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THE IMPACT OF ECONOMIC POLICY IN INCREASING THE VALUE OF HUMAN CAPITAL STOCK IN ALBANIA.

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ABSTRACT

This paper raises the question: "How much the economic policy of the government affects the growth of the value of human capital stock in Albania". It does a survey of four key elements of the government's economic policy in recent years, namely: the employment policies, the education policies, health care policies, and state insurance policies.

The analysis of the expenditures and investments made in these areas enables to reveal the direct and indirect relationship of these elements to the indicator 'value of the human capital'.

In the methodological aspect, the research is based on the classic forms of assessing how the social and health policy does impact the value of the human capital stock. The study distinguishes the relevant benefiting age groups, focusing particularly on the ages of 7-24 for the impact of education; ages 65-85 for social and health insurance policies and ages 45-55 for employment stimulation policies. This choice comes from the fact that the budgets related to these policies have been drafted taking in consideration the above-mentioned social groups. Consequently, efforts have been made to approximate the Albanian statistical calculations according to the J-F protocol algorithm, with the dynamics of these policies in the last 6 years.

KEY WORDS:

Value of capital stock, employment reforms, opening of health market, development multiplier, Happiness economics

Among the most novel indicators that determine the development potentiality of an economy is "the value of the human capital stock". There are many macroeconomic recommendations that this indicator should be considered as an important standard of a country's national statistics, because it calculates a potential development trend of a generation and of a whole nation over time. Nowadays it has become a prominent indicator of importance in the actual assessment of a society, as well as an indicator of its potentiality for development.

HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF THE CONCEPT

The concept of human capital is ancient in the theory of economic thought, although its numerical evaluation has been introduced only in the last decades. It became especially important after the 2000s when it was officially classified as an indicator not only of economic development, but of social welfare too.

Among different designations of this concept, we follow the definition made by the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development in the 2001 treaty, which describes it as follows:

"Human capital is considered to be the entirety of man's individual knowledge, skills, competencies and attributes that facilitate the creation of personal, social and economic well-being."(OECD, 2012)

At a first glance it appears that human capital is a product of individual and genetic features of humans. Nevertheless, all the surveys reveal that in some way it is not only a genetic element but also social production that, like all forms of capital, is accumulated and increased (Schultz, 1961). It is this feature that associates this concept firstly with education, employment, social policies of the government for social and health protection. In this aspect, it is one of the key elements related to the government development policies on one hand and market dynamics on the other. Because of the relations with the governmental development policies, its own dynamics expresses the potential of a country's market development as well as the growth of the set of parameters of quality assessment of its citizens' lives.

Over the past 20 years, the economists' efforts to set up various macroeconomic indicators which determine the degree of satisfaction of a country's population have been increasing (Gibson & Oxley, 2006), (Li, 2010), (Liu, 2011). There are different theories evolved about this, but everyone recognizes a prominent difference between the value of the stock of human capital and the level of social satisfaction of a country's population. If the first concept is represented by a number and there is a certain protocol for measuring it, there are many attempts to calculate the second one, but there is still a lack of a measurement protocol approved by the relevant institutions and an international comparison base.

The concept of social happiness is widely treated in social psychology as a perception of the satisfaction level of the population in a given country. As declared by Stiglitz (Financial Times, 2009), the French President Nicolas Sarkozy established a commission with eminent economists conducted by Nobel laureate Joseph Stiglitz

to develop other economic indices of happiness outside the classic concept of GDP or “Human capital stock value”. This commission did take into account a new indicator called GDH (Gross Domestic Happiness) that has been used in the state of Bhutan, in the Himalaya to replace the GDP and that was considered by the Prime Minister Jigmi Y. Thinley as of a greater importance than the economic indicators. (The Guardian, 2012).

GDH (Gross Domestic Happiness) is an indicator for which there is no defined assessment protocol, but everyone accepts that it is related to four key elements:

- The ecologically supported sustainable development
- The development of education as a function of rising social conscience
- The extinction of fear and the re-conception of freedom
- The evaluation of time as a function of perspective.

Among the four above mentioned indicators none of them is of pure economic sense. However, these indices indirectly do assess the civic behavior influenced by external economic elements. The only conclusion the “Sarkozy Commission” could draw was that in the countries where the public administration worked better, the population felt happier. The comparison between the “Human Capital Stock Value” and the GDH (Gross Domestic Happiness) is done not only to figure out new statistical evaluation systems of economic developments, but also to analyze the historical difference of a protocolled indicator with a non-protocolled but evidenced one. The measurement of the indices related to the development potentials and the level of civic satisfaction is a signal of the change in the classical economic assessment, as well as a sign of the expansion of the economic progress concept.

METHODOLOGY

Many researchers nowadays do dedicate an important attention to the “Human capital stock value” among others, when analyzing factors and development opportunities. According to literature sources (WB, 2007), (Nosvelli, 2009), the World Bank for the first time made evident in 2006 four methods for calculating the value of human capital as follows:

- Calculation based on the cost of education. (cost-based)
- Calculation based on the ability to generate income. (income-based)
- Calculation based on the effectiveness of the education process (all levels)
- Calculation based on the cost of raising and educating children aged 0-26.

After 2008, many countries have engaged special public units to calculate the value of human capital and all accepted the so-called Jorgenson-Fraumeni protocol (known as the JF method), which is an analytical calculation of the incomes generated by the individual for all working years at full value (full labor compensation) (Jorgenson & Fraumeni, 1992a, 1992b). A better understanding of this methodology can be achieved considering these key elements:

To calculate a person’s life cycle in the methodological aspect of the study, in countries where the retirement age is determined by law, the population is classified as follows (as the value of human capital stock):

- Age group 0-4 years old, where there is neither education nor employment
- Age group from 4 to 15 years old, where it’s education only
- Age group from 16 to 40, where it is education and work
- Age group 40-67, where it’s only work
- Age group over 68, where it’s only retirement.

The above age groups are classified as the life span corresponding to working age and the time of life outside the labor market. Since the first and second groups are out of the labor market/ working age and do not generate incomes, the calculation of the value of human capital stock is impossible with the income method. Consequently, it is generally accepted that direct calculation of capital stock value should consider the population of group 16-67 years old and over 68, for the incomes from pensions.

To approximate the calculations in respect to the methodological use of the formula, it is more correct to divide the age group 16-40 from the 40-67, because for the first one there might be education and job as well, while for the second age group there is only job during that part of the lifespan. This means that we have two different algorithms for these age groups and two different scores in terms of value.

All algorithms used in the estimation of the stock of human capital belong to the descending system from the highest level. For instance, for a 75-years old person (average life span), the income of the 75th year of life in the calendar year 2017 is A, while those for 2018 (next year) is equal to zero. For a 74 years old income in 2017 is A, while in 2016 it is B. For a 73 years old income for the next two years are A + B and C for the year 2015. Following this system all the groups with the same level of education, but different ages have an individual value with the real income of the current year and a future income value equal to the oldest people in the same education group. This formula is valid to measure the value of the human capital stock in 2017 for all persons in a country that in that year range from 0 to 75-years old, where the value of the 75-years old stock is added to the one of the 74 years old and so on.

This is presented in the following formula:

$$LIN_{age}^{edu} = EMR_{age}^{edu} * AIN_{age}^{edu} + SUR_{age+1} + LIN_{age+1}^{edu} \{ (1+r) / (1+\delta) \}$$

LIN_{age}^{edu} - is the present value of income from work, for individuals with education level (edu), at age(age) as the amount of expected income realized in the working life cycle;

EMR_{age}^{edu} - is the level of employment of persons with education level (edu) at age (age);

AIN_{age}^{edu} - is the actual income (as income statement) for individuals with education level (edu) at age (age);

SUR_{age+1} - is the probability to live a year longer (age + 1);

LIN_{age+1}^{edu} - is the present value of income from work for an individual with the same level of education but one year older;

r - is the forecast of the annual growth rate of future labor income (in real terms) for a

person with these characteristics

δ - is the forecast of annual inflation rate in the future (in real terms).

The protocol for measuring the value of the human capital stock considers not only the labor income (generated during working time), but also the income generated by the productive exploitation of hours beyond work time (off-labor income). The methodology in this case is even more complicated and is calculated using the relationship of the two elements wage / revenue in off-labor activities. The methods mostly used for this calculation, according to economic literature, are:

1. Opportunity Cost Method (indirectly measurable)
2. Replacement Cost Method (comparatively measurable).

The opportunity cost method relies on the principle of assessing the added value of working time (which determines market income) that is conditioned by use of non-working time. For instance, physical exercise (non-work time) potentially influence working time with an increase in productivity. Hence, even though no direct income is generated for this time-period, additional income is generated at the working time. Theoretically, health welfare (as the value of rest time) at worst is equal to the value of the work productivity increase. In fact, this method is nothing more than a way of finding an indirect equivalent assessment for an element that can't be directly assessed. Consequently, it bears all the error' elements that contain the statistical methods of calculation based on comparative evaluation methods (J & F, 1992a, 1992b).

The replacement cost method relies on another valuation, namely the assessment of the outcomes from off-labor market activities by the possible cost of its realization from a market subject that provides this service. The hours a person uses for house chores can be estimated by the value of a housemaid, or the value of the working time a person spends to make a hydraulic adjustment at home is equivalent to the cost of paying a plumber for this job (d'Ercole, 2012), (Liu, 2011).

The above methods both require statistical data relating to the use of leisure time, which might be provided by complex surveys based on age, the level of education, gender and other characteristics of the population.

Using the above-mentioned protocols and many highly-polled surveys and studies in this regard, many developed countries have determined the value of the human capital stock over a given period of time. It is a common use that the key factors determining the level of human capital value of a country are:

- Educational level and professional qualification of the population realized at certain milestones of the working cycle.
- The level of health care and life quality indicators of a country's population.
- The level of economic development and its standard evaluation indicators.
- The population structure, its average age and the probability of extending the life cycle.
- Social and employment policies and the creation of facilities for the initiation and consolidation of new businesses.

The above discussion tried to present the methodology for human capital measuring under the J & F protocol and factual forms of calculating this indicator from the specialized institutions in developed countries. Albania is missing this experience. INSTAT (Institute of Statistics) has not yet taken real steps to calculate the value of human capital stock, consequently any effort to make such calculation does not comply with any relevant protocol.

*Efforts to calculate indirectly the value of human capital stock in Albania
Develop of an alternative indicator.*

Human capital stock value in Albania has not yet been calculated and the implementation of the measurement protocol of this indicator has many difficulties, not only related to the application of measuring algorithms but also to the definition of the data which can be included. The inability to complete all the data of the J & F formula for estimating the stock of human capital, has encouraged us to the development of an indicator that comes closer to the value of human capital stock, but it is not rigorously calculated with the protocol of this indicator as above described. The attempts are done to compile an indicator that could reflect how much income an Albanian individual could generate throughout his/her life.

The first question raised related to the concept of the value of human capital stock is: "How much income a 29-year-old average citizen in 2017 will earn for the next 38 years until he retires?" We have chosen the 29-year-old because in the statistical classification of labor force participation defined by INSTAT the population is classified in two groups: 15-29 years old and 30-67 years old (INSTAT, 2018). The first group consists of persons who have a job and study, whereas in the second group people are mainly only working. On the other hand, according to the existing laws in 2017, the retirement age in Albania is 67.

The second question is: "How much income do Albanians aged 16-29 years generate?" The method of calculating the potential earnings that this group generates is related to the age group methodologies that study and work at the same time. The analysis below has used data from INSTAT related to students enrolled in public and private secondary education schools, and higher education at the first and second levels of study. Participation in the workforce of this group is already analytically determined in the relevant labor force survey calculated by INSTAT.

The third question is: "How much income do Albanians make by the time they retire to the age of 75?" In answering these questions, we have taken into account the average pension any Albanian retired in 2017 gets, and the amount received in the same year by those who get pension in their 75-th year of life.

The fourth question is: "Is it possible to determine the value generated by Albanians aged 0-16 years based on the social costs of raising this age-group?"

Our estimation of the indicator that indirectly assesses the potential of the Albanian population to generate income during its life will be supported by the following judgement and argumentation:

1. Regarding the group of 16-67 years: the degree of participation in the workforce

of the Albanian population as per the INSTAT classification for the 16-67 age group, is reported through a two-step division, 16-29 and 30-67 years old. The participation of the first age-group in the labor force from 2015 to the end of 2018 is on average 46.5%, while for the second age-group it is on average 76.5% for the same period. The Labor Force Surveys, Tr.1.2015-Tr.4.2018 published by INSTAT, announces that participation in the working force for the population group 15-67 is on average 66.4% (INSTAT, 2018). Based on this data and estimating the fact that in the classification of our system for both groups we do not have analytical data on the average salary level for each group, we have made all the calculations by mean of an average level salary. Since the participation level/ percentage in the labor force for these groups is different, the value of the labor income for the demographic range of these groups will be different. Specifically, for the age group 16-29, only 5 out of 10 people work and the income of 5 persons as an estimate of the group's earnings is distributed to 10 persons, whereas for the age group of 29-67, there are 8 out of 10 people that work, and their income is distributed to 10. Therefore, even if the average salary is equal between both groups, the income value generated by each group is different. In this respect, we have partial compliance with the J & F algorithm, even though this compliance is not based on the figures, but on the methodology.

2. Since the basis of our calculation is a 29-year-old citizen in 2017, the indicator that will be derived from this study is a value that belongs to this year. In this respect, the potential earnings of this 29-year-old citizen will be calculated until retirement based on the average salary of this year, the average annual pension of that year and the average longevity of Albanians in the same year. Thus, starting from the average salary of 2017, we should calculate the income from the work of the 29 years old up to 2050, the income of the pensioners up to 2025, the budget expenditures for kindergartens from 2012 to 2017 and the budget expenditures for education and health in 2005-2017.
3. The calculations are based on the number of Albanian people living in the country, as determined by INSTAT in 2017. The time value of money is considered in order to calculate the income that can be provided with the average salary of a 29-years old by year 2050. It has been processed with the macroeconomic parameters defined below.
4. The underpinning to our calculations were some data for the next 30 years that are important for the progress of the Albanian economy, more specifically:
 - The average annual growth of the Albanian economy for the next 30 years is 1.3%. (INSTAT, 2018).
 - The average rate of inflation for the next 30 years is 2.8%. (Celiku et al., BSH, 2010)
 - Long-term treasury bill interest for the next 30 years is 6.3%. (Cani & Haderi, BSH, 2002)

These forecasted indicators are provided from studies conducted by governmental entities or prominent Albanian specialists and they have derived from well-known statistical methods.

5. In order to compile a statistical indicator comparable to the concept of the value of human capital stock by age groups, we have calculated the income that Albanians can generate in 2017 as follows:

- Based on the average salary of 2017, according to the time value method we have calculated the probable income of a 29 years old until his/her retirement age that by law was 67.
- Based on the average pension level in 2017, according to the time value method we have calculated the probable income of a 67 years old until the 75th year of his/her retirement.
- After correcting the average salary according to the participation in the working forces of the age group 16-29, we have calculated the expected income of this age group and added this value to the budget and private expenditures for the high and higher education for the years 2004-2017 divided by number of pupils and students.
- For the age group 0-5 years we have used the comparative cost method according to the level of budgets for private and state pre-school education for the years 2012-2017.
- For the age of 6-16 we have calculated the incomes according to the comparative cost estimates of primary education (9 years of education) expenditure for the years 2012-2017 divided by the number of pupils.

Based on the above data, the indicator for "human capital stock value" in Albania for 2017 is approximately 16,250,000 Leke (ALL). This is a totally personal assessment that will certainly change with the perfection of the measuring systems of this concept. We do not pretend to provide the accurate value of human capital stock in Albania, but to approximate a figure that can create the idea of the value of this indicator. In this respect, the number resulting from our estimates falls into an interval of plus - minus 10%, which is affected by the potential change of the above-mentioned factors and the probability of their impact.

STUDY LIMITATIONS

We defined at the beginning that this is the first attempt to compile an indicator that serves the meaning of "the value of the stock of human capital in Albania". The main elements that limit the study methodology and its result among others are:

- a. The age groups defined by our calculating system can't be fully matched with those of the J & F algorithm, but the calculating character is incorporated. It is true that the income tax calculations have not taken into consideration the inequalities of income that come from the educational level. It was almost impossible to add this factor to our calculations. Until today in Albania, there are no analytical data which correlate the degree of education to wages. We accept that this calculation has an error degree, which is higher for the group of 16-29 years old, whereas for the group over the age of 50 is much less sensitive. Once work experience becomes an important element of the work value, the impact of the education factor is far less significant.
- b. Taking the average salaries as the basis of income from work, we have actually seen the direct impact of age on wages, but on an average level. This does not mean that the same person named A.B. who was employed in 2001 in the private sector, earned a wage of 13,355 Lek (ALL) and in 2018 this same employee had a monthly

salary of 50,589 Lek (ALL). These are data on the average wages and hide the “average error”. In this respect, we are biased from the J & F system, where the income of a 67-years old with x education having y income, means it in real terms in 2017. In our system, the income of the 67-years old is calculated as the expected wage of the 29 years old in 2050.

- c. If we have a figure that determines the expected value created as income from Albanians for the four age groups, then we can say that we have compiled an indicator that can approximate the economic value of the human capital stock in Albania. Surely, we are dealing with a complicated concept of the time value of money, which is conditioned by the macroeconomic dynamics of the country and several other macroeconomic factors. All these factors will affect the result in different ways and magnitudes and will condition the variation of the value in an interval. Based on a forecast, the real value of the output is more predicted than estimated.
- d. The main difference of our indicator from the value of the human capital stock calculated by other institutions is that this calculation is outside the established protocols and tries to create data rather than administer them. This is the difference between calculation and estimation, where the first administers and delivers results, while the second creates the data and tries to prove their validity.

THE IMPACT OF GOVERNMENT POLICIES ON THE VALUE OF HUMAN CAPITAL STOCK.

The employment policy has been one of the main factors that has affected the value of human capital in Albania. From 2014 until the end of 2018, there is a gradual increase in the level of employment, but the most positive elements appeared at the end of 2017, when for the first time in the last 20 years the employment growth was higher than the increase of economic growth (Survey of the work force, INSTAT, 2018). On this basis, we can say that the value of human capital stock for the age group up to 45, which is very vulnerable to employment, has risen more than this figure. The main employment factors that influenced the value of the human capital stock are as follows:

- Growth of employment in agriculture in the age group 45-55. Agricultural sector development was extensive but also intensive, especially in some products where export growth focused on agricultural capital and investment in production tools. The development of agriculture, as it occupied most of the workforce, curtailed the phenomenon of internal migration and alleviated social problems in the village.
- Boost to the formalization of the economy. Changes in the tax system by business structures not only restricted informality in the Albanian business, but also limited the possibility of informality in the labor market. In the last two reports of the Labor Inspectorate, for 2016 and 2017, there is a significant reduction in informality that directly has increased the estimated income of the population (Labor Inspectorate, 2017, 2018).

Compiling policies that stimulate the growth of innovative ventures with Guarantee Funds for all those individuals or businesses that sought to enlarge their business. This policy had the main purpose to stimulate mostly the business activity in the field of production with the aim of enabling systematic industrialization of the country and internationalization of Albanian businesses. A faster growth of medium and large

businesses in the last two years has undoubtedly brought about a positive pressure on consumer growth as well.

Another factor that led to the increase in the value of human capital stock in Albania has been *government policy related to vocational education and active employment policies*. Several elements have had vital influence, precisely:

During last years a major development occurred in the vocational education. Both the number of vocational schools and the number of students attending them was expanded. Data from the MASR indicate that only in 2017, compared to 2016, vocational schools increased by 40% and the number of students by 45% (MASR, 2018). The full effects of this policy will be noticeable in the coming years, but some key tendencies have by now emerged.

Financing employment policies is another element which reformed the existing employment strategy. The establishment of the Employment and Training Fund, the strengthening of the role of the National Labor Council, the establishment of the National Council for Employment and AFP, the establishment and functioning of sectoral committees were important steps to strengthen the governance of the labor market. The new organization of labor offices restructured the use of funds for active employment policies and changed, especially for the ages 35-45, the value of human capital in Albania.

Another factor that has led to the increase of the value of human capital stock in Albania has been *governmental policy regarding public health and public partnership* in this regard. It is worth mentioning:

Public - private partnership in health sector brought about a revolution in the disease prevention system, screening the chronic elements of the population, and defining the main directions of effective health policies.

Cooperation with the private sector in primary health services and the reform of the medicine financing system led to the reduction of the unit health service costs, but also to the increase in the number of free services. Especially for the 55-65 age group, this influenced the real change in the stock of human capital before retirement.

Another factor that has led to the increase in the value of human capital stock in Albania has been government policy regarding the vulnerable group of individuals and the fight against social diversification. Although these are elements of social culture and every policy applied to them requires time, the first results are particularly noticeable to racial integration in schools and state administration.

In conclusion, we would like to clarify here that the “value of human capital stock” in Albania does not belong to someone in particular, it has no name or surname, but it belongs to the Albanians in general, which we do not divide in rich and poor people, neither in well-educated and non-educated ones, but in happy and unhappy ones.

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Perceptions and Attitudes of Undergraduate Students of Sociology towards Research Methods as a Course in Kogi State University, Anyigba, Nigeria

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ABSTRACT

This study was conducted to find out the views and attitudes of undergraduate students of Sociology towards research methods as a course in Kogi State University, Anyigba, Nigeria. The sample comprises those 2017/2018 third year undergraduate students of sociology at the institution, who registered and sat for the examination of the course (Soc 301). Data were collected through in-depth interviews; and the data were content analysed (manually). Findings of the study reveal that respondents perceived the course as though complex, technical and stressful but interesting, educative and beneficial. These views were however discovered to be due to the positive attitude respondents have towards the course. While this attitude appears commendable, the university management still needs to pay particular attention to the sustenance of the attitude through further provision of conducive and attractive learning environment as well as appropriate instructional materials, as these will help to impact profoundly on the students learning the course and other courses. Further, research methods teachers need to always make the teaching of the course interesting and practical to stimulate learning. Finally, students at all time need to be diligent and serious with the course so as to become better researchers and good sociologists in future.

KEYWORDS:

Perceptions, Attitudes, Undergraduate students, Research methods, Nigeria

1.0 INTRODUCTION

One of the compulsory courses any undergraduate student in Nigerian universities must register for and pass is research methods. Conceptually, research methods are the strategies, processes or techniques utilized in the collection of data for analysis in order to uncover new information necessary for better understanding of an issue (Smith, 1991). Research methods as a course cover a wide range of topics from philosophical, theoretical, statistical to practical dimensions (Schutt, Blalock & Wagenaar, 1984; Akuezuilo, 2002). Specifically, the course is meant to enlightening students on the techniques used in identifying social problems, formulating hypothesis, conducting and using data gathering instruments, designing research studies, employing statistical procedures to analyse data, and interpreting and presenting research reports (Schutt, et al, 1984; Akuezuilo, 2002).

Despite the importance of the course, research by Leming (1979); Wagenaar (1982); Denham (1997); Ball & Pelco (2006); and Ekmekci, *et al* (2012) have shown that many students hate the course (due to its technical complexity) and the hatred is further increased when they see the statistical component of the research methods. However, the ease of understanding any course depends on students' perception and attitude towards the course. Students' perception here means students opinion towards research method as a course. Individual opinion is a function of factors such as individual personal characteristics such as attitudes, motives, interest, experience, expectation, etc; factors which are within the things to be perceived (novelty, motion, proximity, sound, size, and background; and characteristics of the situation (time, work setting and social setting) (Fiske & Taylor, 1991; Gilbert, 1995; and Gross, 2010). Students' attitudes, on the other hand, refer to students' feeling/behaviour towards the course. Students' attitude towards learning has been found by Helder, 1946; Evans, 1965; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975; and Ying & Ching, 1991; to be a function of motivation students got from teacher/parent, readiness to learn, organization of memory of what was learned, learning environment (comprising of sufficient learning resources or lack of it and access to the resources), and students day to day activities while in school. Students' attitude towards learning may be positive or negative. Whatever nature of attitudes formed by the students may determine their confidence in learning.

Although, investigation into the students' perceptions and attitudes towards research methods as a course have been conducted in developed countries (Schutt, *et al*, 1984; Ball & Pelco, 2006; Sizemore & Lewandowski, 2009, Ekmekci, Hancock & Swayzia, 2012; and Anthea, 2017), but the urgency of attaining technological advancement through research in developing countries including Nigeria call for more studies as research methods as a course may help students to acquire knowledge on ways of investigating any technological issue, collecting data, analyzing and presenting results and drawing conclusion. This study is thus conceived to make a contribution on this important subject, and it will however be done with particular reference to undergraduate students of Sociology in Kogi State University, Anyigba, Nigeria, with the specific objectives of investigating the perception and attitudes of Sociology undergraduate students towards research methods as a course.

This study is significant theoretically and practically. Theoretically, it will contribute to existing literature on views and attitudes of undergraduate students towards research methods as a course. Practically, it will help university administrators, research method teachers and students to have a better idea of improving teaching and learning of research methods in higher institutions.

2.0 METHODOLOGY

The study was carried out at Kogi State University, Anyigba between November-December, 2018. The institution was established in 1999 by the Kogi State Government. As regards academic matters, the institution commenced academic activities with six faculties namely Agriculture, Arts and Humanities, Law, Management Sciences, Natural Sciences and Social Sciences; but currently, two faculties have been added including Faculties of Education and Health Sciences. This is in addition to the establishment of the Postgraduate school and the centre for Pre-Degree and Diploma Studies. The university offers courses such as Law, Sociology, Biochemistry, History and International Studies, Food Sciences Technology, Accounting, etc (Kogi State University Students' Information Handbook, 2016). Kogi State University is chosen for this study because it is one of the universities in Nigeria where undergraduate students are being taught research methods as a course.

