healed like that leper, only on the surface.

Contemporisation: 20. It is a bit like those patients 20.1 doctors sometimes speak of. 21. Sick people 21.1 who are looking for an injection, an ointment, a powder, or a pill 21.1 but who are not willing to change the eating or drinking habits, the smoking, the life style 21.2.1 that is really the cause of their sickness. 22. They were a bit like those sufferers from VD 22.1 who are quite ready to undergo all kinds of treatment 22.2 but are not prepared to stop their promiscuity. 23. Like all of us 23.1 who are willing to discuss all the ills of society 23.2 and how they should be overcome- 23.3 how the goods should be redivided, 23.4 how the poor should be helped, 23.5 how the drunkards should be healed, 23.6 how the prostitutes should be saved, 23.7 how the orphans should be fed, 23.8 how the wars should be stopped- 23.9 in meeting after meeting, minuting everything carefully in writing. 24. Yet nothing ever happens, 25. because nothing goes deeper than our skins. 26. Jesus said: 27. “I will heal your skin. 28. I will heal the surface, 29. but don’t tell anyone. 30. Keep it a secret. 31. Because it is not all. 32. If you tell, 33. they will never understand 34. what I really came for.”

Call for response: 35. The ex-leper did tell. 36. He was not really changed. 37. And Jesus was proved right. 38. They came. 39. We came, 40. and we come, 41. looking for the easy thing – his touch – 42. while remaining unchanged. 43. We are willing to pray for a healing, 44. but less willing to listen to 44.1 what bishops write about the changes 44.1.1 to be made in this world in view of justice for all and peace in this world in his – Jesus’ – name.

The example begins with a Scriptural Event. To display the semantic design of events and entities that characterise the element Scriptural event the lexico-grammatical patterns from interpersonal perspective were examined. If the Subject role is examined from the perspective of experiential content, it is revealed that central entities can be divided into two domains as it is summarised in the Table 1.

Table 1
Semantic options for entities in Scriptural event
(Quotation marks indicate reported speech)

Meaning	Participants domain: (leper, lepers)	historical participants (Jesus)	Discourse domain
Lexico-grammatical choices	1. a leper 2. he 3. he 10. “you” 11. it 12. leper 13. “you” 13.1 “you 14. the man 15. he. 16. they (lepers) 19. they	4. “you” 5. “you” 6. Jesus 7. he 8. he 9. “I” 12. he	11. what

As table 1 shows, the Subject role of the Scriptural event is focussed on historical characters that belong to the book of Scriptures and can thus be called Scriptural characters.

Looking at the options of Finite for the same clauses in *Example 1* the two areas of time are distributed as shown below.

Table 2
Semantic options for events in Scriptural event
(Quotation marks indicate reported speech)

Meaning	Past	Present
Lexico-grammatical choices	1. came 2. fell 3. pleaded 6. looked 7. 7. was touched 8. said 11. happened 12. added 14. want 15. told 16. came 19. wanted to be healed	4. “want to” 5. “can heal” 9. want to 10. be healed 13. don’ tell

As the present appears only in the direct speech, the rest of the messages construe the meaning “previous once-occurring historical time”.

For the element Scriptural event, the selection of entities and events is non-random. When the Subject domains and time areas are brought together, it is significant that historical characters are related to previous once-occurring time. The presentation of individual characters, their actions and behaviour in once-occurring events, conveys the meaning of

individuation. The individuation is, therefore, the crucial semantic property of the element Scriptural event.

The discussion of the Contemporisation will proceed in the same manner as for the Scriptural event. In order to establish the distinctness of the element of Contemporisation, the Subject and Finite structures were summarised in the tables 3 and 4.

Table 3
Semantic options for entities in Contemporisation

Meaning	Participant domain	Real-world domain (material and mental entities)	Discourse domain
Lexico-grammatical choices	20. patients 20.1 doctors 21.-21.2. sick people 22. they 22.1-22.2 suffers from VD 23. all of us 23.4 the poor 23.5 the drunkards 23.6 the prostitutes 23.7 the orphans	23.2 the ills of society 23.3 the goods 23.8 the wars 26. Jesus	20. it 24. nothing 25. nothing

Table 4
Semantic options for events in Contemporisation

Meaning	Past	Present
Lexico-grammatical choices	22. were 26. said	20. is 20.1 speak of 21.1 are looking 21.2 are not willing to change 21.2.1 is 22.1 are 22.2 are 23. are willing 23.2 should be overcome 23.3 should be redivided 23.4 should be helped 23.5 should be healed 23.6 should be saved 23.7 should be fed 23.8 should be stopped 24. happens 25. goes

In contrast to the Scriptural event, where the focus is on the past once-occurring historical time, the messages in the Contemporisation construe the present time (Table 4). When the time distinction is associated with the Subject role (Table 3), the modification in the semantic movement becomes apparent. The selection of Subjects does not include individual characters but rather participants that present the whole class of people and their typical behaviour or the typical behaviour of humans in general. The typicalness of behaviour is highlighted by selecting simple present, the tense that, according to Halliday (1985), when used with material and verbal processes is extended beyond the meaning 'here-and-now' to denote "habitual actions". When simple present is used with relational and existential processes, and the Subject represents a class of people, the meaning of the present becomes "habitual" as well. Therefore, we can conclude that the typicalness and habitualness are two distinctive properties of the element called Contemporisation.

The example concludes with the element Call for response. In the example 1 the need for response is expressed implicitly by showing the negativity of actions and behaviour

among the members of historical and contemporary society. The expressions of negative polarity create the urge for response. This dimension of the text is represented in Table 5.

Table 5
Semantic options for events in Call for response

Meaning	Modulation Inclination	Polarity	Negative expressions
Lexico-grammatical choices	43. willing to pray	36. was not changed	42. unchanged 44. less willing

The purpose of the element Call for response is to point out to listeners that they need to respond to the message delivered through the Scriptural event and the Contemporisation.

The above analysis of one example of a sermon genre sheds light on the complicated question of patterning at the level of semantics and displays the three distinctive elements that constitute the genre of sermonic discourse: the Scriptural event, the Contemporisation and the Call for response. Based on the analysis of nine texts in the English corpus and a previous papers that introduces the spoken corpus of fifty Slovenian contemporary sermons (Bizjak 2008), it is possible to show that these three elements are organised into argumentative form that distinguish sermons from other genres of ethical argumentation.

The Scriptural event displays the concentration upon characters. The semantic content of characters is manifested by what characters do, say, how they behave. The historical time is defined by the presence of the central figure, Jesus. His doings, sayings, judgments and behaviour are canonical for Christians as he, sent by God, is perceived as an instance of the perfect religious person. Because Jesus' life as historical person was unique in its virtue, Jesus is an exemplary figure and his life is an exemplum. In contrast to the figure of Jesus, the actions and behaviour of historical characters who encountered Jesus in the historical situation (for example a leper) display only a lesser or higher degree of agreement with the first principles of the Christian life and are perceived as illustrations of negative/positive human behaviour. The Scriptural event is characterised by a combination of two frames: negative/positive illustration and exemplum.

As the presence of Jesus as divine and human in the historical event is a happening that runs counter to believers' everyday experience about the laws of nature, the pedagogical tool of analogy is used and a domain of similar contemporary situation is established. For believers to be able to see how the historical situation resembles contemporary situation, the explicit description of actions and behaviour of contemporary participants is required. The habitualness and typicalness of human behaviour is presented through the domain of contemporary situation.

In Scriptural event and Contemporisation, the exposition of ethical principles takes place through the presentation of positive and negative ethical options. As the goal is not only to expose the believers to knowledge but also to persuade them to live according to Jesus teaching, the rhetorical devices are employed to create real-life situations in the positive and negative frames. On the basis of the observation of the right and wrong behaviour of individual characters in historical situation, the believers are able to judge from their own experience which actions call for imitation. It can, therefore, be claimed, that the Scriptural event and the Contemporisation construe an argument which is not based on scientific proof but on reasoning from experience (such as observation, imitation, testimony).

After the realisation of the Scriptural event and the Contemporisation, which offer clear ethical options for the believers and allow them to see the life-style that leads to salvation, sermons proceed by directly turning to listeners in the Call for response.

In the Call for response it is stated that one relates to principles articulated in the Scriptural event and the Contemporisation by using a variety of moral directions. By

employing expression of negativity, exhortation and obligation another argumentative form is used which persuades by appealing to the feelings of believers.

Conclusion

By applying the systemic functional model of language description and concepts of semantics to the genre of sermons it is possible to show: (i) how the Scriptural event, the Contemporisation and the Call for response identify the middle stages that distinguish sermons from other genres (ii) how sermons display an argumentative structure (iii) and how the method of argumentation, which is based on everyday experiences or appeals to human feelings, leads the believers towards a Christian life-style and faith.

This study clearly exhibit that sermons belong to a wider genre of argumentative discourse and suggest that further research along these lines into religious or political ethical discourse can yield fruitful results.

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GRAMMARS OF SLAVIC LANGUAGES FOR FRENCH-SPEAKING PUBLIC

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Abstract

The paper deals with grammars for foreigners from the point of view of linguistically heterogeneous communication situations. It puts the notion of grammar through to those of mediation and intercomprehension. It brings an overview of existing grammars of Slavic languages for French-speaking users in a chronological and enunciative perspectives, focusing especially on the grammars of Slovak language as starting points of the conception of a new grammar of Slovak language for French-speaking public.

Keywords: Linguistics, grammar, communication, intercomprehension, slavic languages

Introduction

The paper takes a look at grammars of foreign languages in the perspective of exolingual (linguistically heterogeneous) communication through the example of grammars of Slavic languages – and Slovak language in particular – oriented towards French-speaking users. For the purpose of this study, the term „grammar“ will be used to design a material object describing a linguistic system or some of its parts.

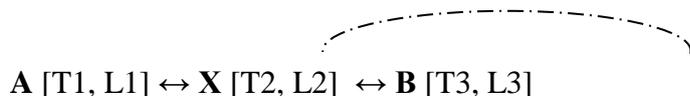
The importance of studying grammars for foreigners is related to the fact that they represent one of the possible materializations of language contact. Contact of languages is closely related to intercomprehension and mediation. Even though contacts between Slovak and French language may not seem very fruitful it is still interesting to study their forms and expressions. Teaching grammar brings along enhancement of linguistic, communicative and cultural skills (cf. Klimová & Kubeková, 2007 for the term of cultural skill).

Grammars for foreigners as mediating entities

Foreign language grammars become interesting subject matter when seen in the perspective of communication studies, especially when considered with regard to the triple distinction made between direct, indirect and mediated communication, adopted – despite more or less important conceptual differences – on a large scale by theoreticians of communication studies, mediology and linguistics.

As we stated elsewhere (Chovancová, 2013), mediated communication takes place between subjects that are not able to share the same coordinates of the enunciation situation. More specifically, they do not share the same space and/or time. The emitter's situation (he/she is designed as A) is defined as [T1, L1], T representing time and L representing place. The receiver's situation (B) is defined as [T3, L3]. We see mediation as a procedural task ensured by a third person (X) having a physical or a technical access to both communication situations [T1, L1] and [T3, L3] who transfers contents of the utterance 1 produced by the emitter decoding and re-coding it into the utterance 2 reaching the receiver. The time and place of his/her own utterance are designed as T2 and L2. Depending on the actual communication situation (there is a large variety of them where mediation occurs), the mediator's communication with both emitter and receiver can be two-way, ensuring

necessary feedback. What is more, in some situations, mainly when mediation takes place in an everyday interaction, the emitter and the receiver can be in touch one with the other as it is shown by the dotted line in the following scheme:



Mediated communication is to be clearly distinguished from indirect communication where information transfer is ensured technically, without the presence of a third speaking subject, through a material support of various kind. A common point between the two (mediated and indirect communication) is the existence of a time and/or space lag and, subsequently, the need to overcome it efficiently.

We affirm that the *mediator* (a person which bears a specific cognitive history and builds up specific communication skills) must be strictly distinguished from *support* (a material basis for a mere archiving and transferring of language content) and from the *media* characterized as an interrelated complex of technical and human communication factors.

In the light of grammar analysis this theoretical framework is to be revisited in order to take into account those instances of indirect and/or mediated communication when the emitter A and the receiver B, in addition to non identical space-time structures of their respective situations, do not share the same code. The non identity of codes is a possible menace to a successful information transfer and a problem to be solved by interlocutors. Two basic solutions available include translation and (partial) intercomprehension of an unknown or less known code based on linguistic and textual transparency as well as on the process of inference. Putting aside translation for the moment, we point out at intercomprehension as one of Europe's keywords-to-come, a possible scenario of its linguistic politics (cf. Zázrivcová, 2008) and a necessary melting pot of educational practices at various levels of foreign language teaching/learning (cf. Veverková, 2013). The concept of transparency in itself, opposed to opacity, is not new to linguistics. In the last decades, it has been studied in association to intercomprehension and linguistic heterogeneity (Castagne, 2002, Puchovská 2009 and 2012). Transparent zones in the text are understood easily (e. g. lexical resemblances such as anglicisms/internationalisms, cf. Reichwalderova & Šliačanová, 2008, Reichwalderová, 2009, vernacular language units, cf. Lazar, 2012, or borrowings in general, seen as „intersections between languages“ cf. Zázrivcová, 2010). The less transparent ones can be comprehended through semantic (e. g. interlingual motivation, cf. Zázrivcová, 2008b), syntactic (e.g. word order or distribution of syntactic roles within the clause, cf. Klimová, 2006 and 2012) and non-verbal keys (cf. Zajacová, 2011, on the notion of intertextuality). Grammars show that codes (languages) themselves have a certain capacity of mediation, in the sense of enlarging subject's linguistic and metalinguistic competence as a basis for acquisition of other (foreign) languages. In other terms, grammars enable the language user to build up or improve his/her intercomprehension skills, giving him/her re-usable input.