As regards research design, study population, sample size and sampling technique, the study used both case study and descriptive research designs with qualitative approach. The case study design is apt because the study focused solely on research methods as a course being offered by undergraduate students; while the descriptive design helped in making a description of students' views and attitudes towards learning of research methods. The study population comprises of all the 2017/2018 third year undergraduate students of sociology (the choice of only the third year undergraduate students of sociology was because research methods is a 300 level course in the Sociology department at Kogi State University) totaling two hundred and eighty three (283). However, to qualify as sample the students had to have registered and sat for the examination of the course (Soc 301). Those meeting these criteria totaled two hundred and seventy eight (278) and were chosen as sample for the study using purposive sampling technique.

With regards to methods of data collection and analysis, data were collected using in-depth interviews (IDIs). The rationale for choosing this method is to be able to gather in-depth information about the issue under investigation. The interview guide designed was structural in nature and it contained themes relating to the objectives of the study. The instrument was pilot tested (in other departments different from the one chosen for the study). The pilot study helped locate ambiguities, flaws and inadequacies in the interview guide. Pilot data that were collected were content analysed and the results were used to modify the interview guide. During the actual interview, data collected were recorded on audio tape and attention was equally given to body language as well as non-verbal responses of the respondents. With regards to data analysis, raw data from the interviews were sorted, transcribed and categorized

into the objectives of the study they match. Content analysis of the transcribed interview was thereafter done manually; also verbatim quotations of the participants' response were done where necessary. As regard ethical consideration, the permission of the Head of Sociology Department was sought before talking to students. Before the actual interview, the consent of students was also sought and the information that was collected was treated confidentially.

3.0 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The results presented are in two parts. Part A centers on the respondents social demographic characteristics while Part B focuses on the objectives of the study.

Table 1: Socio-Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents (N=278)

Gender		
Male	101	36.3
Female	177	63.3
Age (in years)		
Less than 18 years	03	1.1
18-20	69	24.8
21-23	79	28.4
24-26	57	20.5
27-29	68	24.5
30 and above	02	0.7
Religious Affiliation		
Christian	101	36.3
Islam	98	35.3
Traditional African Religion	79	28.4
Ethnic Group		
Igala	126	45.3
Yoruba	89	32.0
Ebira	53	19.1
Others	10	3.6
Residence		
Hostel	119	42.8
Off-campus	159	57.2

Source: Field Survey, 2018

Table 1 shows the socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents. From the table, majority (63.7%) of the respondents were female while the remaining (36.3%) were male. This finding shows that female than male prefers courses that are theoretical in nature than calculative courses. The respondents' age shows that most (28.4%) were between ages of 21-23 years, about 24.8 percent were between ages of 18-20 years, 24.5 percent were between ages of 27-29 years, while 20.5 percents were between ages of 24-26 years. This finding clearly shows that most of the students were

young adults capable of learning. As regards religious affiliation of the respondents, most (36.3%) of them were Christian, 35.3 percent were Muslim while the remaining 28.4 percent belong to various traditional African religions. With regards to the ethnic grouping of the respondents, most (45.3%) of them were Igala, about 32.0 percent were Yoruba, 19.1 percent were Ebira while the remaining 3.6 percent were from other ethnic groups in Nigeria. As regards respondents' residence, majority (57.2%) resided off-campus while the remaining 42.8 percent resided at the University hostels. This finding shows that there is insufficient hall of residence in the institution.

All in all, the socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents' shows that majority of them were male, aged between 21-23 years, practices Christianity, belonged to Igala ethnic group and resides off-campus.

In addition to the foregoing, enquiries were made from some of the respondents through interviews about their views towards research methods as a course. The results of the interviews show that there was a consensus among the respondents that the course though technical and systematic, is an interesting and educative one. For example, one of the respondents states that:

I see research methods as an educative course that has helped me to understand the nitty-gritty of research. For instance, through the course, I have been able to learn different research concepts as well as know how to formulate research questions, objectives and hypotheses. The course also gave me the idea of the distinction between general and specific objectives as well as how to appraise my research objectives. In addition, the course has made me to understand the meaning of research design and its various types, as well as when and where to use each of the designs. Further, the course has enabled me to have the knowledge of how to collect, collate, analyse, present and report data on human behaviour. As it is now, with the knowledge I have acquired through the course I can carry out research without any fear or intimidation either for the advancement of knowledge or for profitable socio-economic gains.

Male Respondent /23 years/IDI/Sociology/Anyigba.

Another respondent submitted thus:

Rresearch methods is a technical course which has positively influenced me in a number of ways. For instance, it has enlightened me on how to use two or more methods in the study of the same phenomenon (triangulation). It has also given me the idea of the purpose and various dimensions of triangulation. In addition, the course has helped me to have the idea of units of analysis (those items/objects that are subject to graphic descriptive assessment, elaboration or expatiation) in research. Further, the course has given me the idea of how to explain the cause and effect of events that are occurring within our social milieu.

Female Respondent /26 years/IDI/Sociology/Anyigba.



The response above is corroborated by another respondent who sees research methods as a complex course. In the words of the respondent:

This course is a complex course and not so easy to understand unless one take one's time, but the most interesting part of it is that the course was handled by an intelligent lecturer who tried his best to bring out the best in us (students). He lectured us well, and now I find it very easy to understand research concepts such as population (which may be people, events, animal and objects), sample (a portion of population), and methods of sample selection (probability and non-probability techniques). The course has also enabled me to know some of the ethical principles and statistical issues associated with research work. In sum, the course will not only help me in carrying out my final year research project in scientific way but also help me in my entire future endeavour.

Male Respondent /27 years/IDI/Sociology/Anyigba.

Another respondent also noted that:

I see research methods course as a stressful one because of the many issues associated with it. For instance, during the lectured of the course I was told of the need to always systematically review related literature in any research work. I was also told to always discuss my research findings objectively and accurately in relation to my research objectives and literature reviewed. Although doing these are good but come with stress.

Male Respondent /24 years/IDI/Sociology/Anyigba.

In sum, the views expressed above by the respondents indicate that research methods as a course though complex, technical and stressful but interesting, educative and beneficial as it has increased the knowledge base of the respondents on the basic steps and procedures to follow in research work.

On the factors that informed respondent's views, all of them mentioned experience; that the experience they had in the course of the lecture of the course informed the view they expressed about the course. These finding conform to that of Fiske & Taylor (1991); Gilbert (1995); and Gross (2010). These scholars in their various studies discovered individual experience as one of the factors influencing people opinion on issues/subjects.

With regards to respondents attitudes towards research methods as a course, findings from the interview conducted revealed that majority of the respondents have positive attitude towards the course. In the words of one of the respondents:

My attitude toward the course is positive. I took the course seriously and diligently because I believe it is a course that will help me become a better sociologist.

Male Respondent /21 years/IDI/Sociology/Anyigba.

Another respondent averred thus:

Initially I had a negative attitude towards the course but when I started attending the lectures, the subject matter of the course became clearer to me and I then decided not to miss any of the lectures nor allowed to be distracted by any of my course mates

Female Respondent /26 years/IDI/Sociology/Anyigba.

The view expressed above is further corroborated by another respondent who stated that:

My attitude at first was negative. I felt it was going to be impossible for me to understand and pass the course. But as time went by it became interesting to me and I later developed a positive mindset towards the course.

Male Respondent /24 years/IDI/Sociology/Anyigba.

A 24 year old female respondents also had this to say:

My attitude toward the course was a positive one because I like the course and the way it was taught by the course lecturer. That was the reason I never for once missed the lecture.

Female Respondents /24 years/IDI/Sociology/Anyigba.

The various views expressed above show that respondents have positive attitudes towards research method as a course. The findings of this study however contradict that of Ball & Pelco (2006); and Ekmekeci, *et al* (2012). These scholars in their various studies found that many students hate research methods as a course and these were due to the technical complexity and the statistical component of the course. The difference in findings of this current study and that of the previous scholars is however due to differences in research setting.

To further ascertain the positive attitude claimed by the respondents toward research methods as a course, their performance in the course first semester examination (2017/18 session) was examined. Out of the two hundred and seventy eight (278) respondents that registered and sat for the examination, about 268 respondents (representing 96.4%) passed while the remaining 10 respondents (representing 3.6%) failed. Among those that passed, 19 respondents (representing 6.8%) scored A, 81 respondents (representing 29.1%) scored B, 94 respondents (representing 33.8%) scored C, while the remaining 74 respondents (representing 26.6%) scored D. These performances, according to the enquiries made, was due to the respondents positive attitude towards the course, appropriate teaching methods adopted by the research lecturer, and presence of resources such as books, teaching aids, etc in the school. Further enquiries were made from the respondents that failed the course on reasons for their failing. The results of the inquiry revealed respondents lack of interest in

research methods as a course, difficulty in understanding the concept used by the research lecturer and lack of confidence in the ability to learn and perform well in the course.

4.0 CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This study examined the perceptions and attitudes of undergraduate students of sociology towards research methods as a course in Kogi State University, Anyigba, Nigeria. Findings of the study reveal that respondents perceived the course as though complex, technical and stressful but interesting, educative and beneficial. These views were however discovered to be due to the positive attitude respondents have towards the course. Respondents' performance in the 2017/2018 first semester examination of the course was also examined to confirm the forgoing findings and the results show that 96.4% of the respondents passed the course with grades ranging from A to D and the remaining 3.6% failed. While this attitude appears commendable, the university management still needs to pay particular attention to the sustenance of the attitude through the provision of conducive and attractive learning environment as well as appropriate instructional materials, as these will help to impact profoundly on the students learning the course and other courses. Further, research methods teachers need to always make the teaching of the course interesting and practical to stimulate learning. Finally, students at all time need to be diligent and serious with the course so as to become better researchers and good sociologists in future.

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L1 to L2 Translation Practices in Foreign Language Teacher Education: Student Teachers' Views

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to elicit student teachers' views regarding the translation practices they were engaged in within the content of a compulsory 'L1 to L2 translation' course. During a 12-week translation class in 2018 Spring semester, 22 student teachers were asked to translate different types of texts: literary texts, recipes, magazine articles, official documents, and oral texts. They also deal with different translation practices such as prepared translation, unprepared in-class translation with and without dictionaries or online translation tools, constructing multiple-choice translation test items, and oral translation. At the end of the training, the student teachers were asked to rank those different practices and text types according to their usefulness and difficulty. They were also asked to explain their reasons for those ideas. The quantitative and qualitative analyses of the obtained data showed that each translation practice and each text type had its advantages and disadvantages for student teachers in their way to become foreign language teachers. A number of suggestions and implications are also provided for student teachers and teacher trainers for the translation courses in teacher education programs.

KEYWORDS:

translation, foreign language, teacher education, student teachers

1. INTRODUCTION

Translation from one language to another is a complex phenomenon. In particular, translating from the native language (L1) into a foreign language (L2) is a reasonably more demanding task for language learners. Nevertheless, it is a required skill especially for the ones who are foreign language teacher candidates, and all over the globe, translation courses are given to language learners and language teacher candidates. The difficulty of translation lies on the ground that it entails a comprehensive expertise in the languages of translation (either L1 to L2 or L2 to L1) for their syntactic, semantic and pragmatic assets as well as a certain degree of inspiration and imagination (Zengin & Kaçar, 2011).

A famous discussion concerning the role of translation in language-related work is Grammar-Translation Method for language teaching vs. use of translation as a L2 learning practice in foreign language contexts. Although the former views translation as an end, the latter takes it as a useful means. In point of fact, Carreeres (2006: 5) summarizes the oppositions related to the use of translation as a language teaching device as follows:

1. Translation is an artificial, stilted exercise that has no place in a communicative methodology. Also, it is restrictive in that it confines language practice to two skills only (reading and writing).
2. Translation into L2 is counterproductive in that it forces learners to view the foreign language always through the prism of their mother tongue; this causes interferences and a dependence on L1 that inhibits free expression in L2.
3. Translation into L2 is a wholly purposeless exercise that has no application in the real world, since translators normally operate into and not out of their mother tongue.
4. Translation and translation into L2 in particular are frustrating and de-motivating exercises in that the student can never attain the level of accuracy or stylistic polish of the version presented to them by their teacher. It seems an exercise designed to elicit mistakes, rather than accurate use of language.
5. Translation is a method that may well work with literary-oriented learners who enjoy probing the intricacies of grammar and lexis, but it is unsuited to the average learner.

The use of translation in language learning teaching, on the other hand, is favored thanks to certain elements it holds for the language learners, especially the L2 learners. According to Calis and Dikilitas (2012), translation gives students the opportunities to compare and contrast the L1 and L2, which consequently results in more cognitive, memory, compensation and social strategy use by L2 learners. Moreover, translation is a useful tool for vocabulary gain and awareness (Koletnik, 2015). Furthermore, a recent study has revealed that FL teacher candidates use translation extensively as a learning strategy for understanding the meaning of a word or grammatical structure throughout the process of FL learning (Pekkanlı, 2012).

Considering the role of translation in language teaching and teacher training, the methods to provide this training is also an important issue. At university level teaching,



teacher training in this case, translation might be viewed as a theoretical or a practical activity, or both. According to Viaggio (1994: 97), translation theory should be taught “at the university, where the theoretical rationale of the practical do’s and don’t’s is to be learned”. However, (Gile 1995: 12) ascertains that “the usefulness of such theoretical courses is often challenged on the grounds that they are too abstract or remote from actual translation practice and are therefore not useful to students”. Hence, it might be a far better idea to provide translation students /the teacher candidates) with a translation course which is rather based on hands-on experience.

Even though a practice-based translation training is approved by scholars, teachers, teacher trainers, and most importantly students, what sort of texts and which translation methods should be used are the two unanswered questions. In many institutions, to our knowledge and experience, translation teachers select some texts for in-class translation, assign them to the students weekly, students translate those texts at home and bring to class, and finally the translated texts are discussed sentence-by-sentence under the moderation of the class teacher. However, especially after the appearance of online translation tools on the web, students are not spending the necessary effort on translation: copy the text, paste it on the screen, press ‘translate’, and paste the result on the paper. Despite other forms of translation instruction are also possible (i.e. oral translation, unprepared translation, etc.), no specific inquiry has been published in the literature to focus on the effectiveness and areas of use of these exercises. Then, a brief review of the literature and a current experience about teaching a translation course lead to the following research questions:

1. Which text type(s) do student teachers find rather difficult?
2. Which text type(s) do student teachers find more useful?
3. Which translation practice(s) do student teachers find rather difficult?
4. Which translation practice(s) do student teachers find more useful?

2. METHODOLOGY

This study is a mixed-design inquiry as it employed both quantitative and qualitative techniques for data collection and analysis. It can also be characterized as a teacher-initiated action research as the classroom teacher organized the study, implemented the classroom tasks and research tools, and interpreted the results obtained.

2.1. Participants

The participants of this study were 22 students (15 male and 7 female) studying at Anadolu University Faculty of Education English Language Teacher Training Program. They are considered as teacher candidates (or student teachers) as they were the senior students at a teacher training institution. All participants had a similar educational background. They took courses related to language improvement, linguistics, literature, and language teaching methodology during their years in the program. As 4th grade students, they were taking a few more courses like translation, guidance and counselling, and language testing and evaluation. They were also completing their teaching practicum at state or private schools as part of their graduation requirement.

2.2. The Context

The study took place during a compulsory course entitled ‘İNÖ402 Translation: Turkish-English’ in 2017-2018 Spring semester. In this course, students are supposed to translate different types of Turkish (L1) texts into English (L2) employing different techniques for translation for 12 weeks. Throughout the semester, the following text types were selected by the instructor considering the students’ interests and needs:

- literary texts,
- recipes,
- magazine articles,
- official documents,
- oral texts.

The students also dealt with translation work using various techniques for translation. The reason behind this idea was that teacher candidates would be in need of translating texts from different disciplines in numerous contexts in their professional lives after graduation. Besides, it would be boring and of limited use if they followed a single technique for the whole semester. These practices were as follows:

- prepared translation (translating at home, checking in the class),
- unprepared in-class translation using dictionaries or online translation tools,
- unprepared in-class translation without dictionaries or online translation tools,
- constructing multiple-choice translation test items,
- oral translation practices.

2.3. Data Collection Tools

The necessary data for the aim of the study were collected at the end of the semester as soon as all the practices were completed by the students. The instructor constructed an opinion questionnaire to elicit teacher candidates’ views regarding the 12-week translation course. The questionnaire included eight questions in total. The first four were closed questions in which the participants were asked to rank the classroom translation practices and text types for translation according to their usefulness and level of difficulty. The four questions were as follows:

1. Please rank the text types from the most difficult to the easiest.
2. Please rank the text types from the most useful to the least useful.
3. Please rank the translation practices from the most difficult to the easiest.
4. Please rank the translation practices from the most useful to the least useful.

The remaining four questions were open-ended ones, which aimed to elaborate student answers related to their ranking on a qualitative basis. The questions were as follows:

1. Can you please explain the contribution of the text type(s) that you have found useful to your personal/professional development?
2. Can you please explain the contribution of the translation practice(s) that you have found useful to your personal/professional development?
3. Do you have any suggestions related to text types and/or translation practices that we have not dealt with during this course?
4. Please write any other thing you would like to express about this course.

2.4. Data Analysis Procedure

As the study was a mixed-design one, the quantitative and qualitative analyses were conducted separately. For the quantitative analysis, each ranking by the participants was quantified and given a score between 1 and 5. Then, the researcher counted and quantified the rankings by each individual participant and identified the most and least frequently stated items (text type and translation practice) in terms of usefulness and level of difficulty. Frequency analysis was enough for the quantitative part. For the qualitative analysis, a content analysis was conducted. Here, the researcher co-worked with another rater and each party analyzed the data independently. The task for both raters was to label each idea in terms of (a) level of difficulty and (b) usefulness. After that, the two raters came together for a revision and negotiation session and compared the analyses. For any possible controversies, a further discussion and/or reanalysis sessions were held. The two raters, finally, were 100% consistent about the categories emerged while they only held discussion sessions about labelling the categories.

3. PRESENTATION OF THE FINDINGS

Although the quantitative and qualitative data analyses were conducted separately, the findings are presented jointly since the two types of analysis work complementarily; in other words, the qualitative data supported the quantitative data.

RQ1. Which text type(s) do student teachers find rather difficult?

The quantitative analysis of the first question of the questionnaire specified the ranking of the text types used for L1-L2 translation according to their level of difficulty. Each ranking by the participants was quantified and given a score between 1 (the most difficult) and 5 (the easiest). Hence, a lower score means a higher difficulty level. Table 1 below presents the results.

Table 1. Difficulty level of the text types

Rank	Text Type	Score	NoO1st
1	Translating official documents	38	10
2	Literary text translation	44	8
3	Oral translation	78	4
4	Translating magazine articles	92	0
5	Translating recipes	98	0

NoO1st= Number of occurrence in the 1st rank

As Table 1 shows, translating official documents was found to be the most difficult text type for L1-L2 translation. The second most difficult text type was the translation of a literary text. As the scores and number of occurrences in the first rank prove (38

and 44; 10 and 8 respectively), these two were by far the most difficult text types for L1-L2 translation practices according to the participant foreign language teacher candidates. Oral translation practices were at moderate level of difficulty (NoO1st=4), translating recipes and magazine articles, on the other hand, were relatively easy for them.

RQ2. Which text type(s) do student teachers find more useful?

The quantitative analysis of the second question of the questionnaire specified the ranking of the text types used for L1-L2 translation according to their usefulness. Each ranking by the participants was quantified and given a score between 1 (the most useful) and 5 (the least useful). Hence, a lower score means a higher level of usefulness. Table 2 below presents the results.

Table 2. Level of usefulness of the text types

Rank	Text Type	Score	NoO1st
1	Translating magazine articles	36	12
2	Oral translation	62	6
3	Literary text translation	72	0
4	Translating official documents	78	2
5	Translating recipes	80	2

NoO1st= Number of occurrence in the 1st rank

As Table 2 shows, translating magazine articles was noticeably found to be the most useful for student teachers' personal and professional development as a text type for L1-L2 translation (Score=36; NoO1st=12). The second most useful one was the oral translation practice (Score=62; NoO1st=6). On the other hand, literary text translation, translating official documents, and translating recipes were the three least useful text types from the student teachers' perspective in terms of their score and number of occurrences in the first rank (72, 78, and 80; 0, 2, and 2 respectively).

As for the qualitative analysis of the data, student teachers indicated their ideas about the usefulness of dealing with different text types. Positive views regarding the use of different texts centered on the following points:

- Student teachers gained awareness related to different uses of vocabulary.
- They learned new words.
- Different texts gave grammar practice opportunities.
- Constructing multiple-choice items helped them prepare for public language proficiency tests.
- They learned technical terms and technical language use by translating official documents.

The negative ideas, on the other hand, were related to the following issues:

- Student teachers did not think of doing translation of certain texts such as official

- texts, drama translation, MC item in their future career.
- Some text types, especially translating recipes, required limited creativity for translation.
- Translating recipes did not help for language improvement.

RQ3. Which translation practice(s) do student teachers find rather difficult?

The quantitative analysis of the third question of the questionnaire specified the ranking of the translation practices used for L1-L2 translation according to their level of difficulty. Each ranking by the participants was quantified and given a score between 1 (the most difficult) and 5 (the easiest). Hence, a lower score means a higher difficulty level. Table 3 below presents the results.

Table 3. Difficulty level of the translation practices

Rank	Practice	Score	NoO1st
1	Oral translation practices	38	14
2	Unprepared in-class translation without dictionaries or online translation tools	54	4
3	Constructing multiple-choice translation test items	60	4
4	Unprepared in-class translation using dictionaries or online translation tools	78	0
5	Prepared translation	96	0

NoO1st= Number of occurrence in the 1st rank

As Table 3 shows, oral translation practices was outstandingly found to be the most difficult translation practice for L1-L2 translation by the participants (Score=38, NoO1st=14). Doing unprepared translation without dictionaries or online translation tools (Score=54, NoO1st=4), constructing multiple-choice translation test items (Score=60, NoO1st=4), and dealing with unprepared translation using dictionaries or online translation tools (Score=78, NoO1st=0) were at moderate level of difficulty for the student teachers as translators. On the other hand, participating in prepared translation practices in the class was the easiest task for the teacher candidates (Score=96, NoO1st=0).

RQ4. Which translation practice(s) do student teachers find more useful?

The quantitative analysis of the fourth question of the questionnaire specified the ranking of the translation practices used for L1-L2 translation according to their usefulness. Each ranking by the participants was quantified and given a score between 1 (the most useful) and 5 (the least useful). Hence, a lower score means a higher level of usefulness. Table 4 below presents the results.

Table 4. Level of usefulness of the translation practices

Rank	Practice	Score	NoO1st
1	Unprepared in-class translation without dictionaries or online translation tools	58	8
2	Unprepared in-class translation using dictionaries or online translation tools	58	6
3	Constructing multiple-choice translation test items	70	4
4	Oral translation practices	72	2
4	Prepared translation	72	2

NoO1st= Number of occurrence in the 1st rank

As Table 4 shows, the two most useful translation practices, according to student teachers, were unprepared in-class translation with or without dictionaries or online translation tools in terms of the total scores and the number of occurrences in the first rank (58 and 58; 8 and 6 respectively). On the other hand, constructing multiple-choice translation test items, oral translation practices, and prepared translation tasks were found to be less useful by the student teachers in terms of the total scores and the number of occurrences in the first rank (70, 72, and 72; 4, 2, and 2 respectively).

The qualitative analysis of the data, furthermore, put forward a number of issues related to the possible usefulness of the translation practices employed in the class. The positive views were as follows:

- Student teachers gained awareness related to different uses of vocabulary.
- They learned new words.
- Different texts gave grammar practice opportunities.
- Constructing multiple-choice items helped them prepare for public language proficiency tests.
- Prepared translation practices provided a self-study opportunity.
- Oral translation practices were great oral language practice tools.
- The practices taught overall textual and discourse knowledge.

The negative ideas concerning the use of different translation practices, on the other hand, were related to the following issues:

- Student teachers did not think of doing oral translation in their future career.
- Some practices, especially oral translation, were very challenging.
- Some practices, especially prepared translation, was not challenging but simple.

4. DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS AND CONCLUSION

This study aimed to find out about the views of student teachers about a translation course they were engaged in during their senior year at a foreign language teacher training institution. The analyses of the quantitative and qualitative data collected



within this purpose resulted in several findings.

According to the student teachers, translating official document was a challenging task despite its usefulness for giving them the necessary technical language samples and teaching some technical vocabulary. On the other hand, although translating magazine articles that were written in daily language was not found to be difficult task, they were considered as the most useful text type to be used for translation. Therefore, one can claim that difficulty level may not be an indicator of usefulness. Some text can be challenging but useful while some others are simple but useful. From the opposite side, it is also possible for some text types to be less challenging but useful or less useful. A totally opposite argument is also true considering the fact that recipes were the most challenging and the least useful text type for translation.

A similar discussion can be given in terms of the translation practices conducted in the classroom. Although oral translation practices were placed in the top in terms of the difficulty level for translation, they were not found as useful as other practices excluding prepared translation practices. Furthermore, a noticeable finding was related to the use of unprepared in-class translation practices done in the class time. Unprepared in-class translation both with and without dictionaries or online translation tools were identified as the two most useful translation practice types by the student teachers despite dealing with unprepared in-class translation without dictionaries or online translation tools was one of the most challenging tasks for in-class translation. Thus, it is now once again proved that difficulty level and usefulness don not have to be in positive correlation with each other. The situation may change according to the text type, level of difficulty, or even both of them. Another interesting finding was related to the implementation of prepared translation practices. In the study, this task was considered as the simplest and the least useful translation practice by the student teachers. One of the student teachers mentioned this issue in his/her own words as follows:

In the first moment I was challenged, I referred to google translate, so I did all of them easily, but when it comes to translating a text in the class that I see for the first time, I really felt that I was actually dealing with the translation work. (St. 8)

In addition to the suggestions given above, the student teachers in this study had certain recommendations related to the text types and translation practices to be used in translation classes. For example, translating idioms and proverbs from L1 to L2 can be integrated into the syllabus. Another suggestion is translating a TV series (a 20 minute-long sit-com) in the form of subtitles, as it would give student teachers a real-life sense for what they are doing. Additionally, one student teacher commented on the benefit of providing students with some theoretical information related to translation as follows:

At the beginning of the semester or each class, it would be good to watch short video clips about common translation errors or most frequent problems in translation and how to deal with them, etc. (St. 6)

Another suggestion was on the use of group work for translation. One student teacher wrote:

Each group may be given a different subject like 'Do you know this?', and the following week, each group searches, translates, and presents in the classroom. This is important to give us a purpose to listen to each other. (St. 10)

Finally, student teachers' ideas related to the translation course were rather positive. They indicated that dealing with different text types and various translation practices not only helped them become better translators but also contributed to their self-confidence about translation and gave them fun time. The following extracts exemplify the point:

Everything we did in the class was good and enjoyable. In the first semester, we all did the same thing: translating at home, discussing in the class. After some time, it was really boring. Dealing with translation in the class rather than at home was useful and enjoyable. (St. 16)

This semester was more challenging to me, I liked it. It's because we did Turkish-English translation, which is more difficult than doing English-Turkish translation. I also believe that translation is a special skill, not every student has. (St. 4)

Dealing with different texts and different methods was really good. I was able to discover my translation ability. At the beginning, I wasn't self-confident about translation, but then, I realized that I was really successful in translation, I gained self-confidence. (St. 11)

As a final point, this study has some implications for translation teachers who are supposed to prepare, implement, and evaluate translation courses in language programs, especially in teacher training institutions. First of all, dealing with various text types in translation classes will give students a chance to see the translation work from different aspects. Second, dealing with various translation practices in translation classes (especially real-life practices) will not only improve students' language skills but also will give them an understanding of the real-life translation options. Here, we suggest that translation trainers "view the translator as a life-long language learner and the language learner as a natural translator" (Carreres, 2006: 18). Third, theoretical knowledge should be followed by practice; in other words, students should be equipped with certain translation skills, trained for use of dictionaries and other tools, and most importantly, be informed about the probable obstacles they might face during translation. Fourth, turning translation into a fun activity is at utmost importance as students will benefit more when they think they are having fun. Finally, informing teacher candidates about the fact that translation is a language

practice activity both at the initial and later stages of learning is vital. This, then, will help them shape their ideas about translation practices and about how to deal with translation work they are likely to face in their future careers. We would like to conclude the discussion with Carreres's (2014: 131) following impressive words: "It has been my intention, however, to invite those involved in translator training to engage more actively with research in SLA and with practices in language teaching, as well as to recognise the natural connection that exists between language and translation education".

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The role of financial and business Intelligence in a globalized world

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ABSTRACT

After the end of the Cold War, Intelligence Agencies and security Services have significantly extended their skills in the financial, economic and technological sectors. The growing impact of organized crime, which has enormous financial resources, is also widespread. The "cleansing" of dirty money and the massive investments made in certain productive sectors have become a real threat, which affects every country.

The increase of the financial and economic Intelligence is related primarily to the geo-economic competition between states, the globalization of markets and production, and the fact that the internationalization of property has been added to the traditional competition for the conquest of markets related to the ownership structure of the social groups and the location of the manufacturing companies. While in the past the objective of companies was the market, now also the portfolio is important. This causes a notable dynamism of the ownership structures and therefore a potential instability even in the division of labor. Hostile acquisitions, destabilizing financial maneuvers, industrial espionage of the technological assets of national companies are possible. In this sense, geo-economics has assumed a more important role than geostrategy in the new international geopolitics. States must therefore equip themselves for geo-economic competition as they were in the past focused on the geostrategic one.

KEYWORDS:

Intelligence, Security, Globalization, Financial Intelligence



1. INTRODUCTION

The financial and business Intelligence offer, today more than ever, new opportunities in the data transformation into active components of the decision-making process. The Intelligence Agencies focus on providing added value to the government decision-making process, strengthening the so-called national comparative advantage. At the center of the business Intelligence system are the nation's values. The greater the presence of a commonly shared national objective, the greater the willingness of the actors to "accept" the moral dilemmas that the collection of financial Intelligence poses, the greater the probability that the importance of the objective of greater competitiveness will (in terms of employment, growth and standard of living) overcome the difficulty in accepting the tools to carry out this same collection.

Research Questions and Research methods

With reference to this research, the first question posed is: how can business Intelligence address the new challenges that we live every day, in computerized, multiethnic and multicultural societies, and above all in a globalized world?

Second question: what are the new capabilities and know-how that contemporary Intelligence needs in such a complex, turbulent and "chaotic" international system so as to require a new holistic and less systemic approach?

- This study uses a three-step methodological approach: data collection, coding and analysis, using qualitative techniques.
- The article offers a number of original contributions to the scientific literature.
- First, it re-examines the sources and the theory-building and proposes alternatives to the referable scientific literature accepted and proposed by the majority of scholars.
- It strengthens the holistic interrelations in terms of consistency between disciplines such as Intelligence studies, history, sociology, political geography, and political science.
- Thirdly, the proposed mixed methods generate an agenda for possible future studies and researchs.
- The documents used are referring to open source documents, archives, publications, and reliable secondary sources.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

Academic studies, apart from the bibliography proposed in the article, refer mainly to Intelligence Agencies' manuals for internal use, in particular to CIA manuals.

Analyzing the importance of a semantic elaboration of financial Intelligence, a country can achieve improvements in its international competitiveness.

The awareness of having to collect data in a non-obvious way is an essential requirement in increasing the value of Intelligence in the national decision-making system. The latter, in fact, depends on the quality and originality of the informational reports produced, which must be based on an independent collection activity and on the analysis of the acquired evidence, going beyond contexts already known from

open sources.

The contrast between the analytical component of the Intelligence Agencies and that of the economic departments of the government staff can be overcome if the added value provided by the Intelligence analysis is based only on what emerges from the non-obvious collection. According to my approach, Intelligence analysis can (and sometimes must) impose itself as an "intruder" in government policy, because the main role of Intelligence is to provide uncomfortable but objective analysis and reality.

The neutral focus to the Intelligence policy must make the decision-making process difficult, obviously improving it. For this reason the information product should always be complete with a framework of analysis, present and future, without ever being limited to the classic data. An Intelligence analysis performed by a Senior Economist working in Secret Services, based on stolen or bought information related to the capacities and intentions of the competitors, guarantees a unique added value giving life to an information product well superior to an analysis drawn up by a commercial employee abroad, an official of a public banking or financial administration or a private sector official.

Many scholars have not yet accepted the process of globalization that even Intelligence is undergoing, both in the sense of enlarging its spectrum of interest to all possible topics (passing from the traditional military and political aspects only, to those of economy and finance, but also of medicine, physics, astronomy), and in the sense of the expansion of the geographical areas considered relevant in terms of national security implications.

The years to come will be marked by an unprecedented structural crisis of all economic systems, capitalist and otherwise. In the current global recession, which affects both industrialized and emerging countries, the economy and finance constrain the performance of every function of the state and the company (in particular, product marketing).

The stock of accumulated debt (sovereign and corporate), contracted in the past to finance necessary investments and / or superfluous consumption and the increasingly limited flow of income, today represent the most serious conditions for the exercise of optimized corporate governance and full state sovereignty.

For these reasons, the need of decision-makers, engaged in the government of public administration and businesses, of new information and knowledge is progressively greater.

One of the main distinctions to be addressed will be that between competitive corporate Intelligence and public Intelligence carried out by the Government's Information Agencies.

Similarly, in a strict governmental sphere, economic and financial Intelligence (as anticipation and prediction of the problem) will be discerned from economic and financial security (a typical function of police, in the conservation and protection of a pre-existing economic, industrial, scientific and technological heritage).

Intelligence and law enforcement are, in fact, two interconnected but totally different fields. At the heart of the financial Intelligence system is the culture of a nation.



The greater the presence of a commonly shared national objective, the greater the willingness of the actors to accept the moral dilemmas that the collection of financial Intelligence poses, the greater the probability that the importance of the objective of greater competitiveness will (in terms of employment, growth and standard of living) overcome the difficulty in accepting the tools to carry out this collection. Only in the presence of a perceptive revolution on the importance of a semantic elaboration of financial Intelligence, a country can achieve improvements in its international competitiveness.

The neutral approach of some Intelligence Agencies is a source of conflict between the economic staff of each government (who have the task of formulating the policy, and the political address) and Intelligence Agencies (which have the duty to communicate information often inconvenient, thus complicating the process of political decision-making).

For this reason, the former prefers to receive raw data collected in a fiduciary manner without being accompanied by analysis, so as to have the freedom to decide whether to use it or not.

Other country's spying is as a sufficient reason for Intelligence Agencies to justify their involvement, allowing them to direct activities in terms of nations, or foreign entities related to the government.

The role for Intelligence Agencies in the protection and pursuit of financial and commercial interests has five essential functions:

- (a) counterintelligence support, providing reports on the activities of foreign Services engaged in clandestine activities directed against national financial and commercial interests;
- (b) financial Intelligence support, through which Intelligence provides sensitive data, contextualised in scenario analysis, otherwise not obtainable;
- (c) informative support on unfair commercial practices, result of monitoring of behaviors of foreign states towards international agreements that have an impact on national financial interests, providing data on possible hostile activities carried out through economic espionage;
- (d) activities of influence on events, behaviors or formulations of policies by foreign governments. These non-obvious activities include disinformation campaigns aimed at markets of third countries or against decisions by companies or governments;
- (e) information support for private actors engaged in the development of sensitive technologies. In the presence of aggressive financial espionage activities, using Intelligence Agencies to obtain confidential information from competitors, moreover, there is a reason to support the use of defensive counter-espionage, which allows to protect intellectual property rights in a safer, increasing incentives for innovation.

Information is not a public good in a strict sense, since it has a non-competing nature, but is not completely non-exclusive (because some types of information can be protected and made available only to some users).

3. CONCLUSIONS

The distinction between Intelligence Agencies and other information providers concerns the confidentiality and secrecy associated with the activities of Intelligence Agencies that cannot be defined as a public good. Rather, it is the activity of protection by the Intelligence Agencies of national economic security to represent a full public good, non-competitive and non-exclusive.

For this reason, the financial counterintelligence can be considered a service similar to that of police, as the secret acquisition of economic information is an essential component of important activities similar to those of the police.

The value of Intelligence depends on the originality offered in the contribution to the national decision-making system based on an independent collection activity and on the analysis of the acquired evidence, going beyond contexts already known from open sources. Only in this way the Intelligence Agencies can carve a unique role, providing the political decision-maker with a good level financial Intelligence, not available from any source.

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The Effect of Peer Instruction on Conceptual and Operational Approaches Preferred in Problem Solutions

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ABSTRACT

The level of using conceptual and operational knowledge is of great importance in the problem-solving process. The previous studies on the measurement of conceptual and operational knowledge, have been, especially examining the problem solutions or in discussing the views. On the other hand, rich learning environments should be established to overcome such difficulties in teaching mathematics in general and analytical geometry in particular. In this study, the researchers provide useful information to the literature since this study aimed to examine quantitatively, whether the peer instruction in analytic geometry has any effect on the conceptual and operational approaches of secondary school mathematics teacher candidates in problem solving. The sample of the research is composed of [including 22 females, and 1 males] secondary school mathematics teacher candidates. Considering the advantages of technological resources on learning, the learning management system (LMS) designed by the second author, was used during the question-answer process. Before the application, the course content was integrated into the online learning management system (LMS). The teacher candidates were divided into groups before the application. In this research, the first group will be presented in the context of the research problem. In the first group, the scores of the prospective teachers who wanted to use the second

right to answer were not reduced. Conceptual & Operational Approach towards Problem-Solving scale, developed by Özyıldırım Gümüş and Umay (2018) was used as the data collection tool. One of the two options is conceptual and the other one is the operational. Thus, it is possible to decide on approaches from the responses. Since the value of this approach could be related with the data set, the cut-off point was determined by the ROC curve method in SPSS program and the data were analyzed descriptively by the reference to this cut-off point. It has been determined that the secondary school mathematics teacher candidates display a conceptual knowledge-based approach through peer instruction.

KEYWORDS:

Peer instruction, conceptual and operational approaches, problem solutions, mathematics teacher candidates

1. INTRODUCTION

It is very difficult for teachers to draw students' attention during lessons, especially in large classes (Mazur, 1997). Therefore, peer instruction (PI) was emerged as a student-centered instructional approach and developed by Eric Mazur (1997). PI mainly consists of the lecture and question-answer processes (Chou & Lin 2015).

The multiple choice questions are used in the question-answer process. In this model, questions are asked, students have enough time to think and then, students give their first answers individually. Then they discuss with the group friends on the question, and give the second answers after the discussion. After all the students give their second answers, the instructor solves the question and answers the questions of the students. At this point, if the accuracy of the answers given by the students is low, the instructor explains the subject in detail. Therefore, the potential of PI may be used for the development of secondary school mathematics teacher candidates. Because, it can be said that the development of conceptual understanding skills of mathematics teacher candidates is one of the important goals.

The level of using conceptual and operational knowledge is of great importance in the problem-solving process. The previous studies on the measurement of conceptual and operational knowledge, have been, especially examining the problem solutions or in discussing the views (Byrnes & Wasik, 1991; Che Ghazali & Zakaria, 2011; Soylu & Aydın, 2006). This situation has emerged as a result of the difficulties of separating these two types of knowledge and measuring them independently.

For this reason, a scale which has been developed to solve these difficulties until recently, was used in the research. This scale was applied before and after the analytical geometry course, which is one of the most difficult lesson for mathematics teacher candidates (Baltacı, Yıldız, & Kösa 2015; Gorghiu, Puana & Gorghiu, 2009). Analytical geometry, which is expressed as the application of geometry and algebra together, aims to solve the geometry problems by providing an algebraic explanation (Altun, 2004). Rich learning environments should be established to overcome such difficulties in teaching mathematics in general and analytical geometry in particular. Therefore, the

potential of peer instruction has been used in the research as mentioned before.

In this study, the researchers provide useful information to the literature since this study aimed to examine quantitatively, whether the peer instruction in analytic geometry has any effect on the conceptual and operational approaches of secondary school mathematics teacher candidates in problem solving. It is also thought that research will provide useful information to curriculum developers.

2. METHOD

In this section, the information related to research design, sample, instruments, application process and data analysis will be introduced.

2.1. Research Design

Study was designed to be a quantitative research to examine whether the peer instruction has any effect on the conceptual and operational approaches. Therefore, experimental method was used in the research.

2.2. Sample

The sample of the research is composed of (including 22 females, and 1 males) secondary school mathematics teacher candidates in the academic year of 2018-2019. They were selected amongst those who take analytic geometry course that was taught by one of the researcher of this study at a state university.

2.3. Instruments

Conceptual & Operational Approach towards Problem-Solving scale, developed by Özyıldırım Gümüş and Umay (2018), was used as the data collection tool. Thanks to this scale, in order to measure conceptual and operational knowledge, some misunderstandings in the literature are thought to be corrected such as; a valid, reliable and standardized approach has not yet, and fully been established. The scale consisting of 14 items. The subjects were asked to complete the sentences for each item in the scale with one of two options. One of the two options is conceptual and the other one is the operational. Thus, it is possible to decide on approaches from the responses.

2.4. Procedure

This research took place at a state university during Analytical Geometry course conducted. Considering the advantages of technological resources on learning, the learning management system (LMS) designed by the second author, was used during the question-answer process.

Before the application, the course content was integrated into the online learning management system (LMS). A preparatory training was also provided for teacher candidates to adapt to this process. The teacher candidates were divided into groups before the application. Prospective teachers were randomly divided into three groups and a research was designed as follows. After the teacher candidates gave their first answers in each group, a discussion environment was initiated in the classroom. Afterwards, prospective teachers were able to change their answers by using the right of second answer. In the first group, the scores of the prospective teachers who wanted to use the second right to answer were not reduced. In the second responses,

the scores of the prospective teachers in the second group were calculated over 80 points. In the third group of teacher candidates; the score of the prospective teachers who wanted to give the second answer was calculated over 60 points. In this research, the first group will be presented in the context of the research problem.

2.5. Data Analysis

A total score was calculated for each participant by scoring “1” representing the use of conceptual knowledge in the scale form and “0” representing the use of operational knowledge. Thus, when the total score of the participants is close to the full score (14), it can be said to be conceptual, on the other hand, when it is close to “0”, it can be said to be the operational approach. However, since the value of this approach could be related with the data set, the cut-off point was determined by the ROC curve method in SPSS program and the data were analyzed descriptively by the reference to this cut-off point. The cut-off point was found as “10” according to the ROC curve result. If the data result is below “10”, it is handled as operational-weighted approach; however, if the data result is above “10”, it is handled as conceptual-weighted approach.

3. RESULTS

In this part, it has been examined whether the analytical geometry course described by the peer instruction model has any effect on the conceptual and operational approaches of secondary school mathematics teacher candidates in problem solving with some factors such as; the average academic grade point and the order of preference of the department.

The change in conceptual and operational approaches according to the academic grade point is given in Table 1.

Table 1. The effect of peer instruction model on conceptual and operational approach of prospective teachers according to academic grade point.

Academic Grade Point	Pre-test		Final Test	
	Conceptual Weighted Approach (f)	Operational Weighted Approach (f)	Conceptual Weighted Approach (f)	Operational Weighted Approach (f)
2.00-3.00	3	7	5	5
3.01-4.00	7	6	9	4

When the data in Table 1 are analyzed, it is seen that 2 out of 10 students whose grades are between 2.00 - 3.00 pass into conceptual weighted approach after the study. On the other hand, it was determined that 2 of the 13 teacher candidates whose grades were higher, ie between 3.01 and 4.00, moved to a more conceptual-weighted approach. Considering the number of pre-service teachers according to their grade point average, it can be said that the peer instruction model is effective in passing the secondary school mathematics teacher candidates to the conceptual-weighted approach.

The change in conceptual and operational approaches according to the order of preference of the department is given in Table 2.

Table 2. The effect of peer instruction model on conceptual and operational approach of pre-service teachers in terms of department preference order.

Department's preferred	Pre-test		Final Test	
	Conceptual Weighted Approach [f]	Operational Weighted Approach [f]	Conceptual Weighted Approach [f]	Operational Weighted Approach [f]
1-5	5	8	8	5
6-10	1	4	3	2
11 and above	1	4	3	2

When the data in the above table are analyzed, it is seen that secondary school mathematics teacher candidates exhibit operational weighted approach to all sub-varieties of this variable. However, after the study, three of the pre-service teachers who preferred the department in the first five were changed into conceptual-weighted approach. Again, it is seen from the data in the table that two of the teacher candidates in the department preferences in the order of 6 - 10 and 11 and more have switched to a more conceptual approach.

4. DISCUSSION

Teachers should help their students to organize the thinking processes while solving problems. Thanks to the peer instruction model used in the research, teacher candidates were able to enrich their thoughts due to the discussions with their peers and the instructors. Furthermore, secondary school mathematics teacher candidates expressed that they enjoyed this atypical method even though they were unfamiliar to this way of teaching.

In the absence of conceptual and operational knowledge, the problem-solving process does not reach its aim (Silver, 1986). In the research, it was observed that the teacher candidates solved the analytical geometry problems with difficulty at the beginning, but later on, despite the topics becoming more complex and abstract, the success on solving the problems without difficulty was increased. As a matter of fact, the research results show the following picture in general. It has been determined that the secondary school mathematics teacher candidates display a conceptual knowledge-based approach through peer instruction. From this point, for an effective problem solving process, it can be concluded that waiting for everyone to produce their own solutions, how effective these solutions are and how to ensure the correctness of these solutions and thus to see different perspectives will be, an effective approach that develops the conceptual knowledge. In fact, this result is in line with the studies of Kulm (1994) and Vistro (1991).

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Virtual Reality Development and the Socialization of Bulgarian Cultural Heritage

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ABSTRACT

The aim of the paper is to show to what extent so far the virtual reality has entered the exhibition concepts of museums in Bulgaria. Two aspects have been emphasized: the integration of information technologies in education in the sphere of cultural heritage and the digital presentation of museum displays. This article presents part of the activities and results on research Project Models of Socialization of Cultural Heritage in a 'smart city' 05/3, 14.12.2016, supported by the National Science Fund at the Bulgarian Ministry of Education and Science. Descriptive qualitative method was employed in this study. The data were obtained through direct observations of museum institutions in Bulgaria in terms of the degree of online access to museum expositions, the degree of digitization of museum collections and the degree of digital representation of museum expositions. Some of the basic problems of museums in Bulgaria have been systematized. Results are used to improve the quality of education in the field of cultural heritage, to promote the exchange of scientific and practical experience among university tutors, museum specialists and experts. It is expected that the results find application in the programs for informing and training for raising the capacity of local communities in the sphere of cultural tourism.

KEYWORDS:

Cultural Heritage, Information Technologies, Education, Museum expositions

INTRODUCTION

Bulgaria has been known in Europe and all over the world as a country with unique diversity of cultural and natural heritage. Bulgarian museums have rich collections and display unique findings from ancient historical periods, treasures of the antique and medieval art – for example the ancient Thracian Treasures (from Panagjurishte, Rogozen and Vulchy Trun), many of which are of great significance to archaeology in Europe and in the world.

In the 21st Century, on a global scale can be seen how the traditional concept of museum and museum expositions have changed under the influence of the Information Technologies /IT/. Successful, Good, Smart 21st-century museums do not only rely on unique and authentic exhibits to make their expositions attractive to visitors. They pay close attention to how to display exhibits and communicate with the audience. This museums are the focus of science, education and entertainment. Therefore, museum expositions and exhibitions increasingly include 'non-objects': replicas, audiovisual technologies, interactive computer platforms. In 21st-century museums, digital technologies offer new forms of cultural experience, especially for young audiences. Expositions with interactive elements have witnessed a significantly higher interest than the traditional ones and have had a higher educational effect.

The aim of the paper is to show how far the virtual reality has entered the exhibition concepts of the museums in Bulgaria. An important focus is placed on two main areas: integrating information technologies into education in the field of cultural heritage and the digital representation of museum expositions and the inclusion of digital components in the exhibition activity.

METHODOLOGY

These important challenges have been part of the research activity done within the project Models of Socialization of Cultural Heritage in a 'smart city', realized with the support of the National Science Fund of the Ministry of Education and Science of the Republic of Bulgaria and carried out by the University of Library Studies and Information Technologies. The project has been realized by an interdisciplinary scientific team on IT and scientists-experts on cultural heritage. Assistance has been provided by the National Military History Museum, the National Library St. St. Cyril and Methodius, the National History Museum, the Regional History Museum in Shumen city and the Ethnographic Open-air Museum Etara in Gabrovo city. Students and PhD students are actively involved in the project. The achieved results have been applied in the process of learning in BA programs of the specialty Information Collections of Cultural and Historical Heritage.

Contemporary information technologies are developing very rapidly and provide immense opportunities in the socialization of cultural heritage. Before we begin our specific discourse, however, we can't ignore two key issues:

What are we looking for with the use of technology in museum expositions?

And what do we achieve?

Is the pull of authenticity disappearing? Until recently, the most frequently asked question from museum visitors has been – Is this the original? These questions lead to others like: What is the impact of the 3D figure, especially on children and young generation? They no longer seek the physical exhibit. With the development of virtual technological effects, especially of the augmented reality, 3D and 4D holographic visualizations, the museum audience, especially younger generations are facing a crossroads – Which tickles the interest of the visitor – the physical exhibit or its 3D image?

Currently, the Bulgarian museums have a strong focus on the exhibition activity. The introduction of multimedia technologies at museum exhibitions and expositions is increasing rapidly. However, it can be said that this process is developing rather randomly, there are no clearly defined and specifically determined characteristics and no methods have been created for the informatization of the Bulgarian cultural heritage.

A detailed bibliographic study was carried out on the project, showing that at the national level the largest part of the researches includes topics related to the conservation of archaeological and architectural heritage, the problems of cultural heritage protection and management, museum activities, intangible heritage. Regarding the socialization of the heritage, publications focusing on integrated management of cultural and natural heritage, cultural tourism, architectural heritage problems at risk, and preservation of central urban areas dominate (Denchev, Vasileva, 2017). Another, much less part of the researches, are focused on technological issues of digitization of the heritage, but to date at national level are a few interdisciplinary studies related to new models of cultural heritage socialization (Atanasov, 2016; Boyadzhiev, 2013). That is why the project initiated the collection of a bibliographic database for publications - books, articles and documents of international organizations (UNESCO, Council of Europe), printed in English and other European languages. The results of the study have shown that the socialization of cultural heritage in the context of globalization and the development of IT needs detailed interdisciplinary research. This has been confirmed by the research priorities in the sphere of cultural heritage at a European and world levels. This issue has found its place in the priorities of the program Horizon 2020 *Europe in a changing world – inclusive, innovative and reflective societies*, приоритет *Reflective societies: transmission of European cultural heritage, uses of the past, 3D modelling for accessing EU cultural assets* (Horizon 2020). The great significance of the research on the matter has been reflected in the priorities of the Program on Strategic Research of the EU Joint Programming Initiatives: Cultural Heritage and the Global Change: *a new challenge for Europe* (Declaration, 2011).

RESULTS

In this regard, within the project, several large-scale studies were done: Current issues on the application of information and communication technologies (ICT) in cultural heritage education and training (Denchev, 2017); The role of UNESCO and the Council of Europe and also of international non-governmental organizations on

the use of ICT in cultural heritage education and its socialization (Vasileva, 2018); Preservation of archives in 21st century. The role of the new information technologies (Petrova, 2019).

The project developed a holographic virtual reality system (HVR). The innovative product makes it possible to present in an attractive way valuable exhibits and collections of the Bulgarian cultural heritage. The hologram system is successfully used for the scientific tasks of the project. Three of the young scientists – members of the project team have been trained to work with the system and with the necessary programs to make holographic projections. The hologram system is placed in the ULSIT Library and Information Center and has free access to students and lecturers. The system is already being used in the students learning process and enhances the quality of teaching methods in the field of cultural heritage and information technology.

Within the project, studies were carried out to outline the real state of museum institutions in Bulgaria in terms of the degree of online access to museum expositions, the degree of digitization of museum collections and the degree of digital representation of museum expositions. The main object of the study was the regional historical museums (Boneva, Rusev, 2017).