Moreover, we affirm that (foreign language) grammars are samples of both mediated and mediating discourse. On one hand, they result from mediation, as they bring personalized readings of linguistic matters. Major grammars of French, written by recognized authors are outstanding examples of such visions (let us take into consideration P. Charaudeau's *Grammaire du sens et de l'expression* (1992), M. Wilmet's *Grammaire critique du français* (1997) and others). On the other hand, they mediate, as they give access to comprehension of unknown linguistic phenomena, and strengthen the (meta)linguistic conscience of users, possibly re-activated in other endolingual and exolingual contexts.

Grammars for foreigners and the process of intercomprehension

In the light of above mentioned, we affirm that a foreign language grammar is to be seen not only as a gate to the target language and the culture it vehicles, but also as a bridge towards other, typologically and/or genetically related languages, i. e. as a means of constructing intercomprehensive competence of its users. They can improve receptive skills in language with a various degree of structural parenthood with the given language, even in distant languages.

To understand intercomprehension, some theoreticians retrace the concept of discursive competence (cf. Capucho & Oliveira, 2005), by nature plurilingual and intercultural, pluridimensional (linguistic, textual and situational), dynamic and self-regulating. Thus, intercomprehensive competence is based on conscious and/or subconscious strategies activated by a subject when moving between linguistic areas, in other words, when he/she is in an exolingual environment. When there is an exolingual interaction, subjects tend to pragmatically co-construct the sense, employing their capacities of transfer, making the most of lexical (and other) resemblances and putting them through to textual and situational data. A pro-active transfer may be enabled by a bridging language, i. e. a foreign language already acquired by the subject and close to the target language.

F. Capucho (2008 : 239-240) defines intercomprehension as follows:

1. Multilingual (oral) reception between neighbour languages;
2. Multilingual interaction between neighbour languages (with the use of interactive technical supports);
3. Multilingual interaction between non neighbour languages.

Improving intercomprehensive skills seems to be a condition *sine qua non* in education of plurilingual language users (cf. Ľupták & Kolečáni-Lenčová, 2013 for an overview of the actual state of the matter in Slovak educational system).

Grammars of Slavic languages published in French

Unlike intercomprehension of Romance languages, intercomprehension of Slavic languages by endolingual and exolingual subjects has not been thoroughly explored yet. The necessity to use the intercomprehension method in teaching Slovak as a foreign language is underlined by M. Sokolová (2007), concentrating on interlinguistic relations between Slavic languages. A recent survey realized by Kurejová (2013) goes in the opposite way, aiming particularly at non-native speakers of French, Spanish and Italian testing their intercomprehension of these Romance languages.

Within the framework of research activities aiming at a conception of a new grammar of Slovak for French-speaking users (cf. Pognan et al., in press), in order to strengthen the intercomprehensive aspect of the Slovak language acquisition, we analyzed the reception of scientific presentations of grammars of Slavic languages in the French-speaking environment in Europe, mainly in France. Out of 19 Slavic languages (extinct ones excluded), only 9 have their grammar systems presented in French (cf. Table 1).

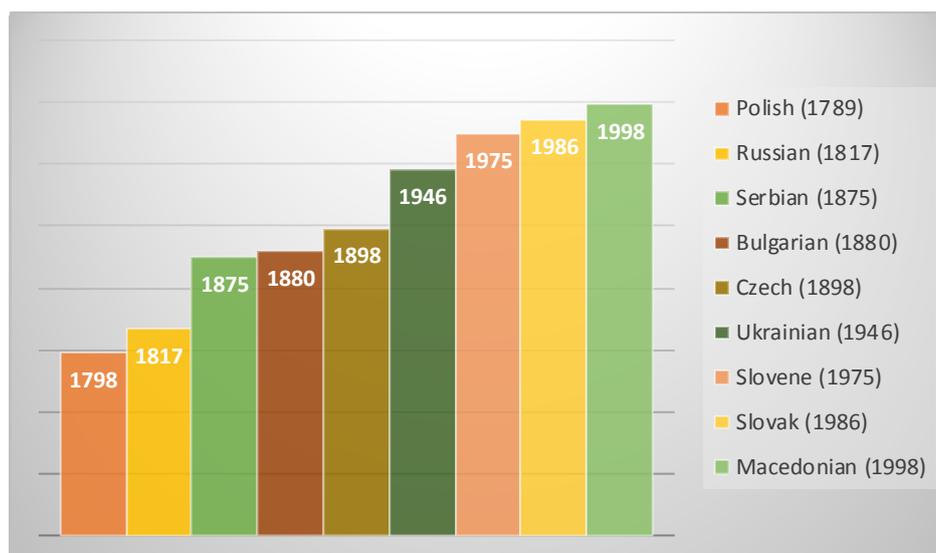


Table 1. *Chronologic view of first grammars of Slavic languages published in French.*

Polish language was the first to have its grammar published in French. The first grammar of Polish written in French came out in 1798. This fact can be considered as a reflection of the historical impact of the Polish culture upon the French one. According to Louis Léger, one of the first Slavist scholars in France, the one who has not lived the Second Empire cannot fully imagine the importance of the Polish influence on the contemporary French public opinion.

Polish was followed by Russian, a Slavic grammar system most frequently presented to the French public (the list of Russian grammars and other works containing grammatical information on Russian in French contains 43 items, compared to 40 on Polish, 16 on Bulgarian, 8 on Slovene and even less on every other Slavic language). Russian and Polish, most available to French learners when it comes to material resources, might be able to function as entry points into the realm of the Slavic languages.

We must note that publications of grammars of Slavic languages aiming at exolingual publics closely depend on codifications of Slavic languages, i. e. changing their statuses and becoming official languages in Central and Eastern European countries. They depend as well on the publication grammars of these languages for endolingual users (1603 and 1809 for Czech language, 1790, 1846 and 1931 for Slovak, to name but two of them) and other related works of reference. For example, as far as South Slavic languages are concerned, the first grammars concerned exclusively Serbian, later Serbo-croatian, newer works take into account linguistic plurality of the region (Thomas & Osipov, 2012)

Grammars of Slovak language published in French

When it comes to grammars of Slovak, our search was motivated by the intention of putting forward the already mentioned conception of a new grammar of Slovak for French-speaking public. In order to achieve this objective, we mapped various kinds of existing grammars classifying them according to target public, language and author(s). As it is shown in the table below, we have examined in particular: **a)** grammars of French by French-speaking authors for any public, **b)** grammars of Slovak by Slovak-speaking authors for any public, **c)** grammars of Slovak written in French by French-speaking authors of Slovak or French origin, for a French-speaking public and finally **d)** grammars of French written in Slovak by Slovak authors for a Slovak-speaking public. We have paid attention to the position occupied by the Slovak language within the group of Slavic languages to which a French-speaking subject can have access.

Group	Presented language	Language of presentation	Author's origine	Public
A	French	French	French	general
B	Slovak	Slovak	Slovak	general
C	Slovak	French	French/Slovak	French-speaking
D	French	Slovak	Slovak	Slovak-speaking

Table 2. *Enunciative grammar typology.*

In the group a) we lean upon the works by M. Grevisse & A. Goose, P. Charaudeau, P. Le Goffic and M. Wilmet considered as works of major reference and treated as such in our previous research projects focused on comparative verb classification.

In the group b), the major reference is *Morfológia slovenského jazyka* (Ružička, 1966). As far as the syntaxe is concerned, we lean on works by J. Oravec and E. Bajžíková (1986), Kačala (1989) and others, Slovak morphonology has been presented recently by Očenáš (2007). Let us remark that the publication of the only academic grammar of Slovak goes back to the year 1966. The lack of ressources dedicated to foreigners is then certainly not suprising.

In fact, the overview of bibliographic resources available shows that within the group of Slavic languages, the Slovak is not among the most largely presented to the French-speaking user. Since the 1970s, only six works about Slovak language have been published, out of which only one grammar (Bartoš & Gagnaire, 1972), then textbooks and conversation guides (Baláž et al., 1973 ; Serafínová – Baláž, 2000 ; Baranová et al., 2007 ; Jamborová et al., 2009) and a doctoral thesis (Jamborová-Lemay, 2003). The grammar by P. Bartoš and J. Gagnaire was published in 1972, while – as it can be seen in the Table 1 – the first grammar of Czech, the closest Slavic language, destined to the French-speaking users appeared in 1898 (others followed in 1923 and 1952).

The situation in the opposite sense, i. e. concerning grammars of French written by Slovak authors and presumably oriented towards Slovak-speaking public, does not show substantial differences. The only reference work written in Slovak is *Francúzská gramatika* by J. Taraba (1995). However, there are several works written in Czech, such as *Francouzská mluvnice* (Hendrich – Tláškal – Radina, 1991) or *Vědecká mluvnice francouzštiny* (Šabršula, 1986). *La Grammaire du français contemporain* by a Czech-Slovak team of authors (Ducháček & Bartoš, 1976), theoretical and practical work of structuralist orientation dedicated to Czech and Slovak university scholars and students can be added to the list

Conclusion

Grammars of foreign languages are pieces of discourse that aim at facilitating linguistically heterogeneous (exolingual) communication, mediating linguistic knowledge and improving intercomprehensive skills. Intercomprehension is a phenomenon based on strategies adopted naturally by a language user in exolingual communication contexts, leading him/her to (at least partial) understanding of unknown or less known linguistic codes.

The relation between grammar, mediation and intercomprehension is not yet thoroughly described. We believe it deserves further attention. Newly conceived grammars should not underestimate intercomprehension as a method of language teaching/learning.

Slavic languages represent a linguistic group that is open to conception of intercomprehensive grammars. A French-speaking learner has the best access to these languages by means of Russian and/or Polish. Grammars of other Slavic languages, including

Slovak, are little represented in the French-speaking environment, as it results from the overview of available resources classed chronologically in an enunciative typology.

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RELATIONS BETWEEN PLANNING AND POWER

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Abstract

What is the relationship between planning and power? What kind of impact does it have on planning processes and governance of space? What kind of coercion should be exerted to regulate the built environment? Only recently has theoretical reflection on planning explicitly and directly addressed the question of the power planning necessarily possesses, trying to grasp the difference between physiological situations and pathological conditions, where there is a distortion of the relationship with decision-making, and other, power in implementing technical action. But this has not clarified the relationship properly. The paper addresses the issue by reflecting on some interpretative categories of power, their transposition onto the territorial urban dimension and their effects in terms of planning, so as to obtain the recognition of power as an important key to understanding spatial and functional organisation and to highlight how the link between planning and power often does not produce effects of collective safeguarding but of the defence of a few to the detriment of many.

Keywords: Ethic, spatial organisation, iniquity

Power and spatial organisation

Space and matters concerning it at any scale are not neutral with respect to the practices of power. There is an inextricable link between the one and the other that affects strategic choices in terms of planning and urban design, choices that are dictated by the need to create order within a complex structure like that of the urban body and at the same time regulate its relationship with its surroundings. This involves rules, norms, bans and, generally speaking, plans to be respected, instruments that inevitably contain choices. But to what extent are these choices actually made for the benefit of all? How decisive a role do partial interests play? If these choices have been indisputable and undisputed for a long period, nowadays they are increasingly at the centre of disputes and conflicts (Hamel, Lustiger-Thaler & Mayer, 2000). As it is recognised that the ethical role of the discipline precedes the technical one (Campbell, 2012), this is an aspect that cannot be omitted. The city is, in fact, by virtue of the ideologies underlying it and the set of conventions governing it, an organisation structured so as to make the dominant social mechanism work - though not without resistance, contradictions and disputes - and to maintain the existing power relations. Although this does not lead to a kind of geography entirely consistent with the system regulating it, since the process of space production is the result of continuous political and ideological struggles, it inevitably bears dominant signs and traits of it. In this framework planning activity is configured as an instrument capable of favouring or hindering the success of different social groups (Harvey, 1989; Lefebvre, 1970).

The definition of the concept of power in relation to the city and its governance cannot be immediate and direct as it is manifest in many ways (Turner, 2005), ranging between physiological situations, indispensable in an organized system that requires some flexible though structured forms, and pathological forms, in which those who have the

possibility to influence the fate of the city more than others let themselves be guided by logics responding to the interests of the dominant social groups (Weber, 1968). The absence of an ethical impulse and of the pursuit of social justice ideals has characterised much of the history of the discipline, letting market and utilitarian mechanisms opt for the guiding principles of choices. The total willingness of the discipline to be slavishly instrumental for the desires of political and economic power, as well as its inability to be autonomous and take a critical distance from it, has become an important topic of discussion from various viewpoints. However, the issue of the relations between power and planning has rarely been explicitly treated in urban analysis. Here we wish to propose a contribution in this direction, highlighting that such interaction cannot be regarded as secondary when we objectively interpret the urban structure. As this is a complex, multifaceted issue, some reflections are proposed in the paper starting with a categorization of power in terms of the current urban condition in order to determine the relevance of the power/city link in relation to the attention paid to it by theorists and technicians. At the base of such reflection interpretative categories must be adopted that guide the reading of the urban context with reference to power. Hence the paper refers to Popitz' sociological analysis of power (Popitz, 1992) which identifies four essential anthropological forms ("power to offend", "instrumental power", "power of authority" and "power to change reality through technical action"), to evaluate whether or how they lend themselves to being transposed onto the urban environment through the instrumental use of planning.

The power to offend. Planned exclusion (access)

According to the first category, men have power over other men as they can endanger the existence of others by acting on their physical integrity, economic livelihood and social participation. This form of power is expressed both through recourse to violence, material damage and, therefore, physical aggression, and through deprivation of economic and relational resources, as well as rights to equality. "Direct actions against social participation begin with acts like taking one's distance, avoiding contact and hiding from view, to evolve into actions that tend to belittle and discredit the other to the point of their expulsion or prohibition, and are then reflected in the systems of legal and moral sanctions" (Popitz, 1992).

This form of power has been expressed in urban contexts in various ways in more or less explicit and vexatious forms of spatial isolation, ranging from extreme cases of total banishment (*interdictio aquae et ignis*) to the creation of 'removal' structures to accommodate, and above all separate, what was perceived as inherently dangerous (from illness to identity, discordant behaviour and social deviance in general). Despite the fact that social evolution has sanctioned the formal recognition of the principle of equity and social justice in the contemporary urban condition, exclusion and marginalisation have continued to grow till they have become one of the dominant traits (O'Connor, 2003). The global economy has produced an increasing gap between the richest sectors and the poorest segments of the world population, but also within each single society, emphasising the ambivalence congenital in urban life: the utopia of the city as the centre of well-being and freedom but the marginalisation and ghettoisation of some people that the city cannot or will not accept (Sassen, 1990). The contrast between the theoretical vision of a society dominated by equality values and the practice of escalation of differences and iniquity has resulted in spatialisation in watertight compartments, aimed at separating rather than integrating - spaces that testify to and depersonalise the split between social groups and are thus defined by moral boundaries prior to physical ones. In this sense, the contemporary city appears as a city of fragments (Marcuse & van Kempen, 2002), a set of distinct spaces paratactically juxtaposed without intersecting, and indifferent to each other, to which population groups correspond

that coexist on the same territory but become more and more separate and different from each other. The separation between the strong groups holding power (the faculty and freedom to make decisions with repercussions on the entire system) and the vulnerable groups that are excluded is inevitably reflected in spatial organisation which relegates the latter to the edges of the city. As pointed out by Bourdieu (1994), relations of strength and power are in fact inscribed in urban space; its structure and management become ways to exert predominance. The appropriation, negotiation and transformation of space have become fundamental stakes for individual achievement and hierarchical recognition, and the mechanisms of social closure find a precise parallel in the divisions of urban space.

What have changed over time are the ways in which this separation takes place, so that nowadays beside the spaces of imposed exclusion traditionally associated with urban exclusion processes (spaces of social racial segregation, ghettos, favelas, etc.), other less obvious but equally effective types are spreading: ones that can be defined as desired forms of exclusion (enclaves, gated cities, etc.), and others that can be defined as disguised forms of exclusion (gentrification phenomena), which are simply different manifestations of the same phenomenon - the individualisation of urban life and homogenisation of its weft in spatial ambits (Bauman, 2001). The former are actually nothing more than the materialisation of an attempt to create a social distance prior to a material one between groups that recognise themselves as equals. Intensification of the differences linked with globalisation processes in fact generates growing tensions and conflicts, to which local governments respond, supported by the housing and residential market, favouring forms of restraint and separation that make boundaries less and less permeable. The closure of space through physical, administrative or symbolic barriers is simultaneously a direct consequence and tangible proof of this phenomenon, as is the defensive use of it. The latter are ways in which power less clearly imposes its spatial distribution, creating conditions for the settlement of certain groups and the undermining of others through a targeted but disguised selection of the inhabitants. The symbolic and practical implications of gentrification have diverse, profound repercussions on the fate and status of the inhabitants of gentrified areas, so that, as Smith argues, those who take up the new prestigious positions in the city centre often have the features of a colonial elite (Atkinson & Bridge 2005). Even though the intense academic debate lasting more than thirty years on the long-term effects of gentrification phenomena in terms of social exclusion, marginalisation and polarisation has not actually led to a shared position, the initial enthusiasm has been replaced by a growing number of criticisms of this type of operation (Lees, 2008). The assumption that the creation of less segregated, more sustainable communities corresponds to gentrification is not as a matter of fact backed by much empirical evidence. For gentrification, far from being a tool for the promotion of tolerance, becomes part of a mechanism to reclaim some areas of the city by taking them away from the lower classes that have settled there during the period of withdrawal in favour of a model tending towards expansion.

Planning therefore becomes the expression of a kind of design that negates the very meaning of the city because it does not recognise space as an element of comparison. On the other hand, urban planning has mostly focused attention on designing for the elite, leaving the space of the excluded at the edge of both theoretical reflection and practical action. If global market mechanisms and the liberalisation and privatisation processes focusing on a profit logic, rather than one of compensation strategies between social groups with highly different economic capabilities, have a deep effect on the phenomenon of social exclusion, choices and urban policies often, however, constitute in their turn a factor as significant as it is underestimated. Several studies have highlighted the important role and intentional contribution planning has had and continues to have in creating and maintaining situations of exclusion in the city (Yiftachel, 1998; Lai, Wong & Chau, 2011), driving the spatial location

of the various population groups through a series of mechanisms like zoning, housing policies (assignment and location of social housing) and management of infrastructure programmes, as well as the development and management of services, which have succeeded in becoming tools themselves in the creation of more or less deliberate, serious forms of exclusion (Fischel, 2004; Levine, 2006), producing imbalances and pockets of privilege both in terms of quantity and quality.

Instrumental power. The control and manipulation of fear (expectations)

The second interpretative category suggests that men have power over other men because “they can take and give something to the other turning this option into threats or promises” able to affect their behaviour. The basis of this kind of power is a possession, which translates into real power, exploiting tension, worry and uncertainty towards the future. To exercise power, “violent acts, in fact, are mostly not required, as threats are sufficient that guide behaviour through fear, and promises that guide behaviour through hope” (Popitz, 1992). These factors complement and reinforce each other in various ways, for in the same way as a promise is inherent in every threat - the waiving of punishment - so in every promise is implied the threat of non-reward.

Fear and hope have taken on an increasing role in urban organisation, together with the spread of a collective state of uncertainty induced by a constant feeling of insecurity (Bauman, 2005). This feeling of fear has pervaded the city, generating new distrust, deteriorating relationships, and making irrationality and emotional sensitivity the guiding thread of a certain type of intervention on urban space, that sort of militarisation and contraction of public spaces (Davis, 1990; Madanipour, 2003) that proves however to be totally ineffective, since fear accentuates insecurity and uncertainty accentuates fear, based on a self-feeding circuit.

In this framework any kind of conflict is banned, being conceived as a threat, a disease of shared life that must be removed to ensure a serene environment. Conflict is understood, in effect, solely as an indicator of a disorder that could result in violence rather than a natural, inevitable process of personal and collective change that belongs to the very nature of life and the becoming of things. Urban planning has tried to provide norms for the city's growth as a healthy, safe, orderly body by controlling individuals in space (Ingersoll & Tartari, 2005). Resorting to the norm has over time become increasingly prescriptive and constricting, and perceived more as an all-absorbing element than an opportunity for development. Security has become the subject of technical manuals (Nadel, 2004) and a political tool for controlling the territory, immediately identifying certain parts of the city (excluding others a priori), and placing itself as a quality parameter of urban and social analysis. So nowadays an “enviro-motional geography” has begun to be outlined based on a unit of measurement determined by fear, where order has become synonymous with uniformity. For order to be guaranteed it really needs to be supported by the norm, and anything that does not conform should therefore be excluded. In this sense we are witnessing a paradox: while the size of the city has increased more and more and it prevails as the habitat most sought-after by man, on the other hand, the quality of urban life seems to get proportionately worse, since fear becomes a founding part of inhabiting and a structuring element of the planning process. In this framework urban planning operates following a process that divides up the city into ordered parts.

The link between fear and social organisation is, according to the opinion shared by many authors, one of the focal points of the current condition and one of the main bases of the modern political project (Corey, 2005).

The power of authority. Technical knowledge as a disciplinary soliloquy and the top-down approach (norms)

As far as the third interpretative category is concerned, men have power over other men because of the existence of a voluntary willingness to obey, the result of an instinctive need of orientation, of a norm acting as a guide and of the wish to be recognised by others, since “our self-esteem depends on such external confirmations”, which generate a series of psychological dependencies (Popitz, 1992). In this sense, the essence of authority lies in its being a special bond, for it translates into a social relationship: he who depends on the authorities is chained to a relationship that actually or imaginatively ties him to the other. At the same time, accepting authority means to develop adaptation to it that goes beyond behaving with simple outward deference, since the criteria and values of those in power are internalised by those who depend on them, even if such adaptation surpasses the possibility to control the holder of power himself. Because of this, the effects of authority are not necessarily tied to the exercise of coercive instruments. The assignment of authority to another actually involves in a certain sense a recognition of his superiority, the granting of prestige which leads to a strong willingness to conform. This availability has varying degrees, ranging from loving obedience to obedience hardly tolerated, which translates from the social bond viewpoint into institutional authority, namely respect for position on the social scale (Habermas, 1981).

In this sense planning has for a long time been based on imposing planning and management tools according to top-down logics that assume a monopoly of learning on the part of technical knowledge and the claim to unconditional acceptance by final users, namely hetero-directed approaches. Such approaches are produced outside the contexts they are intended for and reserve planning choices exclusively for the technical sphere, hindering, or at least, reducing the participation of other stakeholders in decision-making processes (Beauregard, 2001; McGuirk, 2001). So, even when it existed, participation was often limited solely to the acquisition of consensus on project lines or plans already drawn up, in the absence of a genuine desire to meet the requirements of the circulation and democratic nature of information (Arnstein, 1969). Only recently, in fact, have approaches gradually emerged in which there is a clear difference between consultation, participation and involvement since the first two do not necessarily imply an active role of local communities in the planning process. Consultation and participation have, however, often become a mere formality as they have taken place a posteriori to gain consensus on pre-established choices, made with no forms of control or transparency/reproducibility requirements. They have made room for dangerous interweaving between private interests and public duties, excluding the most vulnerable subjects and following a decision-making model linked with the pyramidal hierarchical logic that is increasingly being challenged due to the profound socio-economic changes underway. If social legitimisation is actually understood not so much as the justification of one's own authority, but as the quest for trust and the recognition of a willingness and commitment that go well beyond purely professional ones, then it should be based instead on comparison and open dialogue in which the disciplinary soliloquy opens up to local know-how.

A number of research trends (communicative/collaborative, multi-ethnic and redistributive) have addressed this issue (Forester, 1993; Sager, 1994; Innes, 1995; Haley, 1997; Fainstein, 2000; Sandercock, 2000; Ashworth & Voogd, 1990; Woltjer, 2000). It is therefore now widely accepted that a priori legitimisation of technical action is no longer possible. All hetero-determination is in conflict, in effect, with a desire for self-determination which causes power in any form to be inextricably linked with the issue of its own existence.

The power to change reality through technical action. The ethical sense of planning (artefacts)

As for the fourth category, men have power over other men by virtue of their “productive intelligence”. The power to create facts is conveyed by the objects it produces. They constitute the materialisation that enables the transfer and exercise of power on users. For it is not a case of the power of things over people but of that of their creator who remains embedded in his product, since what is produced and what produces refer to each other and inextricably involve each other. The product is the idea of its creator that has taken shape and in this sense is an “idea imprinted on an object”. By technical action man prevails over the forces of nature, transforms nature into artefacts, also transforming the living conditions of all those who have to adapt to them (Popitz, 1992). From this point of view, all individuals are subject to technical action as they are linked with a world of objects that have been wholly or partly processed, manipulated, and created from others. Thus the relation between subject and object becomes a relationship between subject and subject. Intervening through change, which is a part of creation, man converts things to himself and impresses his intentions on them.

This kind of power interpreted at the scale of the city involves the theme of the ethical responsibility of planners. The choices of those planning the city and territory have a direct, continuous impact both on spaces and the people who use them, since by creating the places and contexts in which activities and social life take place, they affect the way we live, inhabit and produce. The way in which space is designed favours certain practices and limits others. Its organisation is not a purely formal or geometric matter but the reflection of the values, ethics and the ethos of its inhabitants, and of designers, clients and society in general. Planners do not perform simple, politically neutral, technical acts, but determine the conditions of life and spaces of freedom and constraint of many people; they “build worlds for others” and as such cannot but be responsible for the consequences such an act has on those subjected to it. Seen in this way, it is something more than a simple distribution of empty and full spaces, of uses permitted and prohibited, but is rather a set of moral, ideological and philosophical choices. Which are not simply the result of individual tendencies but of power relations and pre-constituted orders that affect them in various, more or less direct, ways. But if this awareness involves for some a sort of reform of the discipline that makes it an instrument to support disadvantaged groups (Friedmann, 1987; Davidoff 1965), for others a commingling of roles needs to be avoided between politics (to which is left the task of determining values to be followed) and planning, which has different, separate functions (Lefebvre, 1972, 1970). So if the results of technical actions are essentially political, the choice of the moral objectives to be pursued must remain with democratically elected political power.

Is it correct to ask where political will finishes and where the will of the planners begins and where the responsibility of one party finishes and that of the other begins? Is planning just the reflection of a political plan that takes shape in plans and programmes drawn up to fit into a framework already marked out? The scientific literature has addressed this issue by dealing with it in various ways, alternating requests to depoliticise urban planning knowledge (so as to re-politicise space) (Lefebvre, 1972, 1970) with the need for some kind of politicisation of the planner (advocacy, radical, communicative or collaborative planning) (Krumholtz & Clavel 1994, Healey, 1997, Sandercock, 2000).

But after the experimental phase and theoretical reflection of the seventies-eighties, which for the first time brought the ethical function of planning into the centre of the debate, the discipline neglected this aspect for a long period, so that the aesthetic factor has ended up prevailing over any ethical intent. Urban planning has abandoned all interest in the social

dimension and has based its existence on marketing operations. The planner has therefore exchanged his idealistic views to adopt those of the technocrat. If in Benjamin's Paris urban spaces seemed to hesitate between conformity and utopia, "a world of goods or of dreams", nowadays the same urban spaces respond to the pressures of an increasingly dominant market "with public dreams defined by private development projects", to which strong economic powers correspond that manage urban space following utilitarian logics. However, the issue is gaining new strength thanks to increased sensitivity towards certain themes and a series of studies that have stressed on several occasions (Harvey, 1989; Mitchell, 2003; Zukin, 1991, Smith, 1994; Upton, 2002) that planning is design mediated between inhabitants and their environment, and as such involves issues inherent in what is good and what is right.