In this regard, we will consider in more detail the good practices applied in our country to create interactivity in the expositions of Bulgarian museums. Good examples in the digital presentation of exhibitions and expositions are the Archeological Museum in Varna, the Regional Historical Museums in Shumen, Russe and Plovdiv (Museum expositions, 2018), the National Military History Museum in Sofia (Penkova, 2018), the Interactive Museum of Industry in Gabrovo (Interactive museum, 2014) funded by the European Regional Development Fund, the Archeological Museum in Veliki Preslav.

In 2018 in Prague, Czech Republic the Regional Museum of History in Shumen was awarded the International Prize 'Zhiva' for the Best Slavonic Museum (Shumen Museum, 2018). One of the criteria for the nomination and awarding of this accolade is the innovative use of new technologies in the presentation of museum expositions. Since the beginning of 2018, virtual reality platforms have been functioning in the medieval Bulgarian capital Pliska (Pliska, 2018) /capital of the First Bulgarian Kingdom VII – IX Centuries/ and Veliki Preslav /capital of the First Bulgarian Kingdom IX – X Centuries/. In 2013, a Multimedia visitor center was opened in Veliko Tarnovo (Multimedia, 2018) /capital of the Second Bulgarian Kingdom XII – XIV Centuries/, and in 2018 such a center was opened in the National Archaeological Reserve 'Madara', which is included on the UNESCO World Heritage List.

CONCLUSION

There are many examples of good practices of creating interactivity with application of information technology in museum exhibition activities. Overall, however, against the backdrop of the general framework of museum institutions in our country, these processes are relatively slow to develop and are not subject to a unified concept. One of the serious reasons for this is the limited funding by the state

and the municipalities. For the most of its part, the funding for these activities is provided by projects.

Undoubtedly, the development of the IT application process for cultural heritage socialization will lead to a growing number of younger generations being interested in cultural heritage. For them, the use of modern IT is leading in the search for information. We hope that the activities of our project and the results achieved will contribute to the improvement of the quality of the students' education and to the broader application of the information technologies in the research and teaching activities in the field of cultural heritage. Heritage increasingly stands out as a value and a cultural memory, through which we identify ourselves and interact in the global world and the information environment.

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Fashion, Dressing, and Identities in Ballroom Subculture

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ABSTRACT:

The Ballroom scene is an underground subculture created by African Americans and Latinos and gives emphasis in issues of race, gender, and sexual orientation within the heterogeneous society. The members of this subculture live in an organized social structure based on the acceptance and the celebration of sexual and gender expression. Balls are competitions where transgender people are involved, performing different kinds of dances. Balls provide to the queer community a cozy place to build their sense of self in their hidden world without the limitations imposed by society on gender and sexual expression. Balls are a combination of fashion, competition, and dance. "Voguing" is the characteristic dance of Balls and it is an extremely stylized dance form. Vogue magazine's model poses to inspire it, and it uses the arms and legs with dramatic, rapid and feminine edgy ways. "Voguing" includes catwalk, dance, spins and other risky styles of movement. The "Voguing" has the major role in Ballrooms that contain fashion catwalk and competitions, where African and Latinos gays and transgender participate in a competition, imitating fashion models in the catwalk with gestures and poses to win an award. The panel of the critics, in a Ball, judges them from the movements of their dance, attitudes, costumes and the ingenuity in all of these areas. Today there are three basic types of Voguing: a) the Old Way, b) The New Way and, c) The Vogue Femme.

KEYWORDS:

fashion, identities, ballroom, subculture

1. INTRODUCTION

A ballroom is an interesting and underground subculture of African-American and Latino transgender. The members of this subculture live in an organized social structure based on the acceptance and the celebration of sexual and gender expression (Bailey, 2011). These members spend most of their free time in dance clubs, but the major social events that hold together this subculture/community are the Balls. Balls are a combination of a fashion catwalk, dance and competition and they are full of competitive energy and creative art. During the Balls, the Ballroom subculture creates and breaks its rules. This paradoxical and transformative co-critical practice combines fashion, gender, and sexuality within the Ballroom subculture. Such kinds of practices create at members of the subculture a cultural memory, different from the memory created by mainstream fashion. The creative inventiveness, of subculture's members, becomes a major factor of cultural and physical survival (Susman, 2000). "Voguing" the characteristic dance of Balls, is a combination of many forms of dance. "Voguing" is a highly stylized type of dance. In 1920 is its first appearance in Harlem's LGBTQI communities. In 1985 "Voguing" became a very expressive dance movement linked to New York's explosive music scene. "Voguing" has taken its name from the poses of supermodels in Vogue Magazine. Its dancer uses his/her arms and legs in dramatic, rapid and feminine angular modes in a constant high energy rate. "Voguing" includes catwalk, dancing, spins, dives and other risky styles of dance and poses that all aim to deliver vitality, femininity, and freshness. "Voguing" dance at the Balls and includes fashion and posse competitions where African Americans and Latino, gay or transgender dancers "walk" in competition, to earn one or more of the judges' awards. There are a lot of categories and themes if somebody wants to compete and the participants are judged by the movements of their dance, their attitude, their costumes and their ingenuity to them. "Voguing" has always been and is a welcoming place for LGBTQ dancers (Chatterjee, 2018).

All the types of "Voguing" are improvised by a wide range of moves, and always the main aim is ingenuity. Dance is constantly evolving, and re-emergence and adaptability are strategies that depict how life should be. The need for an optimistic prospect of life imposes humor and commentary to be incorporated into Ball's process. Participants have to figure out how, when and where they should make every move and decisions are taken fast and not always consciously (Susman, 2000). The first name of "Voguing" was a presentation and then it was renamed to performance. Eventually, it returned to the name of his original inspiration "Vogue in". Dancers are inspired by the poses of the supermodels in Vogue magazine, and they try to mimic them on their catwalk through their poses and gestures (The Standard, 2015).

2. THE CONSTRUCTION OF THE IDENTITY

In the social interactions of everyday life, people often manage their identity to achieve their desired goals. They manage the aspects of their appearance, such as



the choice of their clothes (how they wear them and combine them with accessories), their expressions, gestures, attitude, voice (tone and intensity) and vocabulary, body movements, depending on the condition. For almost all the people, this is a realistic presentation of them, and they manage the way they “present” a particular self, depending on the purpose and the target audience (Rowan, Long, and Johnson, 2013). The concept of self (the identity structure) is attributed to the symbolic interaction as a multidimensional construct consisting of “many selves” (Mead, 1934). According to the symbolic interaction, the formation of unique and identifiable identities is a continuous and dynamic process, produced through social interaction, social comparison and feedback from others, through analytical assessments (Goffman, 1959). People improvise and assume different roles in creative and interpretive ways, consciously designed to fit the current situation, into a dramatic approach (Rowan, Long, and Johnson, 2013).

During the last decades, the “functional” nature of the self exists. In this “factional” nature, identity is structured by the accumulation of multiple and changing identities or “selves” (Cantor and Kihlstrom, 1987). These individual identities are usually used due to the requirements of an experience or event. The person and his/her identities are usually activated by the others, where self – presentation reflects his/her present, relatively instantaneous self, and therefore involves the self – variability. The most powerful identities create the required stability for information processing and behavioral events, while weak identities appear in self – presentations in current situations (Rowan, Long, and Johnson, 2013).

The members of a small group (in the USA) that has multiple risk factors for oppression (such as race, gender identity, sexual orientation, and low socio-economic status) called House/Ball or Ballroom subculture. They are dramatically engaged in identity management, within their cultural system, that governed by constantly evolving rules. The members of Ballroom subculture offer an interesting example of the liquidity of the identity’s concepts and the self – presentation of the members in the daily life of the House/Ball community, as they present a variety of identities and relative self – representations, but the dominant identity is one of the “houses” they belong to. This identity was created and identified through the social interaction with the members from other “homes” and their expectations (Rowan, Long, and Johnson, 2013).

3. THE HISTORY OF BALLROOM SUBCULTURE

The Ballroom Culture is underground and is therefore unknown to the general public. It appeared in New York in the 1920s and 1930s, during the “Renaissance of Harlem”, in the nightlife and the culture of Latinos and African – American men. These men dressed in feminine clothes and vice versa, in luxurious dances that women and heterosexual men came to watch as part of Harlem’s exotic nightlife (Rowan, Long, and Johnson, 2013). In 1923, with the increasing popularity of Balls, the state of New York criminalized the “homosexual adjuration”, reacting to the sexual relations between men. In March 1953, more than 3.000 contestants and viewers gathered

at Rockland Palace in Harlem to watch the men’s catwalk with women’s clothing, in front of judges, in the most unusual fashion show in the world. By the 1960s, the Ballroom subculture had begun to disintegrate racially. The Balls start to attract a balanced mix of participants, as in Rockland Palace, but African American queens had a very limited chance of winning. This has as a result to organize their Balls. The exaggeration and glamour in dresses rose to new levels. These dresses embodied the most baroque fantasies of the queens and all of them were made in sewing machines, in tiny apartments (Lawrence, 2011).

In 1972, the first “House” was founded when Lottie, a drag queen of Harlem, asked Crystal LaBeija to co-organize a Ball. Lottie and Crystal made the team and created the “House of LaBeija” and Crystal as the “mother” of the “House”. After this, a lot of other African American and Latinos queens started to create their “Houses” of their “Families”. Their “mothers” or “fathers” help their members to socialize, assisted each other and prepared for the Balls they organized or for those who would participate. The start of the organization of African American and Latinos Balls coincided with the culmination of the civil rights movement, while the creation of the “Houses” followed the growing influence of the gay liberation movement (Lawrence, 2011). Also, the “Houses” began to function as orphanages for discarded children. Children’s activities between the Balls allowed them to integrate, even if they did not care about dressing, but they wanted to escape of the misery, entertain and enjoy the warmth of the extended community, while some of them helped other members of the “House” to be prepared for the Ball (Roberts, 2007). As the “Houses” grew, the Balls were multiplied, because each house aspired to organize a ball, and in the 1980s it was organized one Ball every month. The preparation of the Ball was a huge challenge for both participants and organizers. Finally, the “Houses” became more and more competitive, and many of them accepted as new members only the persons who had walked into a Ball and they have won a prize (Lawrence, 2011).

Until the 1960s, the Ballroom subculture was in full force. At the same time, there were also organized Balls in Chicago. In the 1960s, Ball’s dominant look was shaped from cabaret style to high fashion. Later in the 1960s and 1970s, the Ballroom scene focused more on colorful men and transgender. The conservative values of the society have forced the gay and lesbian culture to develop underground, and the Balls were one of the few opportunities for the members of this oppressed society to come together (Rowan, Long, and Johnson, 2013).

The “Voguing” started in a nightclub where Paris Dupree had a Vogue magazine in her bag, and while she was dancing, she pulled it out, opened it on a page where a model posed and then stopped at the same pose with the rhythm of the music. Then she turned to the next page and stopped with the new pose, again at the rhythm. The challenge was answered immediately. Another Queen came and made another pose in front of Paris, and then Paris went in front of her and made a new pose at the rhythm of the music. This was called “throwing shade” as each one of them was trying to make a more beautiful and powerful pose from the other, and soon it passes on to the Balls. Its name at the beginning was “Pose” and then it renamed in “Voguing” from the Vogue magazine. African art and the Egyptian hieroglyphics inspires a lot of the



“Voguing” poses. Later, Queens incorporated the aesthetics of kung fu in it and the “Voguing” developed into a broken, crazy dashed dance. “Voguers” (participants of the “Voguing”) must have competitive instinct and athletic ability (Lawrence, 2011).

4. THE SOCIAL STRUCTURE OF THE BALLROOM SUBCULTURE

The “Houses” are social structures that offer family ties and functions as their members usually lack them, as they have been cut off their biological families (Rowan, Long, and Johnson, 2013). A “House”, usually, consists of a group of gay young people who are usually despised by ethnic communities and their biological families and found themselves on the road. “Houses” are a creative response to poverty, unemployment, and discrimination, providing support and a particular culture to their members (Susman, 2000). These “Houses” became necessary when the African Americans or Latino gay Queens of the working class had to cut off by their biological families. Their families could not accept their sexual choices, and they were forced out of their homes. Those who did not form their gangs organized their “Houses”. “Houses” became more important with the growing range of AIDS in the early 1980s (Thomas, 2012).

“Houses” provide a safe place and a family structure for the young homeless children who were rejected by their biological families. During a Ball, the “Houses” function as sports teams. Although competition is the basis of a Ball, the animation of the dance floor culture is the creative community experience. For the children who are a hate target in the outside world, the catwalk if the Balls are a safe place to express their creativity and talent, to feel wonderful and those they belong somewhere (The Standard, 2015). “Houses” provide social and material support to their members, and especially the sense of participation. “Houses” can be real places where members live together, but they conventionally suggest the existence of a group. Each “House” is assigned family roles to its members, such as mother, father, children, etc., regardless of the biological sex and the level of masculinity. The “mothers” of the house usually provide care to the members, and the “fathers” usually have a role in guiding the members of “their” families, the responsibility for preserving the values and defending the reputation of the “House” (Rowan, Long, and Johnson, 2013). “Children” can change homes and some of them often do it. There are no conditions for joining a “House” except for the approval of the “mother” and the “father”. A “House” can accept a “child” who is fond of its members or the members of the “House” think that he/she can win trophies. The name of the “House” is chosen by its “mother” and reflects the values the community appreciates, particularly fashion and its achievements. Some “Houses” names are Armani, Aphrodite, Armani, Chanel, Divine, Ebony, Escada, Genesis, Infiniti, Karan, Milan, Mizrahi, Prestige, Tuscany, Ultra-Omni and Xtravaganza. Inside the Ballroom Subculture, the “children” take the name of their home as their surname (Susman, 2000).

“Houses” are traditionally taking their names from the name of famous fashion designers such as “House of Chanel” or “House of Manolo-Blahnik”, or they named by legendary dance clubs such as “House of LaBeija” or “House of Xtravaganza”. As

a social unit, the Ballroom subculture is considered as a community of interest and sharing. This community is characterized by face to face relationships, mutual interest and self - help, and as a place where people can share experiences and identities. The number of members of the Ballroom subculture in the USA is not known because of its underground nature and the way it evolves and differs in different cities. It is estimated that in urban centers, 2% to 10% of gay belong to it, such as in New York, Chicago, Baltimore, Washington, Los Angeles, Atlanta, Charlotte, Miami, and Houston (Rowan, Long, and Johnson, 2013).

A Ball is a complicate social event where members compete in the catwalk by categories, trophies, cash prizes and the most important, the right to boast for the victory. Balls offered to the most marginalized members of the society a space to escape the preconceptions of heterologous culture and let them participate in the illusion of being a superstar. Balls are organized in large venues such as music halls, hotel dance halls, and conference centers or low – cost places such as a car park, basketball courts and other large open spaces (Rowan, Long, and Johnson, 2013). A Ball is like a fashion show, with a long T shaped corridor (catwalk) in the center of the room. This catwalk is usually a delineated area of the floor, although it sometimes is elevated. Tables and chairs are on the sides of the catwalk, and there is a long table for the judges. The participants who are usually “walk” as members and representatives of “House”, enter the catwalk from the audience and move towards the judges. The judges decide according to individual preference but must follow the common aesthetic ideas of the subculture and impose the exact requirement of each category. Within the particular subdivision of his/her gender identity, a person can participate in categories for the most beautiful face, the sexiest body, the most skillful “Voguing”, and various types of walking on the catwalk (Susman, 2000). For the creation of a Ball, commentators and a DJ are also needed. An impromptu verbal duel between the DJ and the commentator gives cheer and optimism to Ball, and it sets the tone for each category. The commentator is a skillful “orator” who announces each category and commends the appearance of each contestant to keep high the public’s energy. The DJ carefully watches the commentator, and he/she stop and start the music according to his/her advice. The music in a Ball is chosen according to the themes of the catwalk contest categories. Some of the songs were written specifically for the Balls, in the appropriate slang (Susman, 2000). One of the best – known songs is “Masters at Work”, which has been redesigned and played hundreds of times by a thousand DJs. The dancers/participants usually use every fourth stroke in the song to perform the “suicide fall” on the floor, a specialized (and dangerous) movement where the dancers fall back on the floor resting on one foot (Chatterjee, 2018).

Viewers can be part of a Ball (except the participants). In the Ballroom subculture the most of the participants at a Ball are members of a “House”, but not everyone, as some viewers would also like to involve, excited by the competition and the celebration of the expression of identity. Participants usually walk on the catwalk one by one in their category. The participants who get a “ten”, they wait to “fight”; otherwise they are “cut off” and they deleted from that category for the night. When

all the participants have been rated, then the one with the highest scores “fight” each other. The level of success of a participant (member of a “House”) depends on his/her long term performance (Rowan, Long, and Johnson, 2013). A Ballroom participant can become a “legend” when he/she has won many trophies for a long time. It is a great honor to have the word “legend” before the name of a member, as “legends” are models for the younger members of the “House” and shape the story of the subculture. Through the mane, the members have a strong desire to increase the reputation of their “Houses”. Some famous “houses” are now closed, such as the “House of Dior”, while new ones are constantly opened, such as the “House of Tsunami”. The nature of the participants and the collective groups is quite fluid: people change their self – representations hourly and daily as they select to participate in different categories through a Ball. The participants should not wear the same costume more than one time, as it is considered, unfortunately (Rowan, Long, and Johnson, 2013).

5. FASHION IN THE BALLROOM SUBCULTURE

Fashion plays a dominant role in Ball, as it is a fashion event where different codes play and deal simultaneously. Creativity through imitation and recombination becomes self – sufficiency for the participants. Of course, in a Ball, a lot of emphases is put on women’s clothes, although half of the fashion categories are dedicated to men’s clothing. The practice of this subculture supports the theory that “adopts” many fashion designers: designers create styles that are desirable from the masses that people mimic them and wear them. The names of “Houses” show that fashion designers are considered people with fabulous gifts. The expensive clothing by recognized fashion designers (fashion labels) is valuable and is held in surprisingly large quantities in Balls, relative to the low financial situation of the most “children” (Susman, 2000). The fashion designer labels participants worn on the Balls are obtained through theft, credit card fraud, temporary purchase (clothes are returned the next day), borrowing from others and, sometimes, direct purchase. “Children” learn how to be fashionable from one another and the massive marketing of elite fashion, and still they create remarkable fashion innovations. “Children” watch fashion shows on TV, get updated on new designs from fashion magazines and examine the clothes in fashion boutiques. A lot of the “Houses” have their fashion designer. The “Houses” that have not can borrow them from other “Houses” to create individual and group “costumes”. The clothes made by “House” designers mention the trends of the dominant fashion and usually is a reinterpretation of them. Design and creativity reach at high levels during the carnival, so in the “Bizarre” category many costumes are pieces of art as they are sculptures with moving parts. “Bizarre” category demands of the participant to transform into a fantastic being through clothes and fashion practice becomes the practice of magic. Clothes in this category often tend to be similar to the one of science fiction or comic book heroes, but with a particular interpretation (Susman, 2000).

Low and middle classes create and adopt remarkable and imaginative ways of dressing. These “new” ways increasingly affect the prevailing fashion trends for

all men. Those who mimic high fashion, become imitations of high fashion as well (Hollander, 1993). Within a hostile social context, this subculture confirms both individual and group identity, following the aesthetics, ethics and politics trends. Some of these identities directly trigger the hegemonic ideas about power and status (Susman, 2000).

A Ball is similar to a fashion show, as there is a catwalk, limitation to the movements, focus on the appearance and rewards for the most creative and fashionable clothes. The term “House” in Ballroom subculture marks a family is borrowed from the fashion world. An interesting relationship that emerged from the contribution of the two worlds (Balls and Fashion) is the evolution of “Voguing” dance. In the 1960s fashion shows in the USA and Europe, the models danced and ran on the catwalks. The so-called “photographic” model began to walk, taking impressive authoritarian poses as if it were for a fashion photo shoot. The model had become the focus of the fashion industry and not just an accessory of it (Craik, 1994). During this period “Voguing” created and an indisputable force of violence has been added on it from the beginning as a substitute for competition. An essential difference between a fashion show and a Ball is that any viewer in a Ball can compete. Fashion has the qualities of a somewhat fuzzy interactive code without rules, so it is not quite clear how the clothes make any sense. In the world of Balls, the major means by which fashion articulates its ambiguous language is the “walking” on the catwalk. The relationship between fashion and “Voguing” is even stronger when fashion serves as an action. Many participants in a Ball walk on the catwalk by combining choice and need: exploring their ability to create, trying to discover new families and reform their bodies. They should take a simple garment, sit on the sewing machine and turn it into a magnificent dress/cloth to be rewarded. All these are crucial for their survival (Susman, 2000). In Ball, the way that the participants chose to wear a set of clothes is important. They combine them to their body movement, to bring the potential for power and the identity which are embedded in a lifeless fabric. Without the action, the movement and the dance cannot be understood how fashion gives meaning to Ball. A set of clothes should not be separated from the kinesthetic. For example, the attempt to claim an identity cannot be understood without the physical sense of the place that someone creates a “performance”. This “performance” becomes more vital during a Ball. A garment framed with modern complementary accessories and comes into life by the participant who walks “in” it on the catwalk (Susman, 2000).

6. THE DIFFERENT TYPES OF “VOGUING”

The technics of “Voguing” change rapidly, like fashion trends. Today there are three basic types of “Voguing”: a) the Old Way, b) the New Way and c) the “Vogue Femme”. “Old Way” and “New Way” developed in different seasons. The “Old Way” is the dance style that uses poses strongly inspired by Vogue Magazine’s, extreme “catwalking”, and was popular during the 1980s. The “New Way” appeared in the 1990s, it is a development of the Old Way, and it requires greater elasticity and



contractions of the feet. The type “Voguing” somebody can see on Madonna’s video clip “Vogue” is a combination of the two styles (Chatterjee, 2018). During “Old Way Voguing” the dancer gets impressively poses after another. The “New Way Voguing” as a dance consists of transitions between stops. The dancer can do rapid movements of swirling hands and swoops on the ground with a sleek, sophisticated, unstable move. Dancers’ bodies move in ways that remind Bruce Lee movements, Egyptian hieroglyphics, Nike advertisements, and Kama Sutra positions (Susman, 2000). In a Ball, in addition to the gender-related categories and other competition categories of role renditions evolved. For example, a continuously developing category is the “BQ vogue fem”, which is a development of the “Old Way” techniques combined with the “new way” type.

Since 1995, “Vogue Femme” has evolved into a dramatic, completely feminine “Voguing” style. The “Vogue Femme” is a dance performance that uses the elements of fashion combined to hands movements, and it often tries to narrate a story (Rowan, Long, and Johnson, 2013). This type of “Voguing” consists of a combination of movements, such as the “catwalk” (which is feminine walk where legs are crossed one on another, hips are pushed from side to side and hands move to the opposite direction of the legs) (Maciejowska, 2017) and the “duckwalk” (which is a movement of crouching and foot sliding that requires balancing on the feet balls) (The House of Naphtali, 2005). During “duckwalk”, the dancer walks like a duck, like in the traditional Russian folk dance. At “Vogue Femme” dancers, also, do spins often performed in ballet and dips on the floor known as “suicide dips”, or as “sha-wam”. It is also called “sha-wam” because when a dancer performs a “suicide dip”, the commentator shouts “sha-wam”. The “Vogue Femme” divided into soft and dramatic (Rowan, Long, and Johnson, 2013).

7. CONCLUSION

The Ballroom subculture describes a part of the underground LGBT subculture in the USA, whose members “walk” and dance for prizes at events known as Balls. During a Ball they compete in categories, trying to attribute a gender identity and a social class. The participants of a Ball are members of a “House”. The “Houses” are LGBT groups established under the “mother” (the most of the times a transgender person) and the “father” of the “House”. Except the support provision that “Houses” give to their members, they compete with others “Houses” in the “Balls”, where their members are judged on dancing skills, costumes, looks, and attitudes. Participants dress up according to the category they compete in. The Balls are inextricably linked with fashion, luxury, and social and economic mobility. It is a tradition that began in the 19th century and continues in the 21st century. “Voguing”, is a type of the dance that became known of Madonna’s video clip for her song “Vogue” (1990). This type of dance was created on the streets of Harlem from the street subcultures during the 80s, and the fanciful hand movements easily recognize it. The dramatic movements of the hands and feet are based on classical ballet, jazz, and modern dance techniques.

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THE EFFECT OF ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE ON EMPLOYEE WELL-BEING: WORK-RELATED STRESS, EMPLOYEE IDENTIFICATION, TURNOVER INTENTION

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ABSTRACT

Purpose

Direct and indirect costs of work-related stress can be measured in both humanistic and financial terms. In Hungary and the other Central and Eastern European countries chronic stress-related diseases, like depression, premature cardiovascular illnesses, and overall mortality rates are higher in comparison to western countries, primarily among men. The vast majority of the adult population is employed in some capacity and the average person spends more time working than in any other waking activity. Working conditions can exert influence on employee well-being. The present study aimed to explore the relationship between the perceived type of organizational culture (team, adhocracy, market, hierarchy) and employee well-being (perceived work-related stress, organizational identification, and turnover intention)

Design/Methodology

Employees (N= 256) from different Hungarian companies (Study 1) and employees (N= 112) from Hungarian information technology firms (Study 2) completed a questionnaire battery measuring demographics, perceived organizational culture (OCAI), work-related stress (CSP), job satisfaction (JSS), and turnover intention (TIS-6).

Results

Our results show that the perceived organizational culture can significantly influence employees' well-being as reflected in their perceived stress level, turnover intention, and organizational identification.

Limitations

Our study is cross-sectional and explorative. Common method bias could overestimate the results due to the use of self-reported measures.

Research/Practical Implications

Decreasing chronic stress factors and increasing employees' well-being are common objectives in the 21st century. In relation to these objectives, the present study provides information on employee well-being and optimal working conditions focusing on the fastest-growing industry.