Conclusions

Power relations exist therefore since relations between men are dominated by strength and vulnerability, by the extent to which hopes and fears can be influenced, and by the obligation and capacity to establish norms and transform the world. In other words, power is exercised by acting directly or indirectly on expectations, norms and artefacts. Urban transformation processes are steered according to these same logics so that it is fair to say that the link between planning and power plays a strategic role in the management of space. Although planning interventions should actually be aimed at fair, sustainable development, adopting a role of mediation between the parties involved in the conflicts over the use of space and the material and immaterial implications - for planning is an activity to be conducted primarily in the interest of the public - has often been, and partly continues to be, an activity at the service of the elite only, simply becoming an instrument to maintain power relations already established, and acting in space and on space in terms of access, control and representation, in order to favour one party rather than others (Mitchell, 2003; Smith, 1994). What is often missing in interpretative analyses of the various urban contexts is precisely an interpretation of the power relations in force and their influence on the choices and actions of the planners. How would the city change if these powers were altered?

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POLICY IMPERATIVES FOR CONTROL OF MARKET EXCHANGE FAILURE IN THE CASHEW NUT INDUSTRY IN TANZANIA

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Abstract

This study examined the root causes of incessant market failure problem facing Tanzanian cashew nut industry. The overarching hypothesis was that the industry challenges are both structural and institutional. Competition status and economic coordination in the industry were thus duly scrutinized. Key informant and questionnaire interviews were carried out with key industry stakeholders and cashew farmers respectively. Data analysis entailed operationalizing the Institutional Analysis and Development framework, the DFID Competition Assessment Framework and estimating the Stochastic Frontier Production Model. Results showcased a systematic positive effect of the Warehouse Receipt System (WRS) on indicative and final producer prices over the years. Concentration ratio results professed the industry as being fairly concentrated and hence oligopolistic. Farmers' input use efficiency was calculated at 51% on average suggesting that majority could be high cost producers. The WRS was vindicated as an effective system for the industry though its high transaction costs due to hiked administrative costs, weak institutional arrangements along the value chain, cooperative monopoly and inadequate enforcement of underlying regulations counteract its strength. Fair competition in the industry is stifled by clandestine buyer collusion and predatory pricing at the expense of local processing. Production cost would overstate indicative price if used as a basis for its setting given inefficient farmers. For better results the industry needs to depoliticize, change warehouses' ergonomics, eliminate unnecessary WRS administrative costs, break cooperative monopoly to accommodate private buyers' participation, strengthen regulatory enforcement mechanisms, restore export parity pricing procedures and establish an advisory to sieve conflicting scholar recommendations.

Keywords: Cashew nut industry, market failure, institutional analysis, production efficiency, competition assessment

Introduction

Cashew is an important export crop in Tanzania after tobacco, coffee and cotton (FAOSTAT, 2011). The industry earned the country US\$ 75 million in 2005 (TIC 2005), US\$ 70 million in the 2008/09 season (UNIDO 2010, FAOSTAT, 2011) and US\$ 140 million in the 2010/11 season (CBT, 2010). The 2011/12 season raw cashew output of 158,000 tons (CBT, 2012, pers. com.) has just beaten the long standing record of 145,000 tons for 1973/74 season. About 80-85% of the total output is exported raw and 15-20% is processed locally (Fitzpatrick, 2012). The industry has over 2.1 million direct and more than 500,000 indirect individual beneficiaries in the country (UNIDO, 2011) and a major contributor incomes and food security.

The current marketing challenges in the industry include price volatility for both raw and kernels cashew, low level of processing to meet critical volumes required in the

international markets, small domestic market for kernels, low farmers' knowledge of the Warehouse Receipt System (WRS), low level of diversification for cashew products, high borrowing interest rates, lack of brand label for Tanzanian cashew and high transaction costs that lower producers' profitability (CBT, 2010). Others include low output and productivity, weak institutional environment and arrangements, unfair taxation regime, unfair pricing and deductions, low prices, and insufficient government involvement in financing regulatory and research activities in the sector (DaiPesa, 2004; UNIDO, 2011; Fitzpatrick, 2012 and Kilama, 2013). Cashew marketing gained a new impetus in the 2007/08 season following the launching of the WRS in the country. However, the industry has continued to be affected by recurring market exchange failures that are always connected to price disagreements between buyers and producers. For instance, the 2011/2012 season initially witnessed one of the worst market failures. It prompted strong government intervention that went as far as issuance of a rescission threat to licenses of recalcitrant buyers. The major question is why does market exchange failure persist amid existence of the WRS? This study was thus carried out in an attempt to look for alternative policy advice that will enhance sustainable cashew marketing in Tanzania.

Market failure is a condition in which a market does not efficiently allocate resources to achieve the greatest possible consumer satisfaction and it manifests in four forms; public good, market control, externality and imperfect information (Krishnamurthy, 2009; Fafchamps, 2004). According to Menard (2004), the institutional dimension of markets is much more important than what neo-classical economic theory suggests under the mechanics of supply and demand and price at its core. Kilama (2013) contends that existence of thin market (few buyers and sellers) in the Tanzanian cashew nut industry has since compelled interventionist approach (including WRS introduction) on the part of the Government in an attempt to control failure of the crop's market.

Market failure dynamics in agriculture can be well conceptualized within the New Institutional Economics (NIE) paradigm (Transaction Cost Economics Approach- TCA) (Kirsten et al., 2008). The dilemma with the marketing research on the cashew industry lies with the conventional approaches that have so far been adopted. Fitzpatrick (2002) and UNIDO (2011) are among the most recent and encompassing studies on the sector to touch on the issues of cashew value chain characterization, value chain upgrading and coordination/governance mechanisms. The studies' descriptive nature and non-coverage of competition issues led to their inability to account for the recurring exchange failure in the sector. The institutional context analysis of the market was also the least addressed factor in the two studies.

UNIDO's study attempted to analyze governance structures in the industry, but discussion on vertical integration completely missed out on the basic meaning of the concept (see UNIDO, 2011, pp. 36). James Fitzpatrick concerned himself with structure of roles in the cashew value chain. Institutional context issues of the market are reduced to discussion of organizations charged with various responsibilities in the chain and the level of implementation of those roles (see Fitzpatrick, 2012). Technically, market structure analysis call for an understanding of the proportion of buyers/suppliers accounting for a substantial part of the market i.e. market concentration determination (DFID, 2008). Market structure is thus a reflection of competition status in an industry.

On the other hand, institutions are concerned with the 'ground rules of the game' (at the macro-level) and institutions of governance (institutional arrangements) at the micro level (Kirsten et al., 2008). A comprehensive analysis of governance/coordination mechanisms in the cashew industry should have thus addressed these two trajectories. The scope of this study is however more focused on the arrangement between participants in the WRS that governs the ways in which they cooperate and/or compete (i.e. institutional arrangements).

The study combines the NIE and NCE approaches to form a more rigorous methodology for the research.

The study contended that exchange failure between buyers and sellers of raw cashew is a result of both structural and institutional deficiencies in the industry's output market. The two challenges need in-depth analysis of the value chain and the Warehouse receipt system which governs the market exchange, so as to determine the root causes of the problem and thus suggest appropriate and sustainable remedial measures. Specifically, the study carried out institutional analysis of the raw cashew output market in order to identify institutional challenges that interfere with proper functioning of the WR; quantified farmers' production costs and estimated their technical efficiency and also carried out competition scrutiny in the raw cashew market to identify anti-competitive practices that interfere with free entry and exit into and from the market. The study attempted to test three hypotheses which include: (i) Farm gate price for raw cashew output is not cost effective, (ii) Input use in smallholder cashew production is efficient and (iii) Raw cashew output market is highly concentrated. Given that the root cause of exchange failure in the industry are price-related, it was important to establish the cost effectiveness of offered producer price and also level of farmers' production efficiency as buyers may not be willing to compensate for inefficiency effects.

Methodology

The principal area for the study was Mtwara region, where the entire spectrum of value chain actors, including the Cashew nut Board of Tanzania (CBT) headquarters, is located. Primary data was obtained from the actors in Mtwara region, specifically in Tandahimba district. Secondary data was sourced from CBT headquarters in Mtwara and from Ministry of Agriculture, Food Security and Cooperatives (MAFSC), Ministry of Industry, Trade and Marketing MITM, , and CBT branch office in Dar-es-Salaam. Key informant interviews were carried out with relevant officials in the ministries mentioned above, CBT, Tandahimba district council, Cooperative unions (TANECU), Agricultural Marketing Cooperatives (AMCOS), banks offering crop finance loans to AMCOs, and small scale processor in Tandahimba.

A desk review of cashew nut policy and WRS documents was conducted using Institutional Analysis and Development (IAD) framework (Ostrom et al., 1994) to identify institutional challenges that hinder smooth market operation. Key informant interviews using a checklist were carried out to obtain WRS-specific information for assessing its *modus operandi*, performance, and its success and failure factors so far. The quantification of producers' production costs was accomplished through a structured questionnaire in which a total of 210 randomly sampled households were interviewed. Technical efficiency of the farmers was estimated using the Stochastic Frontier (SF) model. Market concentration ratio was used to address the hypothesis that raw cashew market is highly concentrated.

Warehouse Receipt System: Justification, performance and coordination

Marketing of raw cashew in Tanzania is well understood through articulating the *modus operandi* of The WRS. This is a legally established system by Act of parliament No. 10 of 2005 that came into being in the 2007/08 season. The system was established to control the then flourishing free-riding in the industry in order to improve producer prices and prevent the 'race to the bottom'. The views as to the justification and achievement of the WRS so far vary between scholars, value chain actors, stakeholders and organizations. The CBT, producers and cooperative movement support the system and appreciate its achievement so far. On the other hand, cashew buyers and most NGOs denounce the justification and achievement of the WRS. Scholars' views are divided. For instance UNIDO

(2011) acknowledges the positive effects of the system on the cashew value chain whereas Fitzpatrick (2012) decries it outright on all fronts.

Fitzpatrick's (2012) study on the WRS finds that the system is worthless and akin to a closed tender system (rather than an auction) which is corrupt and ineffectual in all of its objectives. Contrary to his findings, the available statistical evidence suggests that the WRS has had a systematic positive effect on producer/farm gate prices, cashew output and exports since its inception to date (figs. 2 and 3). Correlation coefficients for final price to production and final price to export were calculated at 0.772 and 0.811 respectively. These are undoubtedly strong indications to the fact that WRS had positive effect on these two variables.

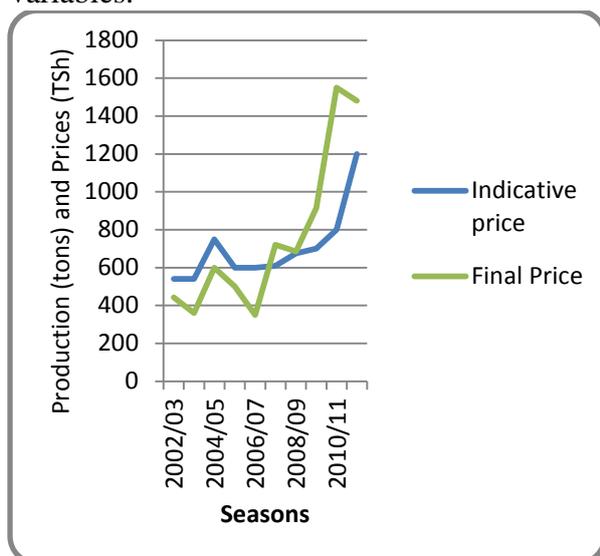


Fig. 2: Indicative price against final producer price over the last ten years

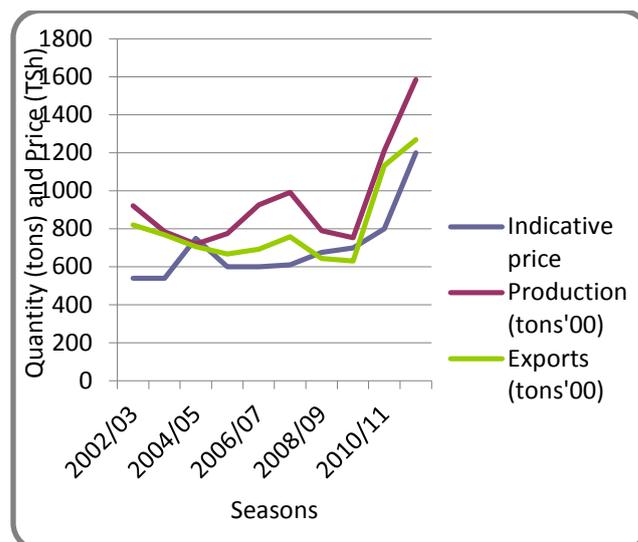


Fig. 3: Trend of indicative price, cashew output, and exports in the period 2002/03 – 2011/12.

Fig.4 further attests to the facts of Fig. 2 and shows an even rosier picture of cashew exports trend over the past decade when exports of processed produce are converted into their in-shell cashew equivalents. Assuming that these effects happened spontaneously following a general rise of cashew price in the world market (Fitzpatrick, 2012) defies economics principles. Economists have always grappled with the challenge of effecting price transmission from the world market to the grass-root producers. In view of results in fig. 2-4 and correlation analysis above, it can safely be argued that the WRS has been the appropriate mechanism to effect positive price and output changes in the cashew industry.