KEYWORDS:

well-being, work-related stress, organizational culture, mental health, organizational identification, turnover intention, IT-industry

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INTRODUCTION

Workplaces are important participants in society. Besides their economic importance, they influence several factors at an individual, community and society level. People spend most of their active time working (Aamondt, 2012); suitable physical, and social work environments, protective working conditions ensure adequate employee motivation and performance (Lamb et al., 2016; Renee, 2008), and the return on investments in health and safety at work is more than twice as much as the invested amount (International Social Security Association, 2013). These findings motivate modern companies to invest in employees' well-being. This motivation is particularly pronounced in industries such as information technology (IT) where the retention, motivation and satisfaction of employees with expertise and experience are key factors in long-term business success (Sageworks, 2016).

However, employees' well-being is a social issue as well. More than 300 million people suffer from depression globally (WHO, 2018). Considering health prospects in Eastern Europe and particularly in Hungary, all opportunities possibly improving well-being at a societal level should be exploited (Eurostat 2015).

The present study focused on protective factors related to organizational culture that influence employees' well-being at the workplace.

Well-being

The World Health Organization defines mental health as "a state of well-being in which every individual realizes his or her own potential, can cope with the normal stresses of life, can work productively and fruitfully, and is able to make a contribution to her or his community" (WHO, 2004). Conditions at the workplace such as basic hygiene factors (Herzberg, 2004), the quality of communication, information flow, social support, and having regard for individual abilities are closely related to the extent to which employees' experience that their workplaces meet the criteria set in the above definition. (Read and Lashinger, 2015; Kowalski et al., 2011)

Mental well-being poses one of the greatest challenges to societies in the 21st century. The European Union established priority areas in mental health and well-being in 2008, one of which areas is prevention and intervention at the workplace (European Commission, 2008).

Employee well-being is a multifaceted and fluid concept whose understanding largely varies across organizations and countries. Some of the factors that previous studies consistently found to be associated with workplace-related and personal well-being are value-based working environment and leadership style, open communication and dialogue, teamwork and cooperation, clear and coordinated objectives, flexibility, balance between business and personal life, and fair salary and benefits (Kraybill, 2003). A low level of perceived work-related stress, a high level of organizational identification, and a low level of turnover intention are among the most frequently applied criteria for employee well-being in the European Union (Buffet et al., 2013). The present study also used these measures as the indicators of employee well-being.

Work-related stress

Our first study focuses on employees' perceived stress, since the disproportionate mortality and comorbidity rates in Hungary are primarily attributed by several authors to chronic stress (Kopp et al., 2004, 2006). Indices of mental and physical well-being and mortality rates are worse than would be predicted by socio-economic factors. According to the 2015 Eurostat survey, the so-called Central-Eastern European health paradox is still observable. Several international research teams point out that chronic stress and mental or behavioural factors have essential importance in this phenomenon (Cornia & Paniccià; Meslé, 2002; Weidner & Cain, 2003; Meslé, 2004; Kopp et al., 2007). The related studies also draw attention to the direct importance of new forms of employment widespread in developed societies (WHO), and particularly to the importance of psychosocial factors. People are exposed to these effects in smaller and larger communities where they spend most of their time, and the workplace has primary importance in this respect.

In sum, work-related stress is a form of stress to which individuals are exposed at the organization or during work, and which impairs their quality of life and often leads to severe diseases or tragedies. There are diverse sources of stress at the workplace such as time pressure, lack of autonomy, role ambiguity, conflicts in cooperation, lack of supervisor's support, lack of appreciation (Toppinen-Tanner, 2011), and perceived instability and unpredictability of one's employment with an organization, that is, a high level of perceived job insecurity (Probst & Lowler, 2006)

Findings reported by Kivimäki and Siegrist (2016) show that work-related stress may increase the risk and symptoms of cardiovascular disease and atherosclerosis over time. A significant relationship between job insecurity and coronary heart disease was revealed in a cohort study by Ferrie and colleagues (2013). In a similar vein, a comprehensive study by Kiss, Polonyi and Imrek (2018) points out the effects of chronic stress on physical and mental health and its relationship with the burnout syndrome. It is also worth considering the economic side of the problem, that is, the financial costs of an employee's health impairment. In a recent EU-funded project carried out by Matrix (2013), the costs work-related depression in Europe were estimated at €617 billion annually. The total amount included costs to employers resulting from absenteeism and presenteeism (€272 billion), loss of productivity (€242 billion), health care costs (€63 billion), and social welfare costs of disability benefit payments (€39 billion; European Agency for Safety and Health at Work, 2014).

Organizational culture

Workplace-related experiences of members of an organization are distilled into their perceived organizational culture. Organizational culture is a cohesive social force that supports internal integration and adaptation to the external environment (Daft, 2008). It is a shared system of beliefs and way of thinking established by the leaders and founders and accepted by all members of the organization (Klein, 2006). Hofstede (2008) uses the analogy of an operating system suggesting that culture as a software enables people to function as hardware. This is a dynamic interaction between the environment and the individuals. Employees construct a

shared social reality in their interactions with colleagues at the workplace, which has an impact on their beliefs, emotion regulation and behaviour in certain situations. A stable organizational culture is based on a well-defined system of values (Schein, 2004). This system of values influences members' work style, communication and openness within the organization, their opportunities to foster community life and to realize their potential, and many other everyday organizational practices that have an impact on employees' well-being.

Numerous types of organizational culture models and several organizational culture assessment instruments have been proposed in the literature. One of the most commonly used organizational culture model is The Competing Values Framework (CVF, Quinn and Rohrbaugh, 1983). This model focuses on leadership styles, organizational cultures and competencies while taking account of employees' values. The objectives organizations pursue to increase efficiency and productivity are based on various values. The authors used the operating characteristics of efficient organizations to define the axes of the CVF. The vertical axis is defined by the two poles of flexibility and control, while the poles of the horizontal axis are internal and external focus. The two axes define four different types of cultures: team culture, adhocracy, market culture, and hierarchy.

Hierarchy is the earliest and most permanent type of culture, which is characterized by bureaucracy. It ensures predictability and security for employees, who are assigned well-defined specific roles. In this type of culture, employees are primarily expected to observe the rules and to have respect for formal positions. Hierarchy is placed on the controlled pole because employees are regularly supervised. The priorities of this type of culture are predictability, order, stability and balance, which are ensured by continuous documentation and stabilization. Leaders' primary functions are coordination and monitoring (Denison & Spreitzer, 1991; OCAI online, 2012; Sherman et al., 2014)

A market culture considers the organization as an economic entity, which pursues rational interests and focuses on profits, productivity and efficiency. Employees have more autonomy and scope for personal development, while the tasks and objectives are clearly defined. This type of culture is also highly controlled but externally focused. Its priorities are productivity, efficiency and performance improvement. Leaders are directors on one hand, who fulfil a coordinating function, and producers on the other hand, focusing on productivity. (Denison & Spreitzer, 1991; OCAI online, 2012; Sherman et al., 2014)

A more recent development is the innovation-oriented adhocratic culture, which has taken a definite shape over the past decades. This type of culture usually develops in organic and open systems or at matrix organizations. Its primary advantage is its adaptability. It focuses on innovation, creativity and risk taking. Information flow is open in this culture, and members are motivated and supported rather than controlled. This culture is ideal for those with a strong need for personal development, since this is its highest priority. It is an externally focused and flexible culture, which often relies on external resources. Leaders themselves are also innovators or brokers. (Denison & Spreitzer, 1991; OCAI online, 2012; Sherman et al., 2014)

A team culture focuses on human relations. This culture prioritizes agreement, coordination and teamwork. It assigns high importance to both commitment and personal development. Decision making is not leaders' sole responsibility, but other members are also involved and informed. This type of culture meets the needs for communion and learning. It is internally focused and flexible. Leaders are mentors and facilitators. (Denison & Spreitzer, 1991; OCAI online, 2012; Sherman et al., 2014)

Organizational culture and well-being

The way employees perceive their work environment and organizational culture has essential importance in their well-being, health, and enjoyment and quality of work (Hellriegel & Slocum, 1974; Kane-Urrabanzo, 2006). Employee well-being can be measured by factors such as sick leave rates, fatigue, and absenteeism (Peterson & Wilson, 2002).

San Park and Hyun Kim (2009) examined how different types of organizational culture are associated with job satisfaction and turnover intention among hospital nurses in South Korea. Their findings highlight the impact of consensual culture, which had a significant positive association with nurses' job satisfaction. This type of culture is synonymous with the team culture in that it is centred around teamwork, and it lays special focus on the human condition and employees' problems. In addition, consensual culture exhibited the strongest, negative association with nurses' turnover intention, while hierarchical culture showed a significant positive association.

A case study of the Saudi Arabian banking sector explored the four organization culture types proposed by Cameron and Quinn (2002). The authors found that team culture showing the strongest correlation with job satisfaction followed by adhocracy, hierarchy and market culture (Aldhuwaihi, Shee, & Stanton, 2012).

Janna (2016) explored which types of organizational culture were most closely related to variations in employees' work-related stress, self-perceived productivity, and enjoyment of work. Multivariate analyses showed that the type of organizational culture was significantly related to all dependent measures. Employees working in a team culture reported the lowest levels of stress and the highest levels of productivity and enjoyment, followed by those working in adhocratic, hierarchical and market cultures.

Several studies suggest that one of the most important protective factors is the presence of social support, which is often associated with a team-oriented environment (La Rocco et al., 1980; Shortell et al., 2000; Glazer, 2001; Heaphy & Dutton, 2008; Pow et al., 2017).

As we can see, workplaces have an important role and responsibility in ensuring the necessary conditions for well-being at a societal level. One the major components of the organizational experiences is the perceived organizational culture. The present study was aimed at identifying those organizational conditions that would act as protective factors against work-related stress through the organizational culture.

METHOD

The Organizational Psychology Research Team of the University of Pécs, Hungary examined the relation between organizational culture (team, adhocracy, market, hierarchy) and employee well-being along two studies.

Study 1

In the first study we conducted a study with 256 employees on the impact of organizational culture on employees' perceived stress. Considering that several studies focused on the impact of chronic stress and psychosocial risk factors on the prevalence of various health conditions in Hungary, the hypothesis of the present study was formulated as follows.

Hypothesis

SIH1: Organizational culture has an impact on the level of stress perceived by employees. Based on previous research (e.g. Janna, 2016) we predict that lowest levels of perceived stress will be found in Team cultures, while highest perceived stress levels will be characteristic for Hierarchy cultures.

Sample

A total of 256 employees from Hungarian companies participated in the study. Of the overall sample, 57.8% (n=148) were males and 42.2% (n=108) were females. Participants' age ranged from 20 to 65 years (M=40). Tertiary education was completed by 24.5% and secondary education by 29.3%. The majority of participants had a permanent residence in a town (42.7%).

Procedure

An online questionnaire was administered to adult employees who were employed at the time of data collection.

Instruments

Participants completed an online questionnaire anonymously. They provided demographic data first, then they completed the Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI; Cameron & Quinn, 2002) and the Coping and Stress Profile (CSP) by Olson (1991).

The requested *demographic data* included participants' age, gender, employer and position at the company. Furthermore, participants provided information on how they acquired the skills and knowledge required for their jobs.

Organizational culture was measured with the *Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI)* developed by Cameron and Quinn (2006), which is based on the authors' Competing Values Framework (Cameron & Quinn, 1999). The OCAI is widely used in the business sector as well as by educational institutions and non-profit organizations. The OCAI identifies the values perceived as dominant at a specific organization. The questionnaire consists of 6 set of items, each set comprises 4 items, and each item within a set describes a specific type of culture. Respondents are requested to distribute 100 points among the four items on each dimension according to the extent to which they think each item applies to their workplace. The mean scores obtained for the four types of cultures (Team, Adhocracy, Market and Hierarchy cultures) are used to describe the culture of the

specific organization. Team culture is described by 'A' items, adhocracy by 'B' items, market culture by 'C' items, and hierarchy by 'D' items. Characteristics of the four types of cultures are discussed in the introduction above.

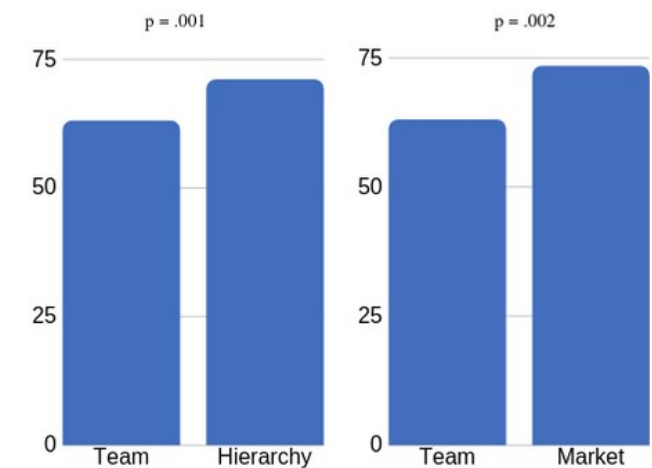
Employees' perceived stress was assessed with the 28-item Work-related Stress Scale of the Coping and Stress Profile (CSP) by Olson (1991). The CSP is a self-report measure based on the theory of salutogenesis, that is, the measure provides information on respondents' well-being. Lower scores represent more adaptive coping strategies. Respondents rate each Likert item on a 5-point scale, and the sum of the item scores is calculated for each respondent.

Results

In accordance with the hypothesis, the statistical data analysis focused on possible differences between the above discussed four types of culture (team, adhocracy, market, hierarchy) in the average level of stress perceived by employees. The data were analysed with the IBM SPSS Statistics 20 software. Participants' scores on the OCAI were used to compute a variable for the dominant organizational culture, in which the four cultures were coded with four different values (team culture = 1; adhocracy = 2; market = 3; hierarchy = 4). Dominant organizational culture was entered in the statistical analysis as the independent (grouping) variable and total score for the CSP as the dependent variable. Since the four subsamples sorted under the four types of culture did not meet the assumption of homogeneity of variance (primarily because few participants perceived adhocracy as the dominant culture), the non-parametric equivalent of the one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to test the hypothesis.

The results of the Kruskal-Wallis test showed that the four groups of employees' sorted by organizational culture perceived significantly different levels of stress ($F(3,256) = 6.834, p < .001$), which confirmed the hypothesis.

The post hoc pairwise comparisons of the Kruskal-Wallis test indicated a significant difference in employees' perceived stress between the team (M = 62.98) and hierarchy cultures (M = 71.04, $p = .001$), and between the team and market cultures (M = 73.37, $p = .002$).



SIH1: Organizational culture has an impact on the level of stress perceived by employees ($F(3,256) = 6.834, p < .001$).

Culture type (OCAI)	M	SD	Cronbach's alpha	Pearson's correlation with perceived stress (CSP)
Team	181.28	113.87	.85	-.32**
Adhocracy	92.09	54.16	.62	-.12
Market	124.51	98.99	.85	.25**
Hierarchy	200.76	113.88	.81	.16*

1. Table Descriptive statistics, reliabilities and correlations between the variables in Study 1

Table 1 shows the descriptive statistics, reliabilities and correlations between OCAI scales and perceived stress. Linear regression analyses were used to investigate how the scores on different culture type dimensions relate to perceived work-related stress. Team culture type was a significant negative predictor of perceived stress ($\beta = -0.32$, $t(254) = 44.04$; $p < 0.01$). Participants with higher scores on perceived team culture showed lower levels of workplace stress. ($R^2 = 0.11$; $F(1, 254) = 29.86$; $p < 0.01$)

STUDY 2

The second study also focused on the impact of organizational culture on employees' experiences at, and attitudes towards, the workplace. However, this study was targeted at a specific industry (information technology) where employee retention and satisfaction, and organizational identification are key factors in business success due to the high levels of labour shortage. Employee turnover is a particularly sensitive issue in this sector, since new employees usually need to be trained to fulfil the specific requirements related to the job and the target market. Employees who change companies within a short time practically transfer the assets invested in their training to the competition. For this reason, business success is clearly related to the time and energy invested in employees' identification and satisfaction with the organization.

Employees ($n = 112$) from 8 Hungarian IT companies completed a questionnaire battery measuring demographics, perceived organizational culture, organizational identification, and turnover intention. Based on previous findings, the hypotheses of the present study are focused on the relationship between two aspects of organizational culture and employee well-being, namely, identification and turnover intention.

Hypotheses

S2H1: Employees working for an organization with a team culture show higher levels of identification with the organization than those working in other types of culture.

S2H2: Employees working for an organization with a team culture show lower levels of turnover intention than those working in other types of culture.

Sample

A total of 112 employees from Hungarian IT companies participated in the study. Of the overall sample, 82.1% ($n=92$) were males and 17.9% ($n=20$) were females. Participants' age ranged from 21 to 55 years ($M = 33.4$). By position, most participants including 73 men and 19 women (82.1%) worked as subordinates, while 10 men and 1 woman worked as middle managers (9.8%) and 9 men as senior managers (8.0%).

Procedure

An online questionnaire was administered to adult employees who were employed at the time of data collection at an IT company.

Instruments

Besides the demographics and OCAI questionnaire described under Study 1, we used a measure of organizational identification and a measure of turnover intention.

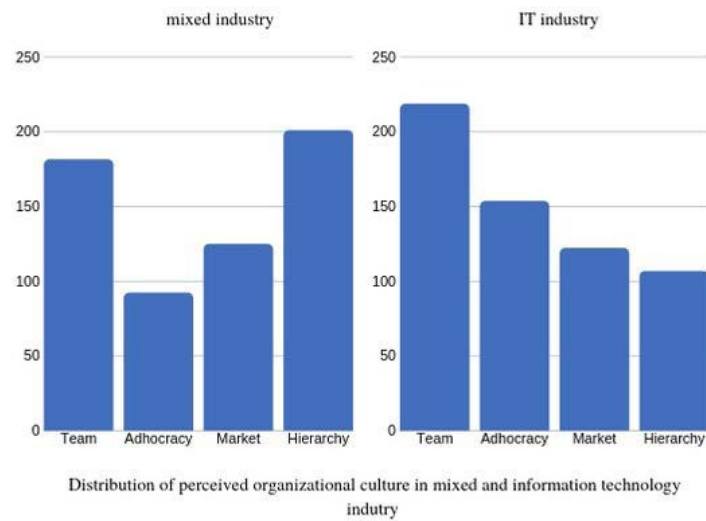
Aron and colleagues (1991) operationalized group identification as the perceived overlap between the group and the self. The larger the overlap, the stronger the identification. Their instrument measures the strength of identification by means of Venn diagrams (7 pairs of circles). That is, identification is practically measured by a graphical representation of the perceived overlap between the organization and the self. Respondents are requested to mark the pair of circles which best reflects the extent to which they identify with their organization. Each pair of circles is assigned to one point of a 7-point scale ranging from 1 to 7. The lowest level of identification is represented by the first pair of circles corresponding to 1 on the scale, while the highest level of identification is represented by the seventh pair of circles assigned to 7. This measure is often used to assess identification with one's organization and other groups (Tropp & White, 2000).

The validated short version of the Turnover Intention Scale (TIS-6; Bothma & Roodt, 2013) consists of 6 items, which assess employees' intention to leave or stay at their current organization. Respondents rate each Likert item on a 5-point scale according to the extent to which they agree with the item.

Results

Independent samples *t*-tests were conducted to compare mixed employees and IT employees for their OCAI scores, which revealed differences in the distribution of various types of perceived culture. IT employees scored significantly higher on team culture ($M = 218.3$) than mixed employees ($M = 181.2$; $t(111) = -3.837$, $p = .000$). Similarly, IT employees scored significantly higher on adhocracy ($M = 153.2$) than mixed employees ($M = 92.09$; $t(111) = -10.222$, $p = .000$). No significant difference was found in the perceived level of market culture ($t(111) = -0.350$, $p = .727$). Perceived hierarchy also showed a highly significant difference, on which IT employees scored lower ($M = 106.5$) than mixed employees ($M = 200.7$; $t(111) = -14.060$, $p = .000$).

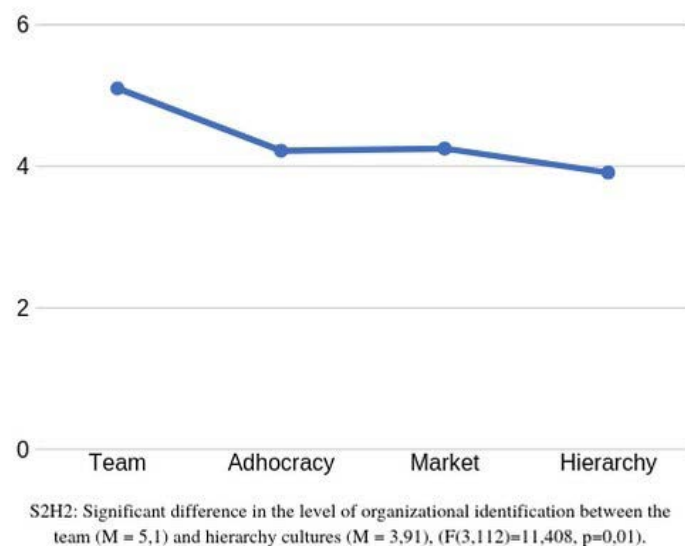
In sum, the findings showed that mixed employees and IT employees perceived different organizational cultures. IT employees reported a much higher level of team culture at their companies as compared to mixed employees.



Perceived organizational culture and identification

A Kruskal-Wallis test was conducted to test the effect of organizational culture on organizational identification, since the result of Levene's test indicated that the data did not meet the assumption of homogeneity of variance ($p = .007$). The results revealed significant differences in organizational identification between the groups with different dominant cultures ($F(3,112) = 11.408, p = .01$). The post hoc pairwise comparisons of the Kruskal-Wallis test indicated that the team culture was associated with significantly higher levels of organizational identification than adhocracy ($p = .034$), the market culture ($p = .046$), and hierarchy ($p = .011$).

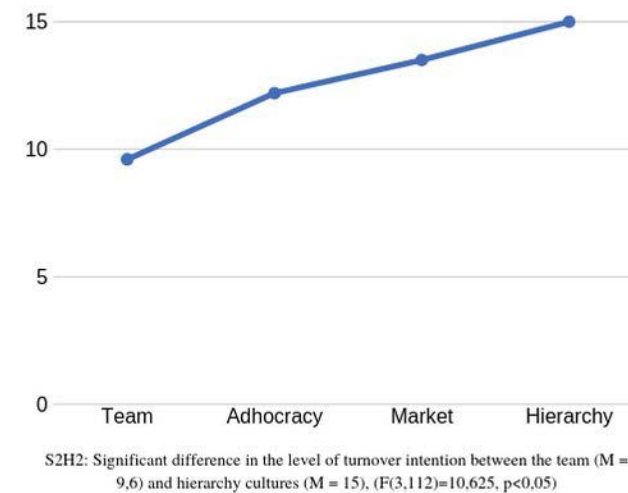
These results confirmed the hypothesis on organizational identification and corroborated previous findings on the protective function of the team culture.



Organizational culture and turnover intention

Since the data did not meet the assumption of homogeneity of variance, a Kruskal-Wallis test was conducted with organizational culture as the independent variable and turnover intention as the dependent variable. The results showed significant differences in turnover intention between the groups with different dominant cultures ($F(3,112) = 10.625, p < .05$).

The post hoc pairwise comparisons of the Kruskal-Wallis test indicated that the team culture was associated with significantly lower levels of turnover intention ($M = 9.6$ on a scale ranging from 6 to 30) than hierarchy ($M = 15.0; p = .004$). Adhocracy was associated with 12.2 and the market culture with 13.5 on average. No significant differences were found for these cultures.



The results suggest that long-term employee commitment is least likely at highly hierarchical organizations. This finding is consistent both with the above mentioned results and with previous related findings (Daulatram, 2003; Reis, Trullen, & Story, 2016).

Table 2 shows the descriptives, reliabilities and correlations between OCAI scales, organizational identification and turnover intention. Linear regression analyses were used to investigate how the scores on different culture type dimensions relate to organizational identification and turnover intention. Hierarchical culture type was a significant negative predictor of organizational identification. ($R^2 = 0,13; F(1, 110) = 16,12; p < 0,01$) Participants with higher scores on perceived hierarchy culture showed lower scores on organizational identification. ($\beta = -0,36, t(110) = 4,02; p < 0,01$) Turnover intention was significantly predicted by scores on team and adhocracy scales of the CQ. ($R^2 = 0,23; F(1, 110) = 16,28; p$

$< 0,01$) Participants who perceived their workplace as a team ($\beta = -0,46, t(110) = -5,39; p < 0,01$) and adhocracy ($\beta = -0,23, t(110) = -2,72; p < 0,05$) showed lower level of turnover intention.

CONCLUSIONS

The findings of the present study confirmed the hypothesis, which predicted significant differences between different types of organizational culture in employees' perceived stress, organizational identification and turnover intention.

A more detailed analysis of the data revealed that the observed effect on perceived stress was primarily related to the flexibility axis of the value-based model of organizational culture. Both hierarchic and market cultures are characterized by low levels of flexibility and high levels of control. The results suggest that a team culture is the most likely to provide protective factors that reduce the level of stress perceived by employees. Regression analysis also supports this findings, participants with higher scores on perceived team culture showed lower levels of workplace stress. An other result of our Study 2 supports the importance of flexibility. The team and adhocracy culture was associated with significantly lower levels of turnover intention.

It has to be noted that the results do not by any means reflect any differences between the different types of organizational culture in terms of productivity or desirability. Nevertheless, the results are in line with previous findings showing that employees working in a team culture reported higher levels of satisfaction and identification with the workplace.

Irrespective of the pursued activities, it is recommendable for organizations to adopt elements of a team culture, since actual organizational cultures always combine elements of different types. Certain characteristics of a perceived team culture can contribute to the prevention of harmful levels of work-related stress, thus they support employees in successful coping and in achieving and maintaining mental health. Most authors point out the importance of community, social support and job security as the primary factors underlying this protective effect (La Rocco et al., 1980; Shortell et al. 2000; Glazer, 2001; Heaphy & Dutton, 2008; Pow et al., 2017). Further related research is in progress, which is aimed at revealing those characteristics of team cultures that essentially contribute to the prevention of harmful levels of work-related stress, thus they support employees in successful coping and in achieving and maintaining mental health.