Fitzpatrick (2012) argues that WRS is just a distortion in the industry and suggests for an open market in its place. This is surprising as the same study has elucidated the very factors that are technically known to call for coordinated exchange in a market. Such factors include asset specificity, degree of uncertainty surrounding a transaction, need for quality verification and circumstances where equilibrating supply and demand is important (Poulton and Lyne, 2008). Fitzpatrick (2012) contends tha cashew is grown where other crops cannot be planted (i.e. asset specific investment), its market depends on the global forces of supply and demand making the timing of supply into the market important and that cashew nut industry worldwide suffers from a lack of quality information and is typically driven by myth, rumor and adversarial relationships (i.e. high degree of uncertainty). These characteristics may prevent equilibrium in an open market situation; hence the need for coordinated exchange. The WRS is thus technically justified as a mechanism to coordinate exchange in the cashew sector.

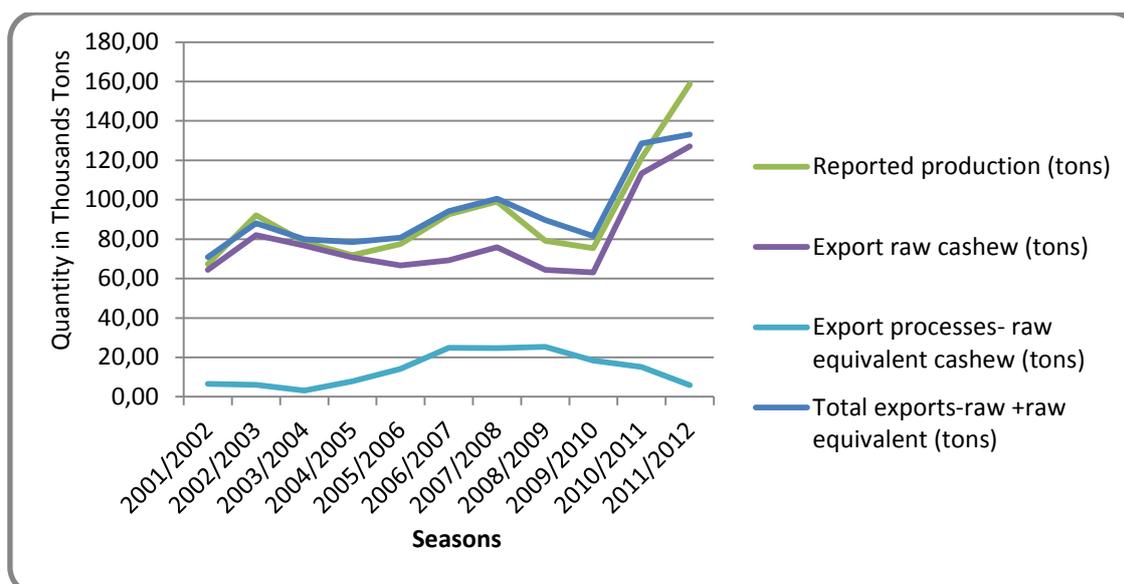


Fig. 4: Production and total exports over the past ten year period ending 2012

Source: Grey data from CBT headquarters' Mtwara and MITM Dar es Salaam, (Feb-Mar 2013)

Coordination challenges of the WRS

The cashew nut marketing in Tanzania is coordinated under the legally mandated Warehouse Receipt System. Contrary to coffee industry, the system in cashew nut has been made mandatory to all cashew farmers (Fig. 6). In coffee industry, private buyers are allowed to purchase the crops and therefore create competitive price for farmers. According to Tanzania Warehouse Licensing Board (TWLB), the current situation in the cashew industry creates a monopoly by cooperatives, thus making the market less competitive. The system could, however, accommodate other players (e.g. private buyers) if not denied by political pronouncements. TWLB is planning to introduce Commodity Exchange (CE) in the industry to enhance buyer competition. Some authors (Fitzpatrick, 2012), without concrete evidence, have already dismissed the effectiveness of CE in the industry on account of its being susceptible to corruption.

Misconceptions about WRS among stakeholders also contribute to the existing conflicts in cashew nut industry. Key informants raised poor understanding of the system as one major challenge. During a discussion with a TWLA officer, it was noted that almost all of the stakeholders in the cashew nut industry have varying understanding of the Warehouse Receipt System. Politicians and CBT consider the system as mandatory through the Unions only, farmers take it as a final market and traders conceive it as a deliberate move to eradicate them from the chain. A common understanding is an urgent requirement for the WRS's smooth and sustainable operation. Those few awareness trainings conducted so far have not been adequate, and dependency on TWLA alone for future training is insufficient given their low manpower and budgetary constraints.

Economic coordination of the WRS in the cashew industry is a bit cumbersome as it entails bringing together three line ministries [MAFC, MITM and Local Government Authority (LGA)], Cooperative Unions, Primary Cooperative Societies i.e. AMCOs, warehouse operators and port authority (Fig.5). The three ministries have thus far been unable to work in unison. In addition, financing of the system brings in the Central Government through the Central Bank (guarantors), commercial banks (lenders) and cooperatives (borrowers) all adding up to a complex exchange which is difficult to coordinate. The relationships between actors in Fig. 5 and their individual actions are

important as they translate into the transaction cost of carrying out the raw (in-shell) cashew exchange.

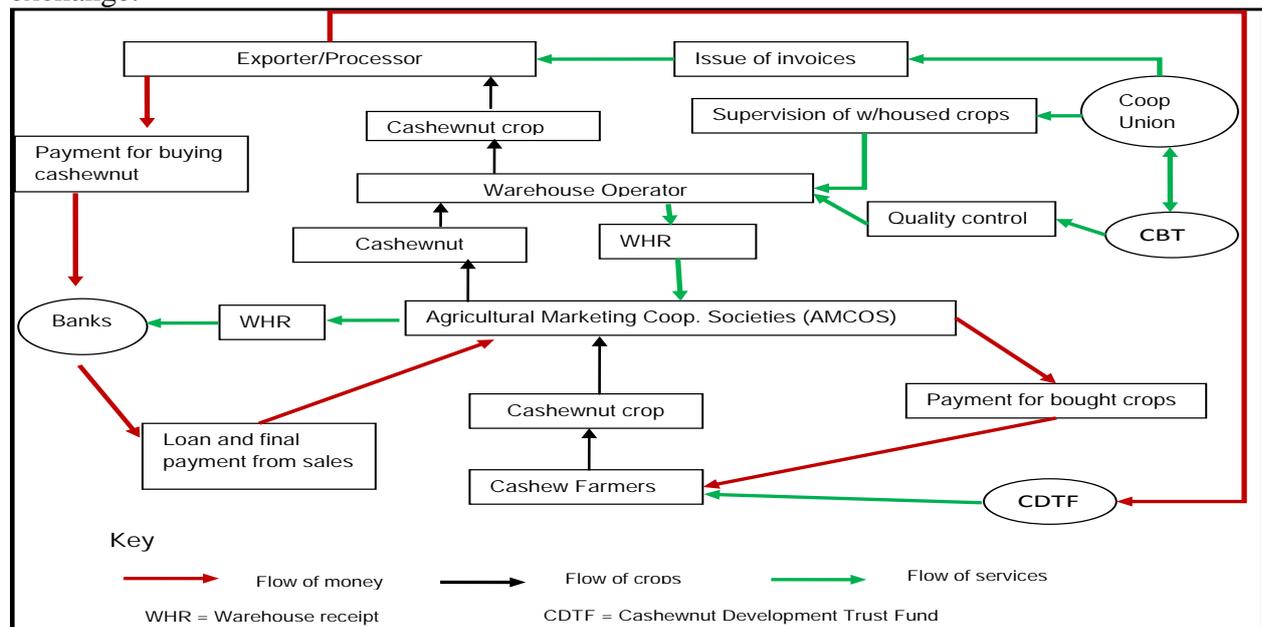


Fig. 5: WRS in the Cashew nut value chain

(i) Cashew Traders and processors

Cashew trading comprises both licensed domestic and international traders operating through local and multi-national companies. A general assessment indicates that the number of buyers per season has been fluctuating with only 22 buyers being regular in the market. The seasonal inconsistency of buyers' participation in the market may indicate existence of some anti-competitive practices in the market thus low prices. This could not however be empirically substantiated in this study because of lack of long time series data on export figures by buyers in which a trend and movement of concentration ratios would have been computed/shown.

On the other hand cashew processing in the country is minimal with only 15% of total production (this does not include local unregistered processing) being processed and exported. Even after the privatization of the 11 processing plants in the 2000s, the country has only 5 privately owned plants which are currently operating with a total capacity of 40,000 tons. Many stakeholders interviewed agreed that processing the cashew is the way to go now for Tanzania. However, some challenges were cited that stand in the way of the much awaited processing, which include requirement of large investment to purchase machinery and the attempt of incumbent cashew buyers to frustrate any attempt to process cashew nut domestically. Furthermore, the incumbent traders' government supports raw cashew export to the Indian market given the importance of the crop in its labour market (Ashimogo *et al.*, 2008). For example, in the season 2010/11 the incumbent buyers left the market after meeting their planned purchase of 90,000 tons of raw cashew leaving behind unsold 60,000 tons in the warehouses. Their plan was to have the produce carried over to the following season, which would mean buying the stock at a throw away price. However, a prospective American buyer emerged and offered to buy the remaining stock under an agreement with Unions that included a promise to be a sustainable buyer thereafter. Just before the sale was completed, however, the entire stock was strangely and unexpectedly bought by the incumbent buyers. The life of the American buyer was also threatened. Indeed, cashew business is full of adversarial relationships, but the question is, who is the perpetrator? Surely, the incumbent buyers are not the victims here as held by Fitzpatrick (2012) study. The surprising thing again

in this development was the realization that though the FOB price for raw cashew in 2010/11 ranged between US\$ 750 – 900 (equivalent to Tshs 1,200 – 1,440 per kilogram¹²⁹) (Kilama, 2013), the final average auction price in Tanzania closed at Tshs. 1,440 per kilogram (see Table 1). This could only be possible where incumbent buyers were instituting exclusionary measures to ward off competitors or were being subsidized (Indian Government has since been claimed to subsidize these buyers). Other challenges to processors include unreliable power and water supply and dilemma on the use of automatic machines (which produce broken nuts) while depending solely on India market that consumes whole-nuts.

(ii) Cooperatives and Cashew nut Development Trust Fund (CDTF)

Mistrust between members and leaders of primary societies and between leaders of primary societies and Unions originate from inadequate flow of cashew nut market information among them, little understanding of the warehouse receipt system and laxity of members on taking bold actions when they are unsatisfied with society/union decisions. Contradictory information provided by members during the field survey exhibit inadequate information flow between society's members and their leaders.

Research findings indicate some elements of weak management on the part of the Unions. For instance, it was observed that at Tandahimba, TANECU dissociates itself from the responsibility of counter-checking delivery and release of cashew nut owned by AMCOs under its jurisdiction from bonded warehouses. An incident was reported also on the Union failing to prosecute warehouse operator claimed to be responsible for a loss of 600 tons¹³⁰ of cashew under its custodianship. It was learnt that the Union out of mere complacency issue produce release warrants to cashew buyers after being informed by warehouse operators of the amount to be released without crosschecking.

CDTF is a new comer into the cashew value chain and was established by the Stakeholders General Meeting in the 2010/11 season and was meant to help farmers obtain input supplies, alleviating the problems of price hiking, untimely supply of inputs, and counterfeit chemicals. It is funded by 65% (over 4 billion Tanzanian shillings annually) of the cashew export levy. However, the fund operations were initially highly sabotaged by the incumbent private dealers and politicians in a bid to disqualify the fund's ability to deliver the goods. Nonetheless the fund has managed to showcase its effectiveness, delivering input supplies on time at competitive prices in the 2013/14 season. In short, the cashew value chain is clandestinely consolidated and protected in many respects. The CDTF has been able to successfully break through the protection of private interests' wall because the CBT Board new Chairperson came to realize the potential that the industry was about to waste in favour of promoting *dukawalas* cashew input businesses.

Policy, rules, regulations and enforcement

The industry is plagued with three main challenges related to indicative price setting, bidding process and enforcement of the WRS regulations. The indicative price for cashew is set by a stakeholders' committee. In the past, under CBT, it was set on the basis export parity price calculations for raw cashew and was approved by the cashew nut stakeholders' meeting. The price was kept secret and shared between committee members only. The method was, however, misused during the bidding process. Consequently, stakeholders pressed for more transparency. This called for changes in the composition of the committee to include councilors, buyers and representatives from primary societies. The new composition exposed

¹²⁹ Equivalence calculated by using the current exchange rate of Tshs 1,600 per US\$ which is higher than the ruling rate in 2010/11 season.

¹³⁰ Surprisingly and to everyone's dismay, the loss was paid-off without affecting farmers expected dues. This could insinuate that administrative costs in the cost structure are highly overstated.

the price structure, enabling buyers to bid just enough to meet the indicative price and avoid price competition¹³¹. The current approach is to base the indicative price on farmers' production costs. Reportedly, however, indicative price has always been below production cost when compared with Naliendele Research Institute (Government) standard figures. Experts in the MITM are strongly opposed to the current approach, which is associated with overestimation of production costs and overcharge for services through district levy and unions fee (Table 1). The districts' and Unions' over and double charges could result in an unrealistic and overstated indicative price and lead to uncompetitive pricing in the market.