Another important finding concerning team cultures is that IT employees perceived a much higher level of team culture at their companies as compared to mixed employees. This finding suggests that the increasing dominance of the IT industry is accompanied by an increasing need for the benefits of a team culture and for certain underlying values. As we can see from the analyses, the level of turnover intention is lower in team and adhocracy, than in other types of culture. With autonomy and flexibility IT employees are planning for longer term. This finding supports other studies, which shows strong relation between team and adhocracy cultures and job satisfaction (Lund, 2003).

Regression analysis of the four culture types and organization identification raise our attention to the risky effect of perceived hierarchy and authority on workplaces. We can see that hierarchical culture type was a significant negative predictor of organizational identification.

Research on the IT industry has particular importance due to the increasing market demand for IT services and their role in national economies. The requirement of efficiency also motivates companies to develop an operational framework that enables them to meet market participants' and employees' needs. Future studies should focus on the characteristics of fast-growing industries, given the ever increasing labour demands in these industries. Beyond meeting basic hygiene requirements, organizational culture is becoming a key factor in labour attraction and retention.

Certain characteristics of a perceived team culture can contribute to the prevention of harmful levels of work-related stress, thus they support employees in successful coping and in achieving and maintaining mental health. Higher level of flexibility can effect lower level of turnover intention. In the other hand, certain characteristics of a perceived hierarchy culture can be risky in relation with the organizational identification. All these three aspects are important in labour attraction and retention, especially in the IT industry.

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Comparing Non-for-Profit vs. For Profit Education Institutions: A Case in Albania

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ABSTRACT

This paper will be focused on the education sector and the similarities and differences between non for profit education institutions and for profit ones. Private higher education institutions are usually created on a for profit basis, however an increasing number of them are nowadays non-for profit and they have grown exponentially in the last 60 years, becoming worldwide leaders of change and impact. Non for profit organization are based on a mission, and they are founded by a group of very dedicated people, with the ultimate goal to fulfill their mission, and not to make a profit. It should not be mistaken, however, that nonprofits cannot make a profit; they can, they should and they do, but the profit, unlike in for-profit organizations, does not go to the shareholders, it stays in the organization to ensure financial stability and to be reinvested within the organization. It is important to mention that non for profits always strive for cost control, as their profits are usually minimal, thus operating as efficiently as they can. They do nonetheless have several tax benefits that for profit organization do not have. We will look at and analyze financial statements for both non for profits and for profit entities in Albania and we will compare our findings with the worldwide tendencies. We will look at revenue streams: (government funding, services revenue, tuition, research, philanthropist funding and sponsorship) and analyze effectiveness and the impact and achievement of for and non for profit institutions.

KEY WORDS

Non for profit, for profit, cost control, profit, mission, education, effectiveness, revenue, financial analysis.



Different countries in the world have different objectives and missions in the non for profits organizations. Some countries have more non for profit funds invested in education, others in social justice, health, etc. Many non for profits, especially those based in USA and Canada, do international work where they provide assistance in disaster relief, reproductive health, etc.

This paper will, however, be focused mostly on education and the difference between non for profit education institutions and for profit ones. Private higher education institutions are usually created on a for profit basis, however an increasing number of them is now as a non for profit.

Not for profits organizations are created from a group of people who are very dedicated and for them, the mission is their priority. This organization type, despite not putting all their emphasis on profit, they are focused on reaching their goal and that is how they measure success.

In the American economy “where there are over 1.5 million nonprofit organizations, employing 10% of the workforce, and resulting in \$1.7 trillion of the US economy” not for profits are nowadays a very important part of the country’s economy.

The governance of non for profits is very important as it differs from those for profits. Non for profits have a board at their helm, which is a mostly a voluntary position. Board members are usually philanthropists, or successful executives at for profit organization, that volunteer their time to contribute in different roles in the board. Their reward is the organization’s success.

Similar with for profit organizations, non-for profits work even harder to a get sound financial situation, giving them the freedom to realize their planed programs. Those organizations usually have much deeper and detailed analyses starting from budgeting process, continuing on auditing each step of their performances until reporting the goal achievement.

Board members on this capacity, to be successful, should always ask these questions in order to ensure organizational success:

- Are they doing what is needed?
- How does the spending measure to reaching their mission?
- Are they being effective? How do they measure impact?
- Do we have enough revenue to cover expenses?
- How do we make decision on investments?
- How are donations handled?
- How can we measure the results of the mission?

The board plays an integral part in the management of the success of the organization. Normally the board members meet regularly for board meetings, where the look at the financial statements of the organization. The administrator of not for profit organization, reports directly to the board of directors and meets regularly with them. This kind of organization structure keeps the check and balances in place.

Non for profit organizations can be domestic or international; their mission can vary depending on the funding, the country’s needs etc. In Australia for example

non for profit organizations can vary from trade unions, charitable entities (such as churches), co-operatives, universities and hospitals. In Canada, non for profits focus on the relief of poverty and education. Worker’s unions and political parties in France operate as non for profits, and about 1.6 million people are employed in not for profits one . In Asia, such as in Hong Kong non for profits have a different mission of promoting art, science, religion, education, etc.

In most countries, education institutions, specifically, higher education, such as college and universities, operate as non for profit institutions. Founders of these institutions are passionate about advancing education in their countries and their mission is not focused on profit, but rather on achieving their mission. There are however, other higher education institutions that are founded as for profit entities, and they focus on making a profit that can be distributed to their shareholders. So how do these same institutions, that operate differently, compare?

Not for profit instructions, while they have lower profit margins, they do not have to pay taxes on their earnings (when they make a profit), whereas for profit institutions have to pay taxes based on the country they operate tax laws. While this is a decision that the founders make and they have different reasons for making them, the nature of the organization impacts the kind of services and their quality that they provide. So the question remains, what are the pros and cons of each type of institution?

“For profit institutions are created in this form, to be led by one person, the president or CEO.” Lyons, Mark (2001) The ultimate goal of a for profit institution is to maximize profits, and as a result they have to pay all taxes that the law mandates. Tuition is paid by the clients (students) like any other service payment. This type of organization is advantageous because it allows the owners to have control over every aspect of the organizations, and the owners can make adjustments to please their clients in order to keep their business. This can really impact the level and quality of the education, and sometimes it can be detrimental to the institution.”

Not for profits have a mission that makes an impact in the community. Being tax exempt, the donors are happy to make donations as they get a tax benefit. Furthermore, the students and their families are considered a part of the organization and they have a significant say in decision making which only makes the mission more achievable and the impact substantial.

In general, these nonprofit institutions have a board of directors, which ensures the operations go smoothly, and they are in compliance. The administrator of the University is chosen by the board of directors. The founder however, always keeps his title. The income from the tuition is reinvested in the University allowing it to grow and keep up with innovations.

Despite the differences between not for profits and for profits, the quality of the education is a measure of success. Some of the success criteria are: methods of teaching, successes, student satisfaction, etc.

If one is making a decision whether to do a for profit or a non profit education institution, some of the things to be considered are: the academic level, the hiring rate and jobs after graduation, and extracurricular activities. Other things to be considered are: what are the market demands and how are you responding? Can you manage your

funds well and efficiently? What kind of strategic planning are you following?

Each potential student should consider at least the following when making a decision on their university choice:

1. Acceptance rates. If a student is trying to get into college and does not have a very high average score, it would make sense for them to apply to a **for-profit college** with a high rate of acceptance. However, high acceptance rates are often tied to a lower quality of education.

If a school has low standards for students entering into a program with the college, it could mean that the college is only concerned about the revenue that comes from tuition. Classes will likely be overcrowded, and the intensity of academic programs may be reduced to allow students with lower grades and abilities to keep up with courses.

2. Tuition and fees. Financing an education is hard, and **for-profit colleges tend to be in the mid-range for tuition and fees.** For-profit colleges hire recruiters who are experts at convincing low-income students that they can afford to attend college by taking out **loans available through the school.**

What's wrong with this picture? Loans start to pile up quickly as students work their way through an academic program. It is not uncommon for college students to graduate with tens of thousands of dollars of debt. This debt is made worse when students drop out because coursework is beyond their abilities. Dropping out of college after amassing a large debt means that a person will be unlikely to find a job to pay their debts off.

3. Half of the tuition goes toward something other than academics to for profit. Non-profit schools are able to put much of the tuition money that is received from students toward hiring high-quality faculty members, establishing a curriculum that is in line with country-wide standards and developing extracurricular programs that enrich a student's overall academic experience.

For-profit schools need to attract students in order to turn a profit. This need to attract students means that for-profit colleges spend a lot of the tuition that is received from students on marketing and recruiting efforts, rather than innovation and other academic related matters.

4. Accreditation doesn't always mean that a for-profit college is reputable. Many for-profit colleges attract students by becoming accredited, but recent studies suggest that the accrediting bodies may not use stringent standards. Money may also be a motivator for accrediting bodies.

Self-reporting and peer reviews are two key aspects of the accreditation process. Unfortunately, for-profit colleges that are more interested in making money than providing a quality education for their students could be dishonest in the accreditation process. Students often find themselves struggling to find employment after graduating from a for-profit college with a shady accreditation.

Some for-profit colleges provide a quality education, but students must take it upon themselves to research these schools prior to choosing the right college for their needs. Rankings and reviews from past students are two tools that can make choosing a for-profit school easier.

Both types of organizations are built to give diplomas, but they differ because of the focus and the structural organizations.

The US statistics about non-for profit organization show:

On average non-for profit organization spend four times more than for profits in teaching cost of the colleges/universities.

The average annual tuition, after state grants, on for profit organization is about 20% higher than those that are non-for profit.

Only 28% of the students graduated from for profits universities in 4-year time compare with 65% on non-for profit universities.

Research and development funds in average per student are seven times higher on non-for profit then those for profit.

The main goal for non-for profit universities is the *student*, compared to the for profit institutions where their main goal is profit and their shareholders.

Lastly, but most importantly is *reputation*, and non for profits are superior.

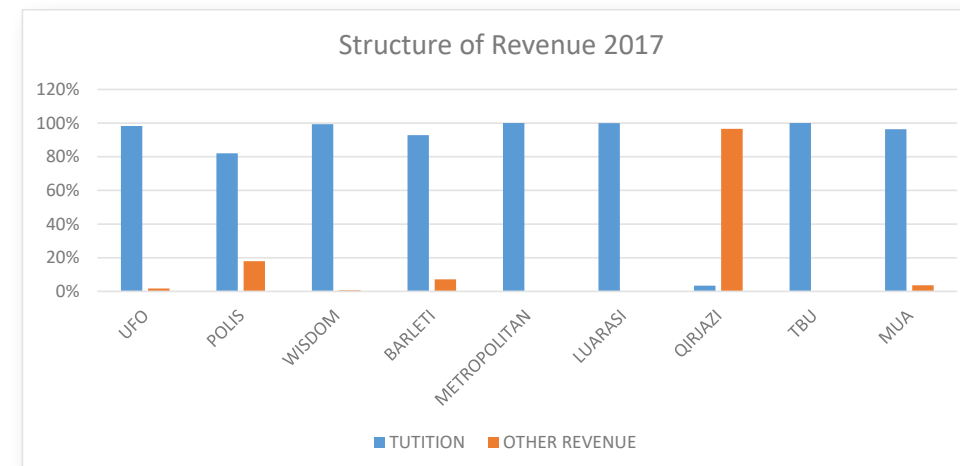
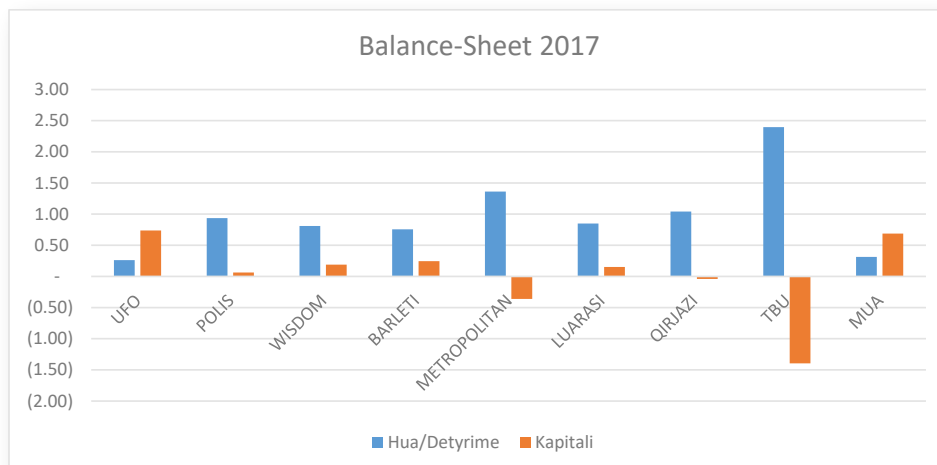
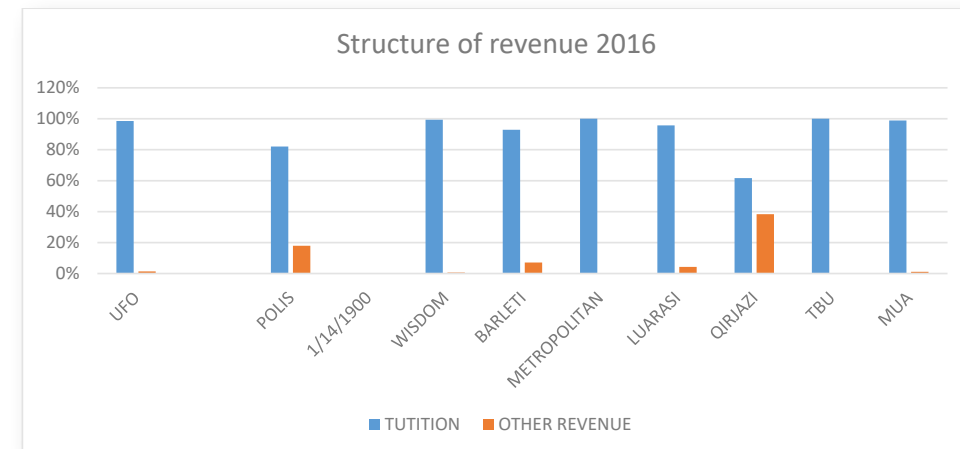
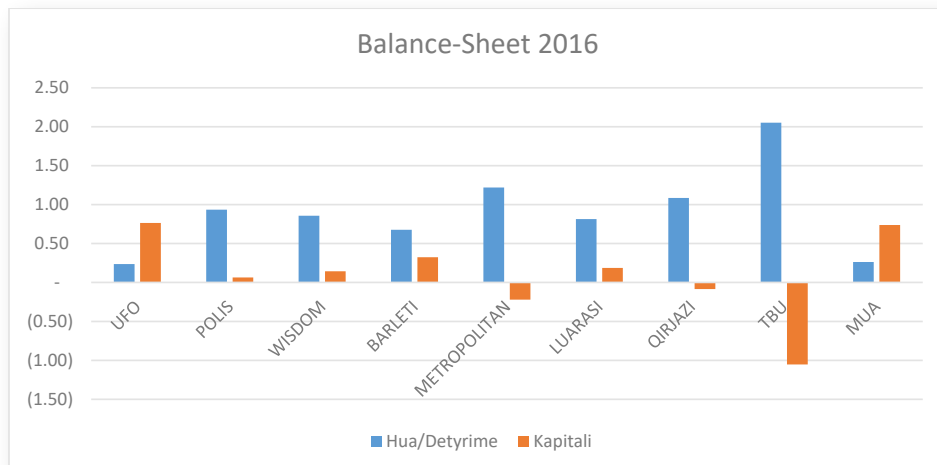
The table below shows the Albanian situation of universities/colleges. We do not have data from the public institutions but we will compare the private universities with one non-for profit university (there is only in the Country not affiliated with any other organization and founded from an Albanian academic).

We have analyzed nine institutions, from which only MUA is a non-for profit private organization, while the other eight are private for profit universities/colleges

Base data below:

Colleges/ Universities	Founded date	Year in activity	Paid In Capital 2017	Ownership	Changes ownership
UFO	16/09/2007	13	460,000.00	1 Owner	The same
POLIS	4/4/2006	14	3,289.00	4 co-owner	5 [1 sold]
WISDOM	17/05/2004	15	7,642.00	1 Owner	2 [1 sold]
BARLETI	6/12/2004	15	98,930.00	1 Owner	3 [1 sold]
METROPOLITAN	14/05/2009	10	[35,834.00]	1 Owner	2 [1 sold]
LUARASI	26/03/2003	16	61,000.00	GROUP	Sold 2014
QIRJAZI	25/02/2004	15	[11,708.00]	1 Owner	Sold 2016
TBU	1/6/2010	9	94,345.00	4 co-owner	4 [1 sold,1 bought]
MUA	14/02/2009	10	186,400.00	Non profit	Non profit

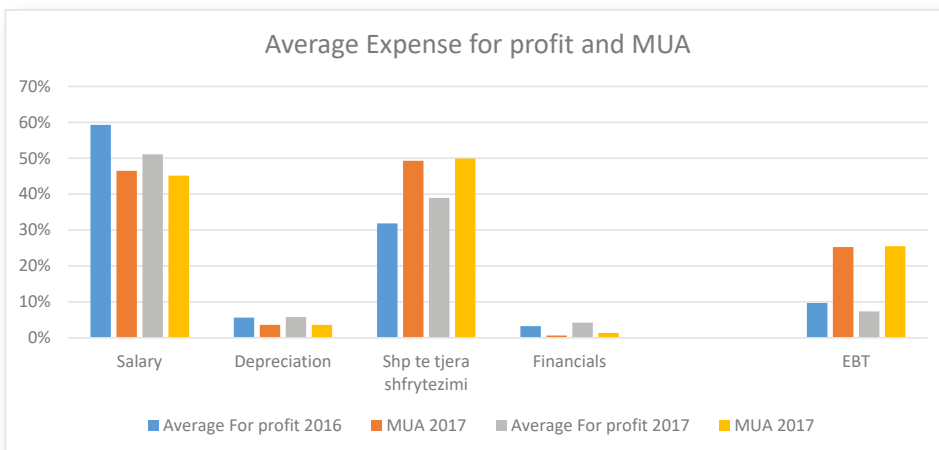
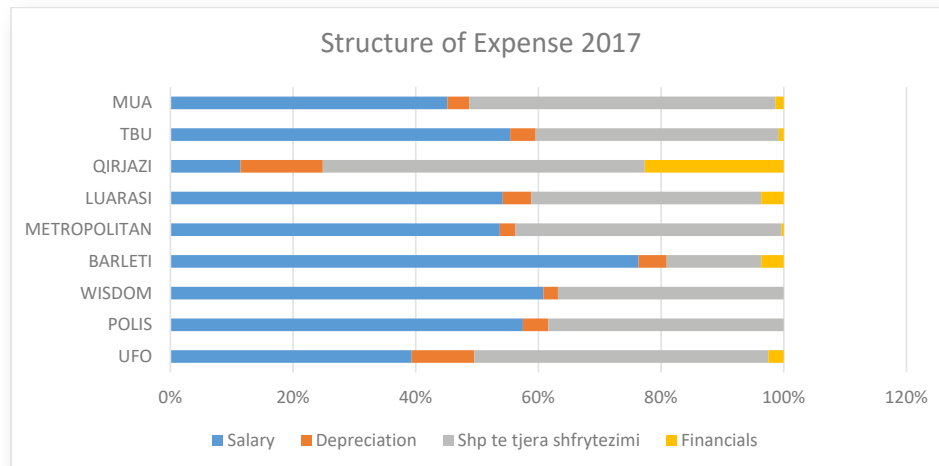
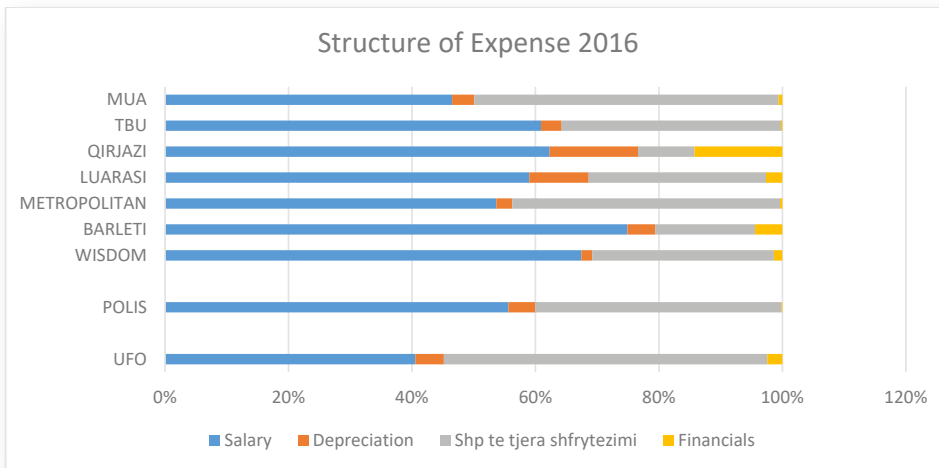




It is evident that most of the organizations heavily rely on liabilities. This is because those organizations withdraw their dividends at the end of year, while non-for profits let their profit reinvested in the organization. The only outlier is UFO University that represents the financial tables as a group as they have other activities in health services, trade, construction etc.

Analyzing the revenue, the major sources of revenue are tuition and fees. Looking at Qirjazi University, there is some abnormalities as it was almost nonfunctional in these 2 years.





Analyzing the average expenses in for profits and MUA, we can see that when we compare these two models, MUA spends a higher percentage of its revenue on academic investments than salaries. In addition, EBT is considerably higher, showing significantly better management and effectiveness.

Non-for profits vs. For Profits: What are the main differences?

Nonprofits are focused on the needs of the students, and ensuring high quality education that results in a successful career and job security for their future.

For profits are in business to yield profits and to serve their shareholders, while serving students as a secondary priority.

Revenues or education? What is the motivation?

Nonprofits do not have “owners” so they operate independently, allowing them to focus on the high quality of education and focus their attention on the wellbeing of the students.

For profits need to ensure their return of investments to their shareholders, so their focus is on profit, rather than on the success of their students.

Tuition and cost? Which one is pricier?

Nonprofits are more adaptable and usually competitive with the Public Universities tuition (tuition before being subsidized)

For profits are usually more expensive.

Leadership:

Nonprofits are led by a well selected staff with high academic achievements as well as a strong administration. The ultimate leadership; the board of directors have strong ties to the community and are leaders in the education field.

For profits are usually led by shareholders and their representatives.

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Digital Mobilization of Turkish Football Fans

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ABSTRACT

Nowadays football is more commercialized than ever. Turkey, which is a football country was also affected by this process of commercialization. Implementation of Passocard which enhanced state to monitor supporters, in Turkey has kept large groups of supporters out of the stadium. Passocard implementation has increased commercial and state surveillance on fans. In Turkey lighting torches, swearing in indiscrete at stadium were banned at stadiums. In addition to this commercialization, Turkish football has a binary hierarchy. On the one hand, the three Istanbul teams were supported by the capital owners, whereas Anatolian clubs are trying to stand on the other. This study is about Ankaragücü which is the team of the capital city Ankara football club and considered as an Anatolian team as well. In this particular research the digital mobility of Ankaragücü supporter will be discussed. The use of digital data will be discussed in three analytical phases by using digital ethnography as the main methodological tool in this study: First analytical phase will be Ankaragücü supporters' internal mobility in digital space; second phase will be Ankaragücü supporters' external mobility against Istanbul clubs in digital space, and last phase will be the construction of fan identity against the commercialization of football in digital space. Moreover we will examine the identity and culture of the fans who are transformed by digitalization and commercialization. We will attempt to understand how mobilization of fans' networks in digital space is utilized.

KEYWORDS:

Digital Mobilization, Fan Culture, Digital Ethnography, Identity, Ankaragücü

INTRODUCTION

Hilborough disaster which happened in April 15, 1989 was a determining momentum in the transformation of modern football into an industrial sector. "But at the same time 1989 was the year which was seismic, political and social shock to play a very important role in the economic transformation of football" (Montague, 2017: 27). This study aimed to reveal how the fans and the football has been affected at this historical moment, as Castells puts it, where we transformed into a community which is organized on webs after the passing 30 years. The subject of the study were the fans of Ankaragücü which is one of the oldest football teams in Turkey. The comments made by Ankaragücü fans on the day before and after the match were transcribed and interpreted through digital ethnography. As Dijk (2016) claimed internet itself has become the society, social and media webs has turned to be individual realities. Castells (2012) defined this new social field which is based on webs that were formed between the digital space and city space as an autonomous communication field.

Especially football and city space has started to transform into a digital appearance together with digitalization. Therefore, it would be a meaningful starting point for this study to examine a football team over digital space and to understand the types of mobilization of the fans on this space.

ANKARAGÜCÜ AND THE IDENTITY IT REPRESENTS

Ankaragücü became the team of the old city, hodmans of military manufacturing workshops (imalat-ı harbiye ameleleri) and, together with the squatting which had a great pace in 1950's, the "poor but proud", "loser but rebel" workers and non-workers living in these shanties, and as a result of these characteristics, lumpen inhabitants of the other new city (Hatipoğlu & Aydın, 2007:47). For the passing half century, the fans of Ankaragücü has kept this identity, and existed as a fan group which has never been accepted by distinguished people of Ankara. In other words, they have become the voice of losers.

Many great Turkish clubs were formed in the following few years including the three teams of Istanbul, known as The Big Three, Beşiktaş, Fenerbahçe and Galatasaray. The vast majority of Turkish fans support one of these teams (Keddie, 2018:10).

The Anatolian teams, which were in the shade of these three Istanbul teams for many years, has had the chance to express themselves with the help of digitalization. They tried to build paths to destroy the hegemony by forming friendships and formations together.

METHODOLOGY

Basic principles of digital ethnography include multiplicity, openness, reflexivity and being unorthodox (Pink, et.al. 2016:8-13). Part of the ways that digital ethnographers might reflexively engage their World is concerned with asking ourselves precisely

those questions about how we produce knowledge (Pink, et.al., 2016: 13). Another important point as Pearson puts forward, going native in this respect is not just unavoidable, it is also necessary if the researcher is to truly understand the social reality of those in the field and achieve interpretative validity relative to research participants (Pearson, 2012: 36).

As researchers of this study, we used our offline webs as much as online ones to provide a deeper insight into Ankaragücü. In the study, we followed the tweets of Ankaragücü tribune groups all through the second half of the season when Turkish Super League was on the go.

The Twitter accounts of Ankaragücü fan groups such as Sağ Kapalı (Right grandstand), Sol Kapalı (Left Grandstand), Bekar Evi Çocukları (Bachelor Pad Kids), Gecekondu (Shanty) were examined by digital ethnography method and discourse analysis was performed during the second term of Turkish Super League. By providing reflexive insight into the complementary use of online and offline methods in the exploration of football supporters' national and transnational activism (Numerato, 2016: 575). Social interaction is always enacted in the context of social situation, defined by Goffman as an environment of mutual monitoring possibilities, anywhere within which an individual will find himself accessible to the naked senses of all others who are present and similarly them accessible to him (Goffman as cited in Airoldi, 2018).

CONCLUSION

This appeared in the twitter accounts that were taken as sample for the study. When saying we, the built identity of becoming a part of Ankaragücü finds its other in Istanbul Big Three. This is at the same time a protest which includes some sort of political, economic and sociological implications. Furthermore, it also crystallizes the perception of Ankaragücü as the team of others. Moreover, we should also indicate that the violence packed matches of the past are now replaced by calm-tempered language. The formation of this language is the result that the digital space has been observed, and of the increasing punishment fees after the installation of passolig application. Over the past few years a large number of fan initiatives have emerged experimenting with various forms of participatory and direct democracy, often taking a stand against sweeping commercialization and /or a feeling that modern football is increasingly distanced or alienated from its fan base (Hodges and Brentein, 2018:329).

Together with all these, every tribune group feeds their individuality and group belonging through digital space and support them in offline channels. We can consider the situation in the society formed by webs as follows; individuals join fan groups, find their identity, and define themselves and their oppositions in Ankaragücü identity.

Digital space is, at the same time, a platform of discussion open to a variety of participants. At this point, it could be claimed that Ankaragücü fans whose voice is not made public by mainstream media created an opposing publicity belonging only to them. At this point, this new publicity finds itself a place in the agenda of the country by interacting with other webs especially via hashtag and tagging applications.

Another important issue that should be highlighted is the city space. City space

and the identity of being a fan come together in hybrid forms in the digital media and cover Ankaragücü fans who do dwell in Ankara.

Moreover, with the development of digital technologies referee mistakes, wrong decisions made by referees and fine instants are shared in twitter accounts. Being critical through the club management and opposing views against industrial football include a big part of messages on twitter.

On the other hand, special days of the nation, national and religious holidays are also frequently shared. Thus, being a fan becomes not only the identity of football, but a public movement related to the problems of nation.

Comments before, during and after the match has a great place in the twitter accounts. As non-profit football fan organizations that are recognized across Europe, Supporter trusts represent a prototype of fan citizenship and inclusion in football governance (Numerato and Giulianotti, 2018:349).

With digitalization, fan identity has begun to be at the center of local national and global interactions. Innovations in the world tribunes have started to be closely followed by digitalization.

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University research and public policy in Albania: Building and influencing development processes

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ABSTRACT

Albania has an education and research system - in all of its components - that does not respond adequately to the needs of a modernizing country, as it is underfunded and with insufficiently-trained staff, which does not produce either the professionals or the citizens needed for the challenges of the future. Public and private universities and think tanks, despite having many more resources and opportunities than at any other time in Albania's history, have so far generally failed to produce a research system that yields timely, adequate, and quality research in line with international standards.

Aware of this situation and the growing need to overcome it, consecutive governments, have promised reforms and increased funding. However, as the data shows, Albania continues to perform poorly in many education-related areas and in research in particular. Therefore, the main purpose of this paper is to identify the mechanisms (actors, stakeholders, guiding factors) that affect social science research in Albania as a precondition for identifying possible intervention areas for improving research from both the perspective of knowledge producers (researchers/academics) and knowledge consumers (policy-makers/wider public). Based on objective constraints, this paper relies on secondary research used to overview the current situation of the research sector in Albania and provides a synopsis of its outputs and challenges in a comparative context. In that sense, it will not delve into theoretical discussions and will be light on retrospective overviews of the research system in Albania, but will focus in identifying the mechanisms that guide the system, affect scientific output, and can be mediated to improve social science research.

KEY WORDS:

research, policy, development

INTRODUCTION

Albania is globally a middle-income country that has made good progresses in creating a reliable democracy and market economy over the last three decades, and furthermore, has in general been able to maintain positive growth rates and financial stability, despite the ongoing economic crisis.

The quality and integrity of tertiary education is crucial in encouraging potential investors to invest in Albania as a very good location with a worthy stock of adaptable workers who are gifted with the advanced skills that modern business requires. It is not satisfactory for the Albanian education system to produce students with only good basic education, because Albania will soon be competing in an open European market, and needs to be ready competing with economies in a world markets. Education Access has expanded recently through the growth of universities and colleges, but in the meantime it has become even more difficult ensuring that such growth occurs whilst maintaining and improving quality and integrity of the education that is delivered to this wider student body, and this is fundamental.

Albania has responded well to this challenge over recent years. Improving access to tertiary education and implementation of structural reform through the introduction of three-cycle studies, in compliance with the Bologna process, has been important. Many students drop out of studies leading to a low completion rate; of those students who do graduate many faces the prospect of unemployment; of those who do find a job, many are in jobs that are not matched to their level of qualification, reducing their wages and job prospects in relation to graduates in well-matched jobs. With an overall completion ratio across the region of 53%, an employment rate of recent graduates of 52% and a matching rate of vertically well-matched graduates of 48%, it could be said that the internal efficiency of the combined HE and labour market systems (the HE-LM system) is just 13%¹ (EACEA; Eurydice; Eurostudent, 2012).

This rapid growth in tertiary access represents an important milestone in preparing for the demands of the modern market that Albania will be competing in over the 2020 and beyond. The higher education system should be transformed into an important driver of innovative growth, through: significant private sector participation; improvements in quality reliable with European standards; greater direct contributions to innovation and research; and strengthening links between national research bodies and the planning and research departments of private businesses.

BUILDING NEW AND STRENGTHENING THE INSTITUTIONS- RESEARCH NEXT?

During the past few years, Albania has undertaken serious reforms in the field of higher education, research, science and technology, targeting to attain economic development of the country and its integration in the European Union.

According to the Constitution, the Government and Parliamentary Bodies

¹ The data used in the paper are collected from the European Commission 2012 based on the country statistics



determine the educational policy for tertiary education. They are responsible for drafting and approving laws, bylaws and other regulations and for carrying out the other activities in the field of tertiary education provided for by law. Article 57 of Albanian Constitution states that everyone has the right to access education and basic education is mandatory for all. The same article guarantees in principle the autonomy of higher education institutions⁵ (HEIs). The main legal framework that regulates higher education is Law No. 80/2015, date 22.7.2015 “On Higher Education and Scientific Research in Higher Education Institutions in the Republic of Albania” (European Commission, 2017).

The reform process was based on a rigorous analysis of the current situation of the country, as well as the main international developments and requirements in the field. The current reform culminated with the approval of the new Law on Higher Education, which is in line with the main European and global trends in higher education. As such, this reform aimed at acquiring the wide support of the higher education community as well as the country policy makers and foreign partners. The main drivers of the reform comprised: the improvement of teaching and learning quality, the diversification of education offers in line with the country priorities and labour market needs, the fostering of the competition within Albanian HEIs and the improvement of HEIs’ governance mechanisms through granting necessary autonomy, conditioned only by their performance and accountability.

Institutions of higher education may be public, non-public and public independent. Educational institutions have equal status, regardless of ownership type or founder’s identity. Licensing of all higher education institutions is monitored by Ministry of Education and Sport and the Government. Agency for Quality Assurance in Higher Education and Accreditation Board, which is an independent and collective decision-making body, are in charge of accreditation of all higher education institutions and study programs offered by HEIs.

Funding sources of public higher education institutions are: State budget, student tuition fees, income from services rendered or generated by third parties, donations, scientific activities, international projects, bilateral or multilateral agreements, funding from special funds.

The government makes available public funds to support study programs or specific fields of scientific research, in accordance with development priorities and strategic interests of the country. National Agency of Research and Innovation (NASRI) is a public institution under the authority of the line ministry for education and sport, whose main responsibility is allocation of funds for scientific research programs on the basis of projects submitted by institutions of higher education and scientific research institutions in the fields of natural sciences, engineering, technological, medical, agricultural, human and social sciences. On the basis of competition among applicants, NASRI approves funding for projects of doctoral studies. It administers also other funds related to research and innovation in the framework of national programs, international and bilateral scientific research, which it distributes based on applications of institutions (NASRI, 2016)

NASRI was the main institution driving the new National Strategy on Science,

Technology and Innovation 2017-2022 and based on DCM no. 165² on 21.3.2018, it will be the main body for ranking institutions of higher education and research centres based on the quality of their research output. However, while the scope of NASRI’s activities is both wide and difficult, besides financial constraints, it is also surrounded by human resource shortages as in 2018 it has a total of only fifteen employees.³ The legal status is completed with DCM no. 75 on 12.2.2018⁴ on the model of financing of research in public higher education institutions. This DCM approved that the majority of state grant to public institutions of higher education, specifically not less than 85%, would go to teaching and up to 10% could go to research. So, despite the continued emphasizing of the need for more and better research, as it regards financing, research remains a distant priority.

The on-going reforms in the higher education institutions and the financing of research, have also affected the Albanian Academy of Sciences (AS). In 2006 and 2007, seeking to reform the AS and provide much needed impulse to the research community, the government through DCM no. 559 on 22.8.2007⁵ relocated a number of research institutes away from AS to the newly created Centre for Albanian Studies (CAS). (Tafaj & Xhindi, 2008)

It is clear from this brief overview that scientific research in Albania’s higher education institutions and research centres is trapped in a complex institutional web, bureaucratized and constantly changing, with vague institutional definitions and under the pressure of insufficient funding and persistent brain drain. In sixteen years three major interventions in higher education and two structural interventions in the AS, one of which ongoing, have created uncertainty and institutional overlap.

PROVIDING RESEARCHERS WITH THE SKILLS

Science and Research development initiates with academic institutions and academic community by building up human capacities in teaching staff, improving research infrastructure across universities to carry research projects with international standards, encouraging expansion of academic offers (i.e. joint / dual degrees) by universities with respect to scientific programs and degrees, such as engineering and IT, while encouraging critical thinking, creativeness and teamwork and partnering up with foreign universities in the region. Creating favorable conditions for instigating a market of innovative ideas at low bureaucratic barriers and low cost of copyrights is another means to promoting science. Creating favorable climate and incentives for

2 Decision of the Council of Ministers no. 165 on 21.3.2018 “Për metodologjinë e procesit të vlerësimit të veprimtarisë kërkimore-shkencore të njëjësive bazë të institucioneve të arsimit të lartë,” available at: <http://www.qbz.gov.al/Botime/Akteindividuale/Janar%202018/Fletore%2041/VKM%20nr.%20165,%20date%2021.3.2018.pdf>.

3 Ministry of Finance and Economy, 2018, “Detailed list of the number of employees for 2018,” available at: https://arsimi.gov.al/files/userfiles/buxheti/2018/Nr.punonjesve_MASR_2018.pdf.

4 Decision of the Council of Ministers no. 75 on 12.2.2018 “Per miratimin e modelit te financimit te te institucioneve publike te arsimit te larte dhe kerkimit shkencor,” available at: <http://www.qbz.gov.al/Botime/Akteindividuale/Janar%202018/Fletore%2022/VKM%20nr.%2075,%20date%2012.2.2018.pdf>.

5 Decision of the Council of Ministers no. 559 on 22.8.2007 “Per bashkimin e disa instituteve te Akademise se Shkencave, organizimin e tyre ne Qendren e Studimeve Albanologjike, si dhe funksionimin e kesaj qendre ne peruidhen kalimtare,” available at: http://www.mod.gov.al/images/akteligjore/te_ndryshme/23.pdf.

partnerships between academic communities, scientific networks and SMEs (private businesses) provides a decent basis for scientific innovation (Reforma për Arsimin e Lartë dhe Kërkimin Shkencor, 2015)⁶

Chapter 8 of the policy document of the reform on higher education points out: “The higher education must combine teaching and scientific research activities. It is vital that the performance of each and every academic is measured and appraised in these two directions, whereas students must be instructed by academics that have contributed to science and social life. The standard of instruction is improved not only by good instructors, but also by good researchers”. (Reforma për Arsimin e Lartë dhe Kërkimin Shkencor, 2015)

When looking for statistics on R&D in Albania two things stand out. First, there are very limited data on this sector. Second, when data are available they are usually dispiriting. Specifically, Albania spends about 0.2% of its GDP for research, has the lowest per capita spending on research and innovation in South East Europe, and is the most dependent on state funding. As of 2013, Albania continued to spend less than 0.25% on R&D as a percentage of GDP - the lowest in the region - which puts it in the same category as some Arab states.⁷ These data are confirmed for the budgetary year 2016 concluding that “funding of scientific research for the twelve months of 2016 as a percentage of the Ministry’s budget was 1%, compared to overall public spending was 0.09% of the budget and 0.024% of the GDP.”⁸ However, according to the European Commission’s (EC) Albania 2018 Report, the funding for research is put at the higher level of 0.35% of the GDP.⁹ The discrepancy is evident, but the main point is that funding for research is very uncertain and scarce for the sector’s needs (Gjevori, 2018)

The Government of Albania (GoA) has announced three strategic objectives on scientific research in its reform on higher education, presented for discussion in 2014 and expected to be adopted in 2015. These objectives include: expansion and enhancement of quality of scientific research and innovation in Albania in conformity with the national priorities on country’s development; integration of the Albanian scientific research in the European Research Area (ERA); and, guiding scientific research to market needs by strengthening the links of national and international programs with the business (European Commission, 2017).

These objectives come together with the problems confronting scientific research on development of human resources and institutional capacities of universities. An essential condition to enhance quality of scientific research, primarily in social sciences, includes qualification and level of research staff, including both those with scientific degrees and university teachers in the process of completing scientific research. The reform should contribute to the consolidation of a western mindset on

6 DCM no. 607 on 31.8.2016

7 UNESCO, 2015, “Fact Sheet: Global Investments in R&D,” available at: <http://uis.unesco.org/sites/default/files/documents/fs36-global-investments-in-rd-2015-en.pdf>

8 Ministry of Education, Sport and Youth, 2017, “Raport Monitorimi Ministria e Arsimit dhe Sportit (Janar-Dhjetor 2016),” available at: https://arsimi.gov.al/files/userfiles/buxheti/2016/2016_Raporti_i_Monit_12-mujori_Janar-Dhjetor_2016_30.01_2017_F_N_Final.pdf.

9 European Commission, 2018, “Albania 2018 Report,” available at: <https://ec.europa.eu/neighborhood-enlargement/sites/neighborhood/files/20180417-albania-report.pdf>, pg. 83.

scientific research in our country in conformity with the best European and Anglo-Saxon practices of research. The significance of human resources is clearly stated in the Stabilization and Association Agreement with the European Union (EU) in Article 109, “Cooperation in Research and Technological Development”, according to which “Development of scientific activity and investments in scientific research support economic development of the country, promote excellence in the country (human capital and exceptional research centers) and influence the transfer of know-how and modern technologies in classroom labs of universities with the aim of applying science to improve quality of life”. The accomplishment of this objective involves the fulfilling of the necessary conditions for participating effectively in the European Research Area. This requires: good administrative capacity adequate staffing and knowledge. The overarching goal is to ensure that Open Science skills become an integral and streamlined component of the standard education, training and career development paths of researchers in Albania, and if possible even at earlier career stages, in schools and universities. Open Science is transformative to the research landscape, allowing research to be carried out with a high degree of transparency, collegiality, and research integrity. For Open Science to become a reality, researchers need appropriate discipline-dependent skills training and professional development at all stages of their research careers. (Working group on education and skills under open science., 2017)

A majority of researchers in Albania are unaware of the concept of Open Science. What is most known is open access publishing, and there is a very high interest in open access data management and practices. The skills necessary for Open Science are identified and include; open access publishing; data management and open data; enabling professional research conduct; citizen science. An overview of the current Open Science skills provision landscape is given by the EU commission. The need to engage researchers at all levels in Open Science is discussed and a European Skills and Qualifications Matrix for Open Science is proposed. The importance of embedding Open Science in ERA policy is treated and the specific cases of the Innovative Doctoral Training Principles and the European Framework for Research Careers are presented by the working group on education and skills under open science (2017)

THE PERSPECTIVE OF KNOWLEDGE PRODUCERS IN ALBANIA

Scientific research in general, and in social sciences in particular, takes up an minor place in the strategic decision-making of policymakers and other institutional stakeholders in Albania and this is reflected in the lack of research strategies on higher education institutions (HEI), on knowledge and human resources management and development, with regard to basic scientific research, in order to successfully cope with the challenges of the country’s development and the processes of integration into European Higher Education Area (EHEA). This has led not only to poor infrastructure and tiny budgets for scientific research as we mentioned above, but also to limited human capacities and deficient encouragement to engage in scientific research. The major problems of scientific research, such as the methodological capacities and

institutional support, are closely linked with the legal framework on higher education, which is undergoing one of the most radical reforms ever undertaken in the transition period. One of the strategic objectives of this reform is to strengthen the capacities of scientific research, even though it is particularly unclear how it will address the scientific research challenges amid lack of research budget and serious problems with human capacities. (Xhumari, Merita; Hide, E, 2015)

Most of Albania's R&I activities are clustered in public research institutes/centres, and higher education institutions which together account for about 97% of the research undertaken in the last decades. Generally, the quality of the science system is considered higher than the performance of the Albanian economy would engross (Xhumari, Merita; Hide, E, 2015). This scenario does not facilitate the dispersing of the results of science into society, nor it enables the application and utilization of any invention from those businesses that have an interest in promoting innovative initiatives. Businesses needs as well as educational needs are largely addressed by technology and know-how rather than domestic R&D and production. The centralised approach imposed from lack of research infrastructure, funds and autonomy in choosing the area of research brings most of the researchers, including young people following their post-graduation studies, and those businesses that are technology based in the capital, Tirana, which offers the right infrastructure, although very unassertive to support such development.

The Framework Programmes and other research and innovation initiatives have not yet touched the point where they can be credited for an important impact on prosperity for industries/ businesses and Albanian economic prosperity in general. The research projects were mainly granted to public research institutes and universities for building human capital and research infrastructure for academic use. These projects did not create any high-skilled employment opportunities nor increase the wealth of any knowledge-intense sectors. The state Universities have somewhat improved their research infrastructure but failed to maintain it at the required standards of performance few years after the project has been completed. The evidence gathered from various reports from EU Commission, framework program results and other support offered for research and innovation infrastructure from UN agencies shows a low impact of scientific methodology and results developed under such programs in the private business sector. Efforts are made from the construction industry for energy consumption and renewable energy but all the applications for R&D framework funds have not resulted successful. The mobility of researchers is mainly a one-way process (i.e. outward flow of resources from Albania), since there are few measures to allow Albania to compete with other countries in the region and attract foreign researchers/scientists (European Commission, 2017). However, there are visiting professors coming as part of some academic exchange programs like Fulbright, Erasmus, or bilateral programs between State universities and Western Universities. Evidence shows a greater engagement of civil society organisations, a diversification of thematic areas of interest and social networks are getting more attention in the regional and international context (Xhindi, Nevila; Vloch, Renata, 2018). Albanian scientific research institutions and universities have mostly benefited

from being part of winning consortiums – particularly in consortiums led by foreign institutions.

CONCLUSIONS

The economy of a country is not a business, and history have shown that there is a feedback loop between the bottom- and top-lines (growth and equity) in a national economy which can run in either a positive or a negative direction. Societies that have had success in building a robust middle class and reducing poverty and social marginalization have tended to create effective higher education institutions and research incentives in many of these areas, while also pursuing sound macroeconomic policies and efficiency-enhancing reforms over time.

Currently, Albanian research institutions are in a transitional process. Some of the research institutions have already reached a good level of professionalization, reflected in the high quality of their outputs. This refers in particular to those institutions that function in close cooperation with international networks. The Albanian academic and high education institutions are staffed by well-educated people with wide local and international networks; judging by their intellectual and networking capabilities, they have valuable potential for serving as a key node in building evidence-based public policy in Albania. However, the role of the Albanian higher education is severely constricted due to the inadequate demand on both sides of the education and business institutions. Their real impact on the shape and products of the public policy-making and economic development of the country is modest and needs structural changes. Particular attention should be paid to: increasing meaningfully the proportion of students studying natural sciences and engineering; stimulating greater interest in post-graduate education through greater state support for masters and doctoral studies; integrating into the united European /global space for higher education; improving and extending the use of e-resources; and improving information technology skills at all levels.

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Public entities non-budgetary versus competition

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ABSTRACT

The subject of this paper is Competition, Competition Authority, non-fiscal public entities and some related structural problems. The aim is to identify shortcomings in some economic concepts that become a barrier to the performance of the Competition Authority's function, as well as to give opinions on their correct formulation. In the new conditions of the market economy, the creation of manufacturing enterprises and non-productive enterprises, services, transport, financial, non-financial, of Chambers, Orders, Entities, Authorities, Institutes etc, have come up quite a lot in the interpretation of legislation in about the competition. In this way, we have analyzed some of these concepts and interpreted them in the framework of law enforcement in the field of competition, the possibility of intervention of the Competition Authority in the protection of effective competition. In conclusion, it has been concluded that the law on competition needs to be improved, to specify the definitions of public entities, and the relevant concepts, grouping public entities according to some concrete indicators, from the point of view of competition. The method used is the comparison method and the description method.

KEYWORDS

Market economy, competitive market, public ent, agreement, cartel, concentration, dominant position, decision, association, etc.

1. INTRODUCTION.

Until 1990 in Albania there was no institution in defense of competition, because the Albanian economy has been a centralized economy. The law of competition was seen as part of the capitalist system. In his socialism, his country played races and socialist emulation in serving the fulfillment of the requirements of the fundamental law of socialism. After 1990, independent institutions were established by law (Law 9584). Let us mention some of them; The Competition Authority, the Financial Supervisory Authority, the Telecommunications Regulatory Entity, the Energy Regulatory Entity, the Water Supply Sector Regulatory Entity, the High Council of Justice, the National Council of Radio and Television, etc.

The change of the political system, the transition to the market economy, after the 90s, created the economic basis for the functioning of the right to competition. The first Law on Protection of Competition was adopted on 7 December 1995, Law no. 8044 "On Competition". Over the following years, a number of problems have been identified that have not been resolved under this law. This indicated that the legislation in force had shortcomings and was far from legislation and EU Competition Policies. Thus the Parliament passed the law; Nr. 9121, dated 28.07.2003. "On Protection of Competition" as amended by law no. 9499, dated 3.04.2006; Law no. 9584 dated 17.07.2006, as well as Law no. 10 317, dated 16.09.2010. Based on these laws, the Competition Authority was established. He started his activity on March 1, 2004 according to the law no. 9121, dated 28.07.2003 "On the Protection of Competition". The purpose of the law has been and is to protect free and effective competition in the market as a public good. The Competition Authority exercises its activity as a public institution for the protection of free and effective competition in the market, competition itself as a public good serving the public interest. The Law on Competition is applicable to all sectors of the economy, for all private and state enterprises, with foreign and domestic capital exercising their activity in the territory of Albania.

The work of the Competition Authority has been intense. Its activity is exercised by the Authority in cooperation with the committees of the Albanian Parliament, state institutions, independent entities and authorities as well as with other interested structures. The results of his work have been apparent in terms of finding and finishing the subjects that have exercised their activity in contravention of free and effective competition in terms of monitoring the activity of production and service entities in terms of education of economic entities, in terms of cooperation with foreign analogue institutions, in terms of implementation and inclusion in law of EU requirements in relation to competition, etc.

The Competition Authority's decisions and fines have been challenged by the injured parties. Part of his decisions have been challenged and violated by the First Instance Courts, the Court of Appeals and the High Court. The increased volume of the work of the Competition Authority, the change of the market structure in Albania, the legislation on competition, court losses with various economic entities, and the recent decision on the Dentist's Order have been the main push for this study in the field of competition.



2. CLASSIFICATION OF PUBLIC ENTITIES.

In Albania, they carry out their activity with thousands of subjects such as agencies, authorities, chambers, institutions, foundations, religious institutions, institutions, schools, associations, trade unions, universities, orders, offices, etc., dealing with social activities, political, legal, educational, health, economic, religious, etc. Each of them is a daily part of the activity of Albanian society. In this paper, we will not analyze all these formations, but we will analyze a small part of them, we will have the Orders, specifically focus on the Dentist Order. Orders in Albania have the status of a public entity. In this way, we will analyze the economic concepts related to these entities, from a legal point of view, in function of market competition.

The concept of the Public Entity is not timely, it is the product of the development and perfection of the state administration, the first in terms of decentralization of central government governance, delegation of functions of service, direction, organization of territory, fiscal policies, environmental protection, etc., and the second, in terms of increasing the range of services it carries out. In this way the state administration, as a concept, turned into public administration.

She could not do all the services without an increase in the number of employees and costs. Thus the concept of public administration was born. This concept includes public state administration with its entities and public non-state entities that are part of the public administration. In this way it was intended; the solution of administration and its improvement in the public interest, through public entities.

Administration through Public Entities, in the above concept, is not a direct administration of the Municipality or of the Ministries, but indirectly, through public entities, approved by the Law by the Assembly, and monitored by them through the representatives of the Ministry of Lines. The report of the Public Entity with the Government and the Assembly also defines its Status. What are the criteria under which Public Entities are classified?