Table 1: Cost price structure for raw cashew nut in the WRS

NO.	ITEM	Cashewnut indicative farm gate price structure (Tsh/kg)						
		2006/07	2007/08	2008/09	2009/10	2010/11	2011/12	2012/2013
1	Gunny bags and Twine		31.0	31.5	31.5	38.5	44.0	46.3
2	Crop Insurance		1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0
3	Cash Insurance		1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0
4	Cash Distribution		5.0	5.0	-	-	5.0	5.0
5	District Council Produce Cess 5%		30.5	33.5	35.0	40.0	60.0	60.0
6	Primary Co - op. Societies Levy		20.0	50.0	50.0	50.0	50.0	50.0
8	Union Levy		14.0	20.0	20.0	20.0	20.0	20.0
9	Task force		1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0
10	Storage Warehouse Commission		8.0	17.0	17.0	15.0	14.0	14.0
11	Transportation		50.0	65.0	65.0	50.0	65.0	50.0
12	Fumigation and weighing scale		-	-	-	-	1.0	0.5
13	Shrinkage 1% or 0.5 % (2013)		12.2	13.4	13.4	13.5	12.0	6.0
14	Bank charges						3.0	3.0
15	Loan interest		10.0	10.0	18.0	18.0	9.0	9.0
16	Farmers contribution - CDTF							25.3
	TOTAL COSTS Admin costs (A)		183.7	248.4	252.9	248.0	286.0	292.3
	Farm gate Price (B)	600.0	610.0	670.0	700.0	800.0	1,200.0	1,200.0
	Auction indicative price (A+B)		793.7	918.4	952.9	1,048.0	1,486.0	1,492.3
	Average actual auction price		925.0	845.0	1,164.0	1,842.5	1,715.0	1,572.0
	Average final price to farmers	600.0	690.0	670.0	885.0	1,440.0	1,340.0	
	% incremental change in the estimated auction price	0.0%	16.5%	-8.0%	22.2%	75.8%	15.4%	5.3%

Source: CBT headquarters, Mtwara

Forgery cases in recent past compelled a change in the cashew bidding process under CBT and Cooperative Unions. Now bidders are given half a day (instead of five days in the past) to deposit their bids in a tender box and tenders are opened on the same day. CBT provides sales catalogs before bidding. However, contrary to the practice in the past, cashew auctions are not gazetted nowadays instead phone calls are used to alert prospective buyers. The system is questionable as to its ability to ensure equitable dissemination of the alerts to all buyers and worse still, its ability to attract new buyers.

Enforcement of regulation in the WRS is challenged in many ways as already discussed above. Cooperative members, for instance, are unable to hold their leaders accountable for financial mismanagement vices despite the Cooperative Audit and Supervision's (COASCO) vindictive reports. In addition, indicative prices are always

¹³¹Intense calls for improved transparency in the WRS have finally led to over-exposure which has eroded the incentive for buyers to bid competitively. Normally, every business must have its own classified information to maintain its competitive edge which seems not to be the case here. There are claims that that the advantages of keeping the indicative price open to buyers are higher than the associated disadvantages of hiding it. Opponents argue that the period when the price was kept from buyers was marred with corruption and unfair competition. Deep down however such eventualities were just a result of ineffective bidding/sale committees and at best failed enforcement of the system's regulations. Gains in producer price improvement were more pronounced during the price hiding period (see table 2).

endorsed in general meetings despite disapproval by various stakeholders. Sensitive documents are also routinely mishandled and give way to undue theft and smuggling of the crop. Enforcement of regulations is further compromised in the observance of payment and evacuation time limits. Though 7 and 14 days are set limits for payment and evacuation of bid winners, CBT officer(s) and warehouse operator(s) often collude to delay settlement and evacuation, which prevents producers from being paid in a timely manner.

Cashew Farmers' Technical Efficiency Results

Stochastic Frontier (SF) model results showed that cashew farmers were not efficient enough, as the overall computed TE was only 51% (Tables 2 and 3). The analysis showed that only about 6% of the farmers had efficiency levels above 80% (Table 4). This means that the efficient use of available resources could increase output by 49% at the same input use level. According to Table 3, two of the efficient variables (land area and plant population) are statistically significant at $p \leq 0.05$ level. Land area however is unexpectedly affecting output in the opposite direction, a situation which likely indicates poor farm management practices.

Results in tables 2 and 3 show that level of education of the household head, gender of household head, extension services, weeding and family are all significant inefficiency factors for cashew producers in Tandahimba district. The major concern however is the estimated overall efficiency of 51% (Table 2).

Given the TE results, Tandahimba cashew farmers are likely to be high-cost producers. If production cost is used to determine the indicative price for the produce, the market exchange is likely to fail since the price would be overstated.

Table 2: Maximum likelihood estimates for trans-log stochastic frontier production function

Variable	Parameter	Coefficient	Standard error	t-ratio
Constant	beta 0	-2.89	3.69	-0.78
Ln Area	beta 1	-2.63**	1.26	-2.08
Ln Plant popn	beta 2	3.89**	1.29	3.02
Ln Mandays	beta 3	0.26	1.27	0.21
Ln Pesticides	beta 4	-0.17	0.65	-0.26
Ln Area ²	beta 5	- 0.35	0.17	-2.05
Ln Plant ²	beta 6	-0.48	0.17	-2.95
Ln Mandays ²	beta 7	-0.04	0.15	-0.24
Ln Pesticides ²	beta 8	0.04	0.03	1.35
Ln Area* Ln Plant	beta 9	0.74	0.29	2.54
Ln Area* Ln Mandays	beta10	0.06	0.24	0.22
Ln Area* Ln Pesticides	beta11	-0.103	0.09	-1.14
Ln Trees* Ln Mandays	beta12	0.06	0.25	0.23
Ln Trees* Ln Pesticides	beta13	0.102	0.09	1.13
Ln Mandays* Ln Pesticides	beta14	-0.05	0.102	-0.53
sigma-squared		24.95	6.39	3.9
Gamma		0.99	0.002	388.5
log likelihood		-294.15		
LR test		168.86		
Mean/overall efficiency		51%		

Table 3: Parameter estimates of the Inefficiency model

Inefficiency variable	Parameter	Coefficient	Standard error	t-ratio
Constant	delta 0	18.003	6.61	2.72
Age	delta 1	-0.06	0.04	-1.65
Level of Education	delta 2	-1.27 **	0.39	-3.19
Gender	delta 3	-4.99 **	2.15	-2.32
Extension services	delta 4	-7.86 **	2.56	-3.07
Weeding	delta 5	-19.201 **	6.65	-2.89
Pruning	delta 6	3.003	1.54	1.95
Family size	delta 7	-1.025 **	0.39	-2.59

Table 4: Technical efficiency results

Technical efficiency	Frequency	Percentage
0 – 20	24	11%
20 – 40	37	18%
40 – 60	58	28%
60 – 80	79	38%
80 – 100	12	6%
Total	210	100

Market Concentration

It has not been possible to obtain data for the entire prior ten year period. Nonetheless, calculations made from the available 2007/08 season data produced CR4 and CR3 values of 44% and 38% respectively. A market with CR4 of 40 normally insinuates an oligopolistic market (DFID, 2008). These results comport well with information from the study's key informants and Fitzpatrick's (2012) study. Key informants highlighted the presence of participating buyers masquerading as independent while they are actually falling under a common ownership. Comprehensive inference on the current concentration status of the Tanzanian cashew market cannot however be made using this single set and five-year-old data.

Trade barriers to entry and exit

High initial capital investment cost, especially for automated machines, might be related to the lack of new entrants into cashew nut processing. The actual investment cost for such a plant was not established, but a simple manual processing plant, like the one in Kitama village, costs over one billion TSh to establish.

There is a strategic barrier which is rather difficult to discern. This emanates from over-dependency on one cashew market that prefers either raw cashew or whole processed nuts. India is considered the only export market for Tanzania cashew nuts, whether raw or processed. The latter forced many processing plants to use manual/rudimentary technology to ensure absence or minimal broken pieces of cashew nuts –a position that hindered large-scale operations and made processing the cashew uncompetitive given the low volumes. Rumours have it also that efforts of prospective large scale processors (from Brazil and England) to enter the Tanzania market are being frustrated by the incumbent raw cashew buyers through some clandestine predatory/exclusionary measures as partly explained in previous sections above.

The sidelining of private dealers from WRS is not only a regulatory barrier but has also created a monopoly of cooperatives in the cashew nut market. Forcing cashew farmers to sell through the cooperative system alone and prohibiting private sector participation create uncompetitive pricing for raw cashew nuts. High export levies have also failed to curb export of raw cashew to further detriment of the crop's local processing.

Anti-competitive conduct and Vested interest

Contradictory arguments in relation to cartels and abusive conduct in the cashew nut market were observed during interviews with key stakeholders. Some argued that cashew buyer companies are mostly individual Indians masquerading as independent buyers, but others disagreed. The latter substantiated the claim on the observed high buyer turnover rate as discussed in the previous sections above. The former case is supported by the existence of the 22 buying companies and the calculated concentration ratio above 40%, which suggest that the raw cashew market is oligopolistic and thus likely collusive. Moreover, rumour has it that there are only two buyer companies/families for the raw cashew destined for the Indian market.

WRS is a legally established institution which is supposed to run according to the underlying law/regulations. However, it is puzzling that the system is run through frequent political pronouncements from government leaders. For example, in the 2011/12 season, Mtwara's regional authority ordered farmers to refuse any payment below TSh 2.000/kg, which was far above the market price. Political interference in the industry has led to decreased morale on the part of CBT's technical personnel, who are now weary of any innovative action for fear of backlash from producers, politicians and activists (all these are now cashew experts in their own rights!).

Conclusions

There is enough evidence to conclude that the WRS has been successful in improving producer prices over the entire period of its existence. WRS is, however, plagued with a myriad of challenges, including negative publicity from internal and external forces; high transaction costs due to hiked administrative costs; poor enforcement of regulations due to political interference and intentional malpractice; out-selling due to smuggling; over transparency/overexposure on price structure formulation; overdependence on a single Indian market; poor flow of information leading to poor transparency; poor utilization of the market window following belated season start due to untimely bank loan funds' disbursement; and monopolization by cooperatives and exclusion of private dealers from raw cashew export trade. The suggestion to replace WRS with the open market (Fitzpatrick, 2012) that existed before 2007/08 season has not been empirically supported. The immediate action could be to eliminate the hiked administrative costs as they are responsible for high transaction costs in the WRS.

Most cashew farmers are inefficient and hence high cost producers. The current practice of determining the indicative price in the WRS on the basis of production costs is thus detrimental to the industry as it is likely to overstate the price and ignore the dynamics of the world market price movements. This situation will only enhance disagreements between buyers and sellers as buyers may not be willing to compensate producers for their inefficiency. There is a need to restore the determination of indicative price on the basis of export price valuation.

Competition assessment of the WRS has found the cashew market to be oligopolistic. This is in the backdrop of conflicting views from CBT and TWLA on the existence of buyer collusion in the market. In either case however, oligopolies are usually collusive though a coordinated market (e.g. under WRS) which strictly observes its operational regulations is still likely to be efficient under the same circumstance. There is need to diversify the market to break overdependence on the Indian raw cashew export market by building internal processing capacity and exploring alternative markets globally.

Institutional review of the WRS has revealed a number of instances where the system's rules and regulations are violated. The effect has been delayed payments to farmers, which is the major cause of the skirmishes and producer demonstrations that have become rampant in Mtwara region. These outcomes are detrimental to the system's reputation. However, there has not been evidence to suggest that perpetrators (unscrupulous buyers, Union staff, warehouse operators, CBT staff etc) are made to bear the consequences of their action as stipulated in the WRS regulations. The problem is exacerbated by the complex nature of entities involved in administering the system in a situation where CBT has turned into an onlooker interested in dancing to the tune of politicians' interests. Thus depoliticizing CBT management through abolition of the presidential appointee chairperson position and eliminating regional and district political leaders' influence on the WRS would ensure effective operation and enforcement of the WRS. If the chair is retained it should be turned into an executive position, competitively contested on merit.

The Cashew industry is currently a play ground for many researchers, scholars, civil rights groups, media houses etc. The industry is thus bombarded with several interventions and/or policy advices that could be conflicting at times. There ought to be a well thought way (e.g. an advisory committee) by all cashew stakeholders to sieve these advices in order to identify the pertinent ones in terms of their reliability, compatibility and effectiveness. The industry should be keen not to fall into *the fallacy of false authority trap*.

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LANGUAGE, SPORT, SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT- CLASH OR FIT

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Abstract

Aspect of Sport as a Tool for Sustainable Development and Solidarity implies that toolkits should be created for NOCs in developing countries to assist them in developing opportunities to promote sustainable development, and in developing appropriate action plans to address their particular priorities and challenges. The IOC Sport and Environment Commission, through the Olympic Solidarity programs should assist NOCs in the formulation and implementation of sport and environmental projects. The IOC and partners should develop and produce guidelines for feasible projects at the national level. Sport should be used in addressing other social and economic priorities such as the fight against poverty and the spread of HIV/AIDS, and in the promotion of social justice, human well-being and gender equality. Indispensable factor in this game should be observed as well, and that is “clean language “ or the language used to define all the aspects of sport, language and sustainable development.

Keywords: Sport, language, sustainable development, environmental projects, priorities

Introduction

The environment takes up a more general sense not just denoting our surroundings but all the conditions and situations enhancing people to work and act with the aim to make better their own working and functioning environment. The IOC Sport and Environment Commission, through the Olympic Solidarity programs should assist NOCs in the formulation and implementation of sport and environmental projects. The IOC and partners should develop and produce guidelines for feasible projects at the national level. Sport should be used in addressing other social and economic priorities such as the fight against poverty and the spread of HIV/AIDS, and in the promotion of social justice, human well-being and gender equality. In this manner we assume the Role of Athletes to be the following:

- Maximize the effective role of athletes and organizations in education and awareness, by promoting and communicating the importance of sustainability and protection of the environment

- Encourage athletes to act as role models and take part in communicating green messages to the community.

- Events Collaboration at Community Level

- Effective partnerships between organizers and both local and national authorities, and civil society from the outset are essential for the environmental success of any sports event

- The role of athletes as role models in establishing such collaboration should be developed to promote a safe and healthy environment.

- Sustainable Venue Design

- Respect for the environment in venue design is an integral part of the sustainable development legacy of the Olympic and Paralympic Games

– Sustainable development must embrace the interaction of all members of the local community with their improved environment.

The concept of blending

We also introduce the concept of blending as the act of mixing social factors taking sports as one of the most interesting parts of the society, and the influence it can exert on making our own living and working environment richer and more complex.

The concept of blending, in the glow of the French team's 1998 World Cup victory, found its place in sports vocabulary as a signifier of diversity in clubs and in national and regional selections. Far more than football alone, all disciplines are concerned to a more or less intense degree, depending on their popular support or lack of it, and on the culture which they convey. Multiple origins and complex careers are now a hallmark: handball, rugby, basketball as well as individual sports like athletics, judo and tennis have their champions stemming from diversity, who form the tip of an equally variegated iceberg of school and amateur sport. Thus, sport is completely permeated by the question of the diversity which it vividly enacts.

In many European countries school and sport politics have given sport an important role to play regarding intercultural and integrative processes. Nevertheless, consistent official guidelines and didactic concepts are lacking. Freiburg project group (Germany) tried to compile a theory-driven concept which was used successfully during practical projects with schools and during the education and training of sport educators and trainers. It is vital that the development of similar programs, based on theory and empirical evidence, will be brought forward in order to develop sport concepts capable of promoting intercultural dialogue between native and migrant populations, thereby guaranteeing equal participation in sport.

At the micro-level there are operational settings, such as sports associations and other types of civil society organizations, which help facilitate the activities within this area. However, local initiatives can clearly benefit from the structural, advisory and inspirational support from national and international levels. The current trend for increasing attention towards these issues among civil society organizations and sports associations can be strengthened through long-term national programs and back-up systems for local initiatives. b) These long-term national programs can create substantial support to local initiatives through conceptual support, management guidance, intercultural learning, networking, inspiration and financial support. c) The creation of partnerships between GO (national or municipality level) and NGO sectors should be stressed. To support this, a transfer of knowledge at both political and implementation levels should have a special focus. d) National long-term programs with interventions could beneficially receive cross-border inspiration from European events, networks and co-operation. The focus should reside on realistic overall goals. Finally, actions supported by evidence-based best practices and experiences should be promoted.

The Polish context is somewhat different. The social organization and thus questions of nationality and citizenship were constructed under very different circumstances and under the communist system, the importance of immigration, ethnicity and of national minorities were minimized. Poland, like other acceding states, was still in the process of working through its approach to citizenship. However, in drawing up its new internal administrative boundaries the significance of national minorities was recognized

Where so many other programs had failed, the project "Sport Inspires Me" looks directly at the problems of exclusion and through an experimental project in one of the most violent neighborhoods of Lisbon, roots were established allowing this strategy of inclusion through sport to be taken to other disadvantaged parts of Lisbon. This project is currently

trying to set out a constitutional right that allows all citizens an equal opportunity to practice sports and, with the simple strategy of including all social strata, all colors, ages and individuals, both male and female, in the same activities, in the same social environment – has diminished tensions, broken down barriers and eradicated some risk behaviors.

The City of Iași (Romania) continues to run projects on social development and is busy integrating them. For example, the municipality will link “Neighborhood Sport” with the project “Social Work for Better Life” supported by the Phare CBC program, on the deployment of social facilitators in the community of Iași.

From 2005 to 2007, the Federal Office of Sports (Switzerland) carried out a joint project with the NGO Swiss Academy for Development (SAD) aimed at establishing equal access to leisure time activities for children and young people with immigrant backgrounds. The project was based on a participatory approach, working with school teachers and local sports instructors to develop the instruction manual *Rencontres en mouvement/Begegnung durch Bewegung*. From 2007 to 2008 a cooperation project with the Swiss Red Cross (SRC) led to the publication of *Le mouvement, c’est la vie/Bewegung ist Leben* in eight languages. The publication is directed at adult migrants. Its aim is to promote their health and physical activity in daily life.

A more far-reaching, aspect of communist sport, however, was the evolution of a model of a sport for a modernizing community, employing sport for utilitarian purposes to promote health and hygiene, defense, productivity, the integration of a multiethnic population into a unified state, and international prestige – what we might call ‘nation-building’. With the exception of the GDR and Czechoslovakia, communist development was initially based on a mass illiterate, rural population. It was this model that had some attraction for nations in Africa, Asia and Latin America. In most communist states, sport had the quite revolutionary role of being an agent of social change, with the state as a pilot. In any case, after the revolution or liberation there was rarely a leisure class around to promote sport for its own disport. Further, partly under the influence of Marxist philosophy that stressed the interdependence of the mental and physical states of human beings, many communist states emphasized the notion that physical is as vital as mental.

Namely, sports terminology mirrors the hierarchy of any given lexical system, and not just lexical but also social system, because there have to be incorporated internationalisms, general host language lexis and individualisms as well. Apart from that, sport more than any other area of man’s life influences terms so that they lose their status of just language units and from the general Lexis depending on the popularity and widespread sport coverage, they are transferred to everyday’s life.

Therefore, research on sports terminology is significant not just as a specificity of one given terminology semantic field but because it shows that a pragmatic component of familiarity can become a relevant criterion of its structural hierarchy. Thus research on sports terminology is not just relevant from the point of lexicology but from the point of the functioning-stylistic aspect thus reflecting the role of sport in society at large.

Sports federations are trying to fight climate change

Sports federations are trying to fight climate change by switching to energy-saving lamps or solar-powered roof. But the real problem lies in the growing number of flights to international sporting events. The irony is hard to miss. In order to talk about climate protection in sports with Lutz Pfannenstiel, you have to track him down in Sao Paulo. The international talent scout for Bundesliga side TSG Hoffenheim travels around the world in search of young, undiscovered football geniuses. His journeys often take him to South America or Africa. He has come to Brazil to network.

All that travel seems to contradict Pfannenstiel's stand on climate change. After his professional career came to an end, the German keeper founded Global United, an association that tries to draw attention to climate change through football matches and spectacular events.

Pfannenstiel said you need at least one extreme or unusual and media-savvy event a year to get people's attention. That's why he's planning a star-studded match in Antarctica, of all places, in 2014 – ahead of the World Cup in Brazil.

"Nothing like this has ever been done before and probably won't be done again," Pfannenstiel said. "Of course, there's no proper stadium there with all the bells and whistles. It will be a really simple game on an airfield."

Plenty of good intentions

There's no dearth of good and well-intentioned sporting events to fight climate change and raise awareness about environmental issues. Solar-powered roofs are being installed on a growing number of stadiums.

Green, energy-saving events have long become a standard feature in big events such as the Olympic Games. In the upcoming London Olympics, for example, 9 percent of the electricity needed to power the events will come from renewable sources. Still, it's a far cry from the 20 percent that London organizers had originally hoped to reach.

Symbolic gestures, too, are on the rise. European football's governing body, UEFA, recently participated in the World Wildlife Fund's Earth Year celebrations, shutting off all the lights at its headquarters in Switzerland for an hour on a Saturday evening. The head of the UEFA Fair Play and Social Responsibility Committee, Peter Gillieron, encouraged people to convince friends, family and colleagues to make a positive contribution in the fight against climate change. "For example, you could go to work by foot instead of by car," Gillieron said.

Conclusion: or too much football ruining the climate?

Gillieron failed to address the high environmental cost incurred by UEFA's numerous football games. Indeed, the number of games and tournaments in the UEFA calendar has skyrocketed thanks to changed rules and a growing number of member states.

In 1991, the European Cup – the predecessor to the Champions League - involved 58 matches. In the current Champions League season, though, there are 212 games. The number of youth tournaments and women's football competitions has exploded as well.

Every week, hundreds of planes carry footballers and their fans around Europe, transporting them from one stadium to the next. And that means big business: more games mean higher revenues from television broadcasting rights, and more money for the industry. That, say critics, is in large part why football associations and organizations are avoiding the problem, despite the obvious - reducing the number of games would be a good opportunity to ease the burden on the environment.

When asked about its environmental responsibility, UEFA passed the buck onto the fans. "It is the responsibility of fans to compensate their individual carbon emission when they travel to an away game and we encourage them to use public transport whenever possible," UEFA said in an official statement. Even Lutz Pfannenstiel remains wary of reducing the number of games. "That would mean intervening in the competition," he said, pointing instead to smaller successes by Bundesliga clubs in slashing water consumption and setting up carpooling networks for youth leagues.

James Atkins, chairman of an emissions trading company called Vertis, says little has changed in sports and athletics.

"There are tons of stupid ideas out there that are not good for the environment," Atkins said, referring to the Premier League's erstwhile plans to stage a game on a different

continent for promotional reasons. The idea didn't get very far: FIFA lodged an appeal and the Premier League dropped its cause.

In 2010, James Atkins released his book "Climate Change for Football Fans," where football metaphors are used to describe the Herculean battle against climate change.

Atkins said football players, too, often fail to set a good example. "When they're young, they do silly things like having a bunch of Ferraris in their garage," he said.

But Atkins also points the blame at football officials, who encourage fans to walk instead of drive to work to reduce their carbon footprint, while at the same time expanding their own lucrative business at a high cost to the environment.

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EXAMINING THE INDONESIA AND MALAYSIA STUDENT-ATHLETES COPING STRATEGY IN SPORTS

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Abstract

The purpose of this paper is to compare the coping strategies among university student-athletes between Indonesia and Malaysia. A sample of 469 students athletes of Indonesia (226: female-69; male-157) and Malaysia (243: female-95; male-148) were randomly selected as the sample for this study. The age for Indonesia student-athletes ($M=21.05$, $sd=2.31$) and Malaysia student athletes ($M=21.41$, $sd=2.50$). The samples were selected from four major universities in Indonesia and Malaysia. Of the sample, 2.6% of Indonesian and 2.3% of Malaysian representing National team and 4.3% of Indonesian and 5.8% of Malaysian student-athletes representing state level during their study. However, 3.8% and 13.9% of Indonesian sample representing National and state during their high school year, respectively, 8.5% and 21.7% of the Malaysian sample representing National and state team during their high school year. The instrument used in this study was The Athletic Coping Skills Inventory (ACSI-28). Results show that there are significantly difference between Indonesia and Malaysia athletes in coping in adversity, concentration, mental preparation and goal setting, peaking under pressure and freedom from worries. Out of that, the Indonesian student-athletes score higher than Malaysian student-athletes in subthemes of freedom from worries. While, the others the Malaysia student-athletes score higher. Results were further discussed and recommended for future research.

Keywords: Coping strategies, student-athletes, the athletic skills inventory (acsi-28), national sports representative

Introduction

The strain, stress and tension to compete in competitive sports has increased with all the media attention given to sport and the potential promotion available through success with extensive income (Kuethe & Motamed, 2010; Lucifora & Simmons, 2003). Therefore, people who unable to cope efficiently with the pressure of competitive sport may experience not only a decrease in their ability to perform, but also unmotivated, lack of interest, mental distress, and even to the extend of physical incapacibilities (Omar-Fauzee, Daud, Abdullah, &

Rashid, 2009). Whether individual or team sports athletes, they all have different sources of stress, and consequently each athlete deserved specific strategies to cope successfully in their selective sports (Kristiansen, Roberts & Abrahamsen, 2007). On the other hand, sport involvement requires both mental and physical capabilities of individuals in order to overcome the pressure before, during and after each training and competition.

These are also needed when athletes are in a situation where they feel unprepared or unsecure of their capabilities especially during a competition which will make them nervous to perform efficiently (Dominikus, Omar-Fauzee, Chong, Meesin & Choosakul, 2009). Perhaps, the application of mental strength ability including self-confidence, imagery, coping strategies, and goal setting will help to boost their confidence level in order to resilience back especially when they were psychologically down (Rattanakoses, Omar-Fauzee, & Soh, 2009). Furthermore, athletes who are equipped with mental toughness and strength are more likely to motivate, socialize, eagerness to compete, always calm and relaxed and these athletes are associated to having a high level of self confidence and strong beliefs in sports performance (Omar-Fauzee, Saputra, Samad, Gheimi, Asmuni, & Johar, 2012). To back up the point, Clough, Earle, and Sewell (2000) also found that athletes with high mental strength will enable them to compete in a variety of situations and these athletes have relatively low level of anxiety and nervousness than athletes who have low mental strength. Similarly, with stronger mental strength athletes should be able to cope with competitive stress situations due to external (i.e., managers, coaches, and fans) and internal factors (i.e., fear of success, fear of failure, and emotional problems). Thus, athletes should learn and train the coping strategies in order to face the realities of highly competitive sports situations.

Moreover, research by Omar-Fauzee, Abd-Latif, Tajularipin, Manja and Rattanakoses (2011) also identify that even the athletes who lost their games also need social support and problem solving skill in order to cope with the losing situations. Therefore, this is especially true with Asean athletes who unable to perform better at Olympic and International level. If far-East countries such as China (38 gold), Japan (7 gold) and Korea (13 gold) can excel better at 2012 Olympic (Shroeder, 2013), it seems that the South East Asian countries were stagnant without gold which are at the same level as ten years back than other countries who improved their sports development and move forward at International level. Thus, a study of Asean country athletes should be conducted in order to examine the psychological needs whether they can be improved and at the same time can cope with pressure received by the world class athletes (Omar-Fauzee, et al., 2012). Therefore, a profile of how young athletes deals with the stressful situations in competition should be investigated in order to understand their major problems. Therefore, this study will examine the coping profile of both Indonesia and Malaysia student-athletes in order to figure out the main reason to cope or not to cope in stressful conditions.

Methodology

Sample

A sample of 469 university students-athletes of Indonesia (226: female-69; male-157) and Malaysia (243: female-95; male-148) were randomly selected for this study. The age for Indonesia student-athletes ($M=21.05$, $sd=2.31$) and Malaysia student athletes ($M=21.41$, $sd=2.50$). The samples were selected from four major universities in Indonesia and Malaysia. Of the sample, 2.6% of Indonesian and 2.3% of Malaysian representing National team and 4.3% of Indonesian and 5.8% of Malaysian student-athletes representing state level during their study. However, 3.8% and 13.9% of Indonesian sample representing National and state during their high school year, respectively, 8.5% and 21.7% of the Malaysian sample representing National and state team during their high school year. They are representing a wide variety of sports (i.e. swimming, badminton, bowling, soccer, futsal, volleyball and field

hockey) either resident halls, university, state or National teams while they are studying at their respective universities.