Public entities are classified as:

- o by way of their formation, by the assembly or the government, for example the Competition Authority, the Financial Supervisory Authority etc,
- o according to the powers that are attributed to them by laws, dependent or independent, for example, universities, the Competition Authority, INSTAT etc,
- o under the legal regime with which the entities operate or are subject, operating under the regime of public law or private law, such as the National Housing Authority, the National Free Zone, etc.,
- o by the character of their competences, the entities have special powers in the field of health, education, energy, etc.,
- o by the source of funding, have separate economic accounts, initially financed by the state budget, such as orders, universities, etc.,
- o their structure or their internal composition, they are divided into institutions of the institutional structure, such as INSTAT, and of the social structure, for example the national chamber of notaries (Çopa O 2012).

Unlike Public Entities can be classified into these groups;

1. Public entities (independent). We have the Order of Physician, Dentist, Pharmacist, Psychologist, Infirmary, National Chamber of Advocacy, Chamber of Notaries etc.
2. Public bodies (auxiliary). This group includes those entities that have the same goals and interests, as well as some state institutions, such as state and private universities, academia, schools etc, etc.
3. Public instrumental entities. These types of entities have no profit purpose but are in the service of other institutions such as the INSTAT case.
4. Public Economic Entities. Such we mention the Housing Entity, the Entity Free Zone etc.
5. Public entities of special sectors such as ERRE, ERU, AKEP, AMF, etc.

Below we present some general and specific data for some of these institutions and entities.

= Public Entity, of the Government Public Administration.

-ERRU (The Water Supply Sector Regulatory Authority, and Removal and Processing of Wastewater), (Law 8102). The entity is a legal person with all the rights and duties under the legislation in force. The Regulatory Entity may investigate facts, conditions, practices or issues that may be necessary or appropriate: to determine whether a person has violated or is violating this law or rules based on this law ... issues a license to commercial entities, and approves the prices and sales tariffs of water and protects competition. Protects customer's interest. Cooperates with the Competition Authority.

-ERRE (Electricity Regulatory Entity), ERE is the regulatory institution of the electricity and gas sector in Albania. ERE is a public juridical person, independent of any other public or private institution (Law 43/2015). Protects customer's interest. Provides authorizations and licenses in the electricity sector. Approves prices, protects competition, cooperates with the Competition Authority.

-AKEP (Electronic and Postal Communications Authority). AKEP is a juridical, public, non-fiscal, independent person, who carries out the activity in accordance with the legislation in force. 'Is the regulatory body that oversees the regulatory framework established by this law, the law on postal service, as well as the development policies of the field of electronic communications and postal services defined by the Council of Ministers (Law 9918). issues individual authorizations for the use of frequencies. AKEP and the Competition Authority cooperate on issues of mutual interest related to the implementation of the legislation in force for the competition of the electronic communications and postal services sector.

-AMF (Financial Supervisory Authority) (Law 9572). The Authority is a legal entity, public, based in Tirana. The Authority is independent in the exercise of the competencies defined in this law or in the legislation in force. AMF protects the interest of investors and insured persons. It promotes the sustainability, transparency and credibility of the financial markets that are being overseen. Approves the issuance or refusal of licenses to entities, seeking to exercise activity in one of the supervised

financial markets. Cooperates with the Competition Authority.

Analyzing as a group these institutions can draw some conclusions about their common features.

= Are Public Entities or Public Institutions. They are independent. Their main leaders are decided by the Assembly and the Government. They have a certain number of employees. License companies. Approve the prices and fees of the respective products. Monitor law enforcement by licensed entities. For each violation the law imposes the respective fines. Protect the interests of consumers. Licensed entities or firms are not members of these Entities or Authorities. In cooperation with the Competition Authority they protect the free and effective competition in the market, in the energy market, in the water market, in the signal market.

-**EKB** (National Housing Authority) (DCM 198) The National Housing Authority is a self-financing institution, subordinated to the Ministry of Finance and Economy, provided with legal personality, created for an indefinite period of time. This Ent determines Construction Costs. Put floor prices on Costs of Usable Surfaces. Decide "minimum housing price in the market" (Law 9232).

The ECB, in our opinion, has an impact on the market. It has played and plays a negative role in market competition. Setting tariffs for usable areas is a limitation of competition by the government itself. The recommended tariffs and the minimum price are not in the interest of consumers but of manufacturers. The ECB should protect the interests of non-producer consumers, so it should adopt ceiling prices and not floor prices. That is why thousands of apartments, all over Albania, have remained unmarked, stok, unlisted.

The Institution that has established floor prices is also the National Chamber of Advocacy. It is not a state institution, but it has cooperation with the Ministry of Justice.

-**DHKA** (National Chamber of Advocacy). The National Chamber of Advocates together with the Ministry of Justice have issued an Order no. 1284/3 of 16 March 2005 with a Tablet with the fees for the provision of legal aid. In this order are determined the prices for criminal and civil representation in the first instance, the Court of Appeal, the High Court and the Constitutional Court. In this order it says in the end: "The upper fees apply only when there is no agreement, between the parties for the remuneration of the lawyer service". This Order violates competition in the field of advocacy.

= Public Entity of Non-State Public Administration.

Above we made a presentation of some entities, and state public authorities, and highlighted their common features. In this section we will make a brief presentation of Orders as a non-state public entity. In the field of health there are 5 orders: Physician Order, Order of Pharmacist, Order of Psychologist, Order of Nurse and Order of Dentist. What are the peculiarities of these entities? These bodies, as well as state-owned public entities, are subject to public law and are created by law; second, they are intended to protect a **public interest** as non-state organisms.

-**US** (Stomatologist Order) (LAW 127/2014). It is a public, non-governmental entity that represents the common interests of professionals, dentists and dental assistants, as well as regulates the relationship between them in the function of the public.

Give and take out licenses. It does not exercise any activity without being a member of the Order. The dentist's budget resources are member quotas, registration fees, and individual entitlement to exercise the profession, various donations and other legitimate income. All dentists are members of the order.

-**UF** (Order Pharmacist) It is a non-fiscal public entity. There is a mission to maintain high quality service and enforce moral and professional ethics rules. Gives the right to practice the profession. It consists of individuals practicing the pharmacist's profession. Represents their professional interest in the level of professional partnership (Law 9150). Revenues are provided by quotations, fees, various donations etc.

-**UM** (Physician Order) .It is a non-governmental, professional, independent public entity that represents and protects the common interest of the members of the Order and regulates their activity and relationships in function of the public. (Law 123/2014) Issues and Licenses. Protects the rights of members. No one exercises the profession without being a member of the order. Its members are all licensed practitioners who carry out activities in Albania. Funding sources are the fees and registration quotas, various donations.

-**UI** (Order of the Infirmary) (LAW 9718). It is a non-governmental public entity, representing the common interest of nursing, midwifery, physiotherapy ... as well as regulating the relationship between them in the public view. No individual can pursue professions without being a member of the Order of the Infirmary. Licenses the mentioned professions. Funding sources are quotations, fees and various donations.

These Orders have common features. They are public non-financial institutions. They do not practice professional activities. Have members of all subjects practicing the professions defined in the Order. Revenues are provided only by quotes, fees and various donations. License and issues licenses under orders. Protect the rights of members. They do not cooperate with the Competition Authority in terms of maintaining free and effective competition.

3. THE REASON FOR THIS PAPER

The reason for this paper was the decision of the Dentist's Order to set floor prices for some services, and two decisions of the Competition Authority to investigate this case. Decision of the National Assembly of the Dentist's Order, no. 12, dated 14.12.2018 "On the approval of the list of floor prices for the dental service". Based on this decision the Competition Authority takes two decisions.

First decision: DECISION No. 588, dated 28.01.2019 "On the opening of the preliminary investigation procedure in the market for the provision of dental services". Object: Opening of the preliminary investigation procedure in the dental services market; Legal Basis: Article 4, Article 24, letter (d) and Article 69 of Law no. 9121, dated 28.07.2003 "On the Protection of Competition". According to the CA "Pursuant to Article 4 of Law No. 9121/2003, **are prohibited all agreements which have as their object or consequence the prevention, restriction or distortion of competition in the market.** The above decision of the Dentist's Order may have elements of restriction

of competition within the meaning of Article 4 of Law No. 9121/2003 “. To this end DECIDED: 1. To open a preliminary investigation procedure in the dental service market **to see if there are or not signs of restriction or distortion of the provisions of law** no. 9121/2003 “On the Protection of Competition”.

Second decision: “DECISION No. 587, dated 28.01.2019” On the opening of the preliminary investigation procedure in the market for the provision of dental services “; where among other things in points 6 and 7 it reads: 6. Pursuant to Article 4 of Law No. 9121/2003, all agreements that have as their object or consequence the prevention, restriction or distortion of competition in the market are prohibited. The above decision of the Order of the Dentist may **have elements of restriction of competition within the meaning of Article 4** of Law 9121/2003; In conclusion, based on Article 44 of Law no. 9121/2003, we consider that we are ahead of an emergency, as the decision of the National Assembly of Dentist’s Order, no. 12, dated 14.12.2018. “On the approval of the floor price list for the dental service”, **causes serious and irreparable damage to the competition and is likely to be a violation of Article 4** of Law no. 9121/2003 “. It therefore decided to suspend the Decision as it is in violation of the provisions of the Law. In the case of non-implementation of the CA decision, the sanctions provided for in the Law on Protection of Competition, cited above, based on Articles 73, item 1, 74 item 1, letter b and 78, are punishable by a fine of up to 10% of annual turnover “And further” the Commission shall impose fines of up to ALL 5 million on individuals who deliberately or negligently perform or cooperate in the offenses sanctioned in Article 73, paragraph 1 and article 74, paragraph 1 of this Article.

These are two decisions of the Competition Authority. The following questions arise over these two decisions:

- Can the Competition Authority fine the Stomatologist Order based on the applicable Legislation?
- What are the peculiarities of this Order?
- If you are fined, according to the aforementioned law, which lap will take into account CA for the fine, because the Stomatologist Order provides the budget through quotations and fees, and does not perform any professional service activity?
- If you are going to punish people with fine persons, the President of the Assembly, the President of the Council, the 25 council members or 1920 members of the Dentist’s Order?

3. Interpretation of the Law on Competition (Law 9121) This law applies to:

- a) enterprises and groupings of enterprises, which, directly ...
- c) public enterprises and enterprises granted to them by the State exclusive rights or special rights; (according to the authors here is the Stomatologist Order).
- ç) Enterprises that have been granted the right to exercise activity in the field of services of general economic interest or those which have the character of revenue-oriented monopolies, to the extent and to the extent that the law and in fact their activity is not obstructed. “ In the Law, Article 4. 1. All agreements that have as their object or consequence **the prevention, restriction or distortion of competition in the market are prohibited**, in particular agreements that:

- a) Designate, directly or indirectly, purchase or sale prices or any other trading condition;
- b) limit or control production, markets, technical development or investments;
- c) divide markets or sources of supply;
- ç) in trade relations with other parties, apply different conditions for transactions of the same, placing them in disadvantageous competition;
- d) condition the conclusion of contracts with acceptance by other contracting parties of the obligations which, by their nature or by their commercial use, have no connection with the object of these contracts. Article 24, letter d states make decisions under this Law; and Article 69¹ refer to the obligations of the Competition Authority.

In support of this Law, the Competition Authority functions in support of the Regulation “On the Organization and Functioning of the Competition Authority” (Competition Commission 2018). In Article 20 and 21 of this Rule, markets are regulated by the Directorate of Productive Markets and the Directorate of Market Surveillance Directorate. It is here clearly stated that this Directorate ‘... has the task of supervising and investigating market conditions **for cases of abuse of dominant position, prohibited agreements and exclusion from the prohibition of agreements in manufacturing markets**, including but not limited to these service markets and other non-productive activities: the electronic communications market; information technology and media; financial market; health; tourism; transport, and services of any other nature’ .

Our objection. Here is clearly defined the concept of service markets. Are markets where a certain activity is carried out in the interest of consumers or relevant market customers. At this point, we are not dealing with the Concept of Orders or Associations. Who is defined as the cause of the obstruction, distortion and restriction of competition in the market. Three Organization Forms, Dominant Positions, Cartels and Concentrations are defined. Let’s analyze the interpretations of these three forms in a row. Based on the above, there is a specific instruction for the Dominus Position of Articles 8 and 9.

Picking the problem and the relevant legislation

Achieving the objectives and aims of the Competition Authority relies on several key economic concepts, as defined by law. Based on the degree of development of the Albanian economy, some considerations will be given on these concepts, which are used in defining relevant markets, in determining the dominant position, cartels, and other forms of organization that favor the making of the CA. In the Law no. 9121, dated 28.7.2003². “Enterprise” shall mean any physical or legal person, private or public, carrying on an economic activity. Both the central and local administration bodies, as well as the public institutions or entities, when undertaking economic activity are considered enterprises”.

Our objection. In the second part of this definition in the “enterprise” are included

¹ Article 69. Obligation for Central and Local Administration Bodies¹. The central and local administration bodies require the Authority’s assessment of any draft act that specifically relates to: a) quantitative restrictions on market entry and trading; b) the establishment of exclusive rights or special rights, in certain areas, for undertakings or for certain products; c) imposing the same practices on the prices and terms of sale.² The Authority assesses the degree of restriction or impediment of competition resulting from the draft acts, according to point 1 of this article.

² LAW No. 9121, dated 28.7.2003. FOR THE PROTECTION OF COMPETITION. Article 3. This law is updated with the changes made by: Law no. 9499 dated 03.04.2006 “On Some Amendments to Law no. 9121 dated 28.07.2003 “On Protection of Competition”, and Law no. 9584 dated 17. 07. 2006 “On Salaries, Remuneration and Structure of Independent Constitutional Institutions and Other Independent Institutions, Created by Law”, Law no. 10 317 dated 16.09.2010 “On some additions and amendments to the Law no. 9121 dated 28.07.2003 “On Protection of Competition”, Amended “.



the bodies of central and local administration, public entities or public institutions when conducting economic activity. This includes state institutions or public institutions. This definition does not normally include “private entities” and “private institutions”. This crash has been solved by Law, in the Law (Law 8480) is said; Public entity for the purposes of this law shall mean any subject of public law that is created by law and which aims at the realization of a public interest. (ibid. Collegial bodies of state administration and public entities within the meaning of this law shall be called all those public law entities that exercise their collegial executive decision-making activity). In this way, all public entities can become the subject of the Competition Authority. The Stomatologist Order is a non-state independent public entity.

Below we will give thoughts, as objections to the concepts underlying the Competition Authority in its activity. In article 3 of the law on competition, the enterprise concept also includes **public entities** when carrying out **economic activity**. Here are two concepts, the first public concept and the second concept of economic activity.

The public entity concept is not only a public entity or a state public institution, but also “any subject of public law, created by law and aimed at the realization of a public interest”. Thus, the concept of the public entity includes the Orders created in Albania, the Order of the Physician, the Nurse, the Dentist, the Pharmacist and the Psychologist. Includes associations, rooms, offices, institutes and other subjects.

More broadly we will develop the line of the public entity, as an economic enterprise with its economic activity.

The concept of economic activity is broadly elaborated. Economic activity is not just a subject that produces a certain product, a real product that is touched, looked, enjoyed, but also performing a certain service. Service under this law is considered to be ‘offered or obtained in the market by the enterprises’. In this way, we differentiate the concept of “Product”.

The “Product” concept is any commodity, sold or purchased, or any service offered or obtained in the market by enterprises “(Law 9121).

Objection. To talk about the product or service concept, regardless of whether or not professional activity has to come into the market, it is embedded in the sales and purchase process. Then in this concept, public entities perform sales and purchase activities? In this sense, the Stomatologist Order performs a sale-purchase activity, if so, what it sells and what it buys.

For economic activity in the law it is stated “is the manufacturing, commercial, financial or professional activity associated with the purchase and sale of goods and / or the provision or obtaining services “. Here we highlight the concept of “professional activity” that is related to the public entity, which provides services. Here is the question of whether professional services can be called a certain entity, such as a dentist organization: “In order to accomplish its mission, the Dentist’s Order exercises these competences:

- a) gives and removes the individual license of the profession;
- b) sets ethical and deontological standards, mandatory for every dentist and monitors their implementation during the exercise of the profession;
- c) periodically re-evaluates the competence and professional performance of the

- Order member of Dentists in the face of established standards;
- c) encourages the achievement of high standards in professional and ethical education and training members of the Order;
- d) cooperates with the National Center for Continuing Education, other scientific and educational institutions to ensure high standards in Continuing Medical Education, postgraduate qualifications and postgraduate specializations of the Order;
- dh) establishes and maintains the Basic Order Register, which is divided into separate sections for dentists and assistant dentists and manages its administration and updating system;
- e) Protects the rights of the members of the Order, their moral and professional integrity and the occupation of the dentist “(Law No.127 / 2014).

Of all these competencies we judge that none of them can be called “professional activity”. Professional activity is understood to be the work of each of the members of this order when doing a certain service, filling, tooth, tooth removal, when to put a prosthesis etc.

Part of the competences of the Dentist’s Order are subjects of a Syndication Organization. Concretely, we are giving some definitions to trade unions. What are the unions? Unions in the Republic of Albania are social organizations that are created as voluntary union of employees for the protection of their economic, professional and social rights and interests. “Trade unions are legal persons.

They have wealth and exercise economic activity to perform their activity in accordance with the purpose for which they are created (Law 7516).

The concept of “grouping of enterprises” includes the grouping of enterprises of any legal or factual form that are or are not a legal person, private or public, for profit or not, which protect the interests of member enterprises “(Law 9121).

Objection. They are groupings of enterprises of any form, that is, within the framework of the concept of the enterprise, also public entities, because public entities are part of the concept of enterprise that engage in economic activity. So when we talk about a grouping of enterprises, we understand a group of public entities, because they have the same meaning under this law. In this way, to have a group of enterprises, we must have a group of public entities. So there must be some public bodies.

The concept of “agreement” means agreements and / or concerted practices between two or more undertakings, as well as decisions or recommendations of groupings of undertakings, irrespective of the form, whether written or not, or by their binding force “(Law 9121).

Objection. Arrangements are concluded between two or three enterprises, or under this law between two or three public entities, as well as the decisions or recommendations of groupings of undertakings or under this law of groupings of public entities. According to this law, it is considered a decision when a decision is made by public entities groups, so when there are many public bodies and they have gathered, and have made a verbal or oral decision, mandatory or not.

According to this article, there is no agreement or decision when we have an enterprise, or a public entity. In order to have an agreement or a decision, there must

be many enterprises or many public bodies, so that the real concept, in this sense, also exists between public entities. Regarding the concept of decision, there should be, according to this law, groupings of enterprises, which means many public entities grouped together to make a decision.

The dominant position concept “is that economic power held by one or more undertakings, which gives them the opportunity to prevent effective competition in the market, making them capable of operating in terms of bid or demand in order to independent of other market participants, such as competitors, customers or consumers “(Law 9121).

Objection. To have or to create the concept of a dominant position, it is necessary for the market to have many enterprises or many public entities, so that one or more of these enterprises can prevent effective competition in the market. If it is only one enterprise, or a public entity loses the concept of dominant position. Being a single / single entity creates a monopoly market in this product.

The concept of “relevant market” are products evaluated as substitutable by customers or other customers in terms of their characteristics, price and function and are offered or required by undertakings in a geographic area under the same competitive conditions, which is distinguished from other restrictive areas (Law 9121).

The concept of “relevant market” are products evaluated as substitutable by customers or other customers in terms of their characteristics, price and function and are offered or required by undertakings in a geographic area under the same competitive conditions. which is distinguished from other restrictive areas (Law 9121).

Objection. The relevant market biopic is the concept of the competition sector, because in terms of microeconomics it is different. There are a number of concepts on the market, the classic concept that considers the place where the sale process takes place, which considers the sale-purchase transaction market even though it is carried out in aviation, at home or in cinemas. What is the product that is considered as replaceable in the case of public entities? Do all public entities, by their group, substitute products? The answer is no.

Taking into account all these concepts and objections, we make these conclusions and recommendations.

CONCLUSIONS

From the analysis of economic concepts related to the market, treated in a legal perspective, there is a lack of comprehensive, clear, simple, concrete legislation so that these concepts can be addressed from all points of view.

Conception The Dentist's Order has a series of ambiguities and inaccuracies in terms of its creation, mission, powers and activity. These structural deficiencies create deficiencies in the realization of customer interest protection.

The Stomatologist Order does not perform professional activities, it performs mostly the activity of a dentists' union. There are attributes of other institutions that he can not accomplish. The Stomatologist Order has no case to show that he in his activity protects the interests of consumers. There is no case for him to take action, at

his own initiative, against the violations made by dentists in terms of services.

Competition Authority has never received as a target group of orders in the field of health, for abuses with competition.

The Public Property Office has set floor prices for all areas of Tirana and for all of Albania. This action has completely eliminated competition. This Ent should set ceiling prices rather than floors. The Energy Regulatory Authority has approved very high tariffs, whereas the CA has never pronounced for these actions.

Experience in Albania shows that the Orders in the field of health have aimed at protecting doctors in relation to citizens. The Doctors Ordinance, in all cases, when the doctors were sued, protected them, and did not defend the injured citizens. The Pharmacist's order in all cases has protected pharmacists. The Stomatologist Order has never intervened for the very high prices set in recent years. The reason is that; immigrants, refugees and foreign citizens have high incomes. They make their mouths in Albania and have impacted on rising prices. So the Albanian citizens have been unprotected against this mass phenomenon. The Stomatologist Order has never responded to the protection of citizens' interests, both in the quality of services and in the price of services.

RECOMMENDATIONS

State Public Entities do not have the right to set floor prices, be granted the right to set ceiling prices.

The Competition Authority should undertake a study on the consequences of the floor prices imposed by the Government in the area of housing and its consequences on the market. Identify unpaid apartments due to this law.

The Competition Authority to conduct a study on the implications of floor prices in the field of Advocacy, Accounting, Customs Reference, etc. Identify the negative consequences that have on the public interest.

The Stomatologist Order should be thoroughly respected. The dentist's order has the status of a non-economic state public body, with a certain number of employees. Leaders should be established by the Parliament and the Government. Licens dentists and keep their records. Dentists are not members of this public entity. Exercise his activity in protecting consumers, free, honest and effective competition between subjects practicing the dentist's profession. For stumbling, distorting and diverting competition, fines the dentists' subjects where abuses are found. Have the right to discriminate between Albanian and foreign citizens. To set ceiling prices for the protection of Albanian citizens, etc.

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KNOWLEDGE SHARING ATTITUDE: AN EXPLORATORY STUDY AMONG UNIVERSITY STUDENTS

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ABSTRACT

Currently, society pay a great deal of attention to be successful, the secret of increase success is to share, for this reason, many system of education and educators put emphasis on the importance of knowledge sharing among students. However little is known about the determinants of the knowledge sharing behavior. In our study we tried to find out some of those determinants that positively or negatively effect on these behaviors.

The objective of this study is to contribute to the limited previous researches on knowledge sharing among university students and further develop an understanding of relevant subject, by portraying the attitudes and intentions towards knowledge sharing among university students in Turkey. A questionnaire-based survey was used to collect the data. Respondents were received from 266 undergraduates in Kahramanmaraş Sütçü İmam University (KSU). Respondents had a positive attitudes and intentions towards knowledge sharing. We confirm that internet as a source for study-related tool significantly contributed to preferred resource for knowledge sharing and obtained as the most preferred form of sharing knowledge is interestingly telephone. We also observed that among factors limiting of knowledge sharing, lack of depth in relationships is essential factor for limiting sharing and some supplementary findings. As expected, this paper demonstrates that students do have an eagered knowledge sharing culture, finally, that culture is collectivist in nature and to some extent self-serving and instrumental.

KEYWORDS:

Knowledge Sharing, University Students, Turkey.



INTRODUCTION

Knowledge means awareness or familiarity gained by experience of a fact or situation. It has become a norm to refer strength, priority right of choice and superiority in the understanding of our age. With this understanding, knowledge become an indispensable factor. Having said that, knowledge management is as important as knowledge. Knowledge management came to existence as a concept in the later twentieth century. It has contained knowledge sharing (KS). Knowledge sharing varies from knowledge exchange and knowledge transfer. Knowledge transfer contains both the sharing of knowledge by the knowledge acquisition and the resource and application of knowledge by the receiver. "Knowledge transfer" often has been used to define the movement of knowledge between different partitions, units, or organizations rather than individuals (Szulanski et al., 2004). Knowledge sharing indicates to the provision of task information and know-how to help others and to collaborate with others to solve troubles, develop new opinions, or implement procedures or policies (Cummings, et al., 2004). Knowledge sharing can happen by way of written, face-to-face or correspondence communications via networking with other expertises, or organizing, capturing, and documenting knowledge for others (Pulakos et al., 2003). Knowledge sharing is considered to be one of the most important configuration of knowledge management (Gupta et al., 2000). Also it does play an important role in the success of students.

Knowledge sharing among university students has been noticed as an important and interesting field of study in the academic world (Wei et al., 2012:327). With the growing emphasis on collaborative work in institutions, universities have been settled with curriculum to engage students in collaborative learning which permits them to reflect and learn more effectively (Walker, 2002). Thus how to take advantage of knowledge in order to create the greatest value is becoming the central concern in the new education system.

In recent years new developed teaching methods have required further knowledge sharing via laboratory environment, group assignments etc. Many instructor have attempted to solve the issue by identifying remarkable features of the sharing-based the system of education and formulating various strategies to create a new source of competitive advantage in the academic world. However most studies related to the knowledge sharing behavior are confined to the structural challenges, the culture of university, lack of depth in relationships etc. Unlike other traditional resources for reaching the knowledge, i.e books, journals, individual notes, libraries, internet, to a certain extent, once it is distributed knowledge sharing become a students staff. Having said that knowledge means "power", holding knowledge is similar to holding competitive power of the new common understanding. The dilemma of knowledge sharing and hoarding happened in all students (Cheng, et al., 2009: 313). On the other hand, the benefits and challenges associated with knowledge sharing that students may face are noted and some recommendations for harnessing knowledge sharing practices to enhance satisfaction and increase student's success are offered. Nevertheless, knowledge