Instrumentation

The questionnaire was divided into two parts, namely: demographic variables; and the athletic coping skills inventory – 28.

Demographic variables

The questionnaire also contained items that determined the age, gender and level of sports representation during their high school as well as their sports representation during studying at their respective university.

Athletic Coping Skills Inventory – 28

The Athletic Coping Skills Inventory – 28 (ACSI-28; Smith, Schultz, Smoll, & Ptacek, 1995) was used to measure the psychological coping skills for athletes. The ACSI-28 is a self-report questionnaire developed using exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis. The instrument consisted of a 28-item scale measuring seven classes of sport-specific psychological coping skills including goal setting, coping with adversity, peaking under pressure, goal setting/ mental preparation, coachability, freedom from worry, confidence and achievement motivation, and concentration. The respondents were asked to respond to each statement by indicating how often they experienced different situations using a 4 point Likert-like scale (e.g., I put a lot of pressure on myself by worrying about how I will perform”, 0 = almost never to 3 = almost always). Each subscale consisted of four items that were averaged to provide a subscale range of 0 to 3. Additionally, the scales were then summed to yield a personal coping resource score. The original subscales, as reported by Smith, Schutz, Smoll and Ptacek (1995) were found to be internally consistent with alpha levels ranging from .62 to .78 and a total (personal coping resources) scale alpha of .86.

Figure 1: Terms and definitions of ACSI – 28 psychological coping skills

Sub-scales	Descriptions
Coping with Adversity	Remains positive and enthusiastic even when things are going badly; remains calm and controlled; can quickly bounce back from mistakes and setbacks.
Peaking Under Pressure	Is challenged rather than threatened by pressure situations and performs well under pressure; a clutch performer.
Goal Setting/Mental Preparation	Sets and works towards specific performance goals; plans and mentally prepares him/herself for competition and clearly has a 'game plan' for the competition.
Concentration	Not easily distracted; able to focus on the task at hand in both practice and competitive situations, even when adverse or unexpected events occur.
Freedom from Worry	Does not put pressure on him/herself by worrying about performing poorly or making mistakes; does not worry about what others will think if he/she performs poorly.
Confidence and Achievement Motivation	Is confident and positively motivated; consistently gives 100% during practice and competitions and works hard to improve his/her skills.
Coachability	Open to and learns from instruction; accepts constructive criticism without taking it personally or becoming upset.

Source: Adapted from Smith, R. E., and Christensen, D. S. (1995). Psychological skills as predictors of performance and survival in professional baseball. *Journal of Sport and Exercise Psychology*, 17, 399-415.

Procedure

The permission from the Dean of faculty of respective university was seek before conducting thois research. After getting the approval, the researcher with the help of lecturers of participating universities in Indonesia and Malaysia conduct the research using

random sampling methodologies at the selected universities. All of the student who were selected was briefed of the objectives of the research and they was told that they can quit at anytime if they feel uncomfortable to answer the questionnaires. It took less approximately 30 minutes to answer the Malay translated questionnaire. This Malay translation was validated by expert in English from main researcher university in Kedah, Malaysia. The completed questionnaires were collected back after the respondents answer it.

Analysis of Data

All the data were analyzed using the Statistical Package of Social Sciences (SPSS) program software version 19.0. In relation to the objective of the research which was to examine the coping strategies profile of the selectyed respondents of both Indonesia and Malaysia student-athletes, an independent T-test was used to compare the mean between both countries. The discriptive statistic was also employed to identified the demographic of the respondents.

Results

The followings are the result obtained from the data analyses of demograpahic variables and the t-test of coping strategies between the two countries. The mean age for Indonesia student-athletes was 21.05 (sd=2.31) and Malaysia (21.41) (sd=2.50). All of them are undergraduate students who are obtaining a Bachelor degree programs at their respective universities. The level of competition during respondents high school years are as shown in Table 1, whereby 3.8%% Indonesia and 8.5% Malaysian student-athletes representing state level. Similarly, 13.9% Indonesia and 21.7% student-athletes representing district level. The situation changed when they are at university which shows that 2.6% of Indonesian and 2.3% of Malaysian representing National team and 4.3% of Indonesian and 5.8% of Malaysian student-athletes representing state level (Table 2). All of the coping strategies have the internal reliability between .70-.80 which is appropriate. The independent-t test results shows that five out of the seven coping strategies are significantly difference which are coping with adversity [$t(467) = -3.45, p < .05$], concentration [$t(467) = -3.97, p < .05$], goal setting/mental preparation [$t(467) = -3.54, p < .05$], peaking under pressure [$t(467) = -2.65, p < .05$], and freedom from worry [$t(466) = 6.89, P < .05$].

Table 1. Sports representation during high school

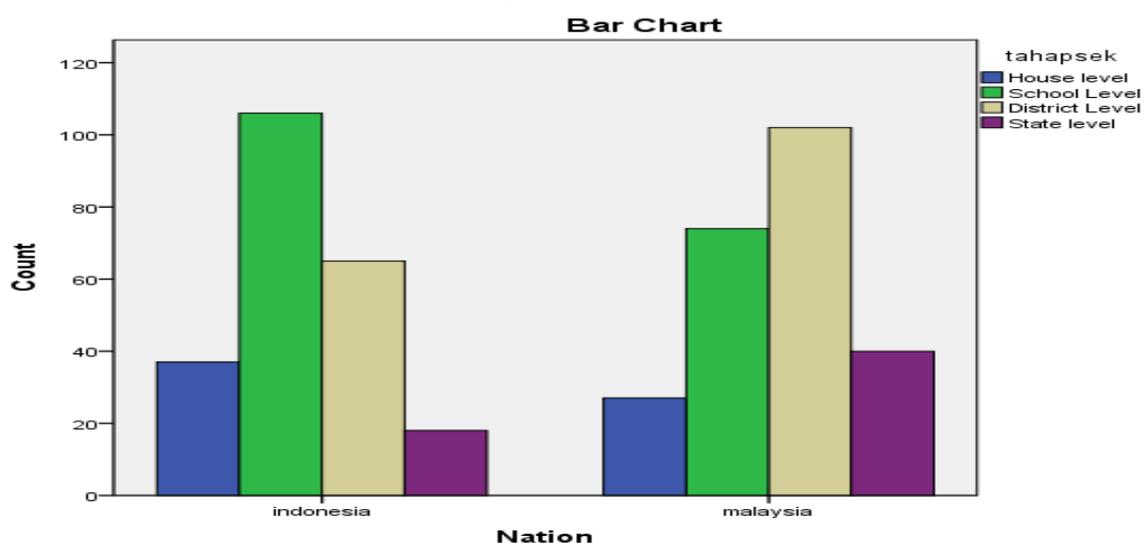


Table 2. Sports representations at University

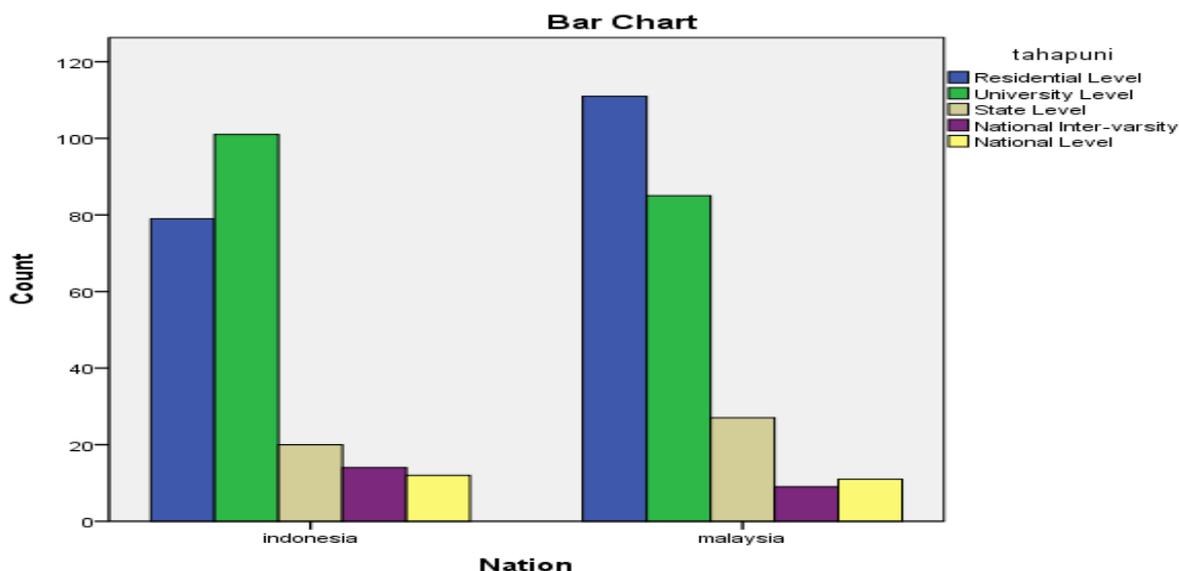


Table 3: Mean, standard deviation and t-score and degree of freedom of independent t-test for coping strategies for Indonesia and Malaysia student-athletes

Variable	Mean	Sd	t	df
Coping with Adversity			-3.45*	467
Indonesia	1.94	.59		
Malaysia	2.11	.48		
Concentration			-3.97*	467
Indonesia	1.71	.40		
Malaysia	1.86	.42		
Goal setting/Mental Preparation			-3.54*	467
Indonesia	1.89	.44		
Malaysia	2.08	.69		
Peaking under pressure			-2.65*	467
Indonesia	1.72	.46		
Malaysia	1.83	.51		
Freedom from worry			6.89*	466
Indonesia	1.77	.61		
Malaysia	1.38	.62		

Notes: * p < .05

Conclusion

The purpose of this research to obtain the coping strategies profile of the student-athletes, therefore, a descriptive statistic was employed in this study. Result shows that the Indonesia student-athletes show higher score in freedom from worry as compared to other coping strategies of Malaysia student-athletes. Thus, this shows that the Indonesia student-athletes do not worry about their performance and do not worry what others think about their performances. Perhaps, the huge population of 246,864,191 million people (Total Population, 2013) might consider another reason of why Indonesian student-athletes do not being so worry about facing others in sports, and they also careless about what others think of their performances. In reality, with 250 million populations, one had to work harder and struggle to be top students and even to enter university they already have the inner-struggle situation to compete with others. So as for sports, it might be a part of working hard to achieve excellence in their studies. Therefore, it is suggested a thorough study of why freedom from worry they cope higher than Malaysia should be conducted longitudinal and qualitatively in order to understand more of their psychological behavior (Omar-Fauzee,

Saputra, Samad, Gheimi, Asmuni, & Johar, 2012). Furthermore, it is interesting to find out that Indonesia student-athletes did not representing well (i.e., National and state team) during their high school years, however, they seems to be late bloomers which shows that when they entering university those who representing National at inter-varsity challenge and National team almost the same percentages with Malaysia students-athletes. What actually happen to those Malaysian who representing state and National level during high school? Moreover, why did the trend of late-bloomers student-athletes happen to Indonesian student-athletes needed further analysis by sport scientist. By understanding the reason, it may help to improve Asean sports performance in the future.

In contrast, the other four of coping strategies shows that Malaysia student-athletes score higher than the Indonesian, which are coping with adversity, concentration, goal setting/mental preparation and peaking under pressure. Thus, this shows Malaysia student-athletes show higher capability in coping strategies in sports. Perhaps due to the Asean-university sports games performance 2012 shows that Malaysia student-athletes was champion with 60 gold medal followed by Vietnam (56 gold medal) and Thailand (45 gold medal) (Asean University Games, 2013). Perhaps, the five year incentive to build up Malaysian university sports also gives an input to athlete's mental strength. Since the Ministry of Higher Education (Nowadays, it had emerged back with Ministry of Education, which is known as Ministry of Education) had introduce the 'excellence scheme for sports' where a particular sports were trained and placed in a particular university in Malaysia (e.g., the cricket for University Kebangsaan Malaysia, Rugby for Universiti Putra Malaysia and Golf for Universiti Utara Malaysia). A special budget of RM10 million being allocated by the ministry for sports development this year, about RM7.2 million was for the Sports Excellence Centres and RM3.6 million for the Focus Sport Centres (Varsity, 2013), were given to the particular university to employed the best coaches and best training facilities to this special 'excellence scheme for sports.' However, if the same incentive was given to the Indonesia student-athletes program, does their athletes mental strength and coping strategies improved? Although, some coping strategies higher than one another between Indonesia and Malaysia student-athletes, however, the point that have to be considered is the mean score between them are still consider low. For example out of likert scale 3, the highest mean score of both countries is coping with adversity and goal setting/mental preparation which their mean score is slightly above 2.0. Whereas, the others mean score are less than 2.0. Thus, with the incentive of approximately RM 10 million (Varsity, 2013) that had been given the student-athletes should score higher than average of 2.3 and above. Perhaps, the Government should look into the capabilities of the program whether it can sustain for a long term results.

This study also has its own limitation that should future researcher overcome it. The first limitation is that this study only a profiling type of research and further research should conducted longitudinally and with qualitative methodologies with interviews and observations. On the other hand, it is only one-off survey and repeated research should be considered in order to build up the Asean countries capability in sports performance (Omar-Fauzee, Saputra, Samad, Gheimi, Asmuni, and Johar (2012). Thus, with the regular result obtained, it helps the coaches to administered a 'resilience program' so that those score lower in certain coping strategy should be send for special course with sport psychologist not only for motivating them, but to help them maintained appropriate level of mental toughness. In a long term, it helps to develop Asean sports performance if all athletes be able to cope with all the struggle and challenges they faced before, during and after competition. Therefore, it is suggested that more repeated survey be conducted every one or two year's time depending on the budgeting provided.

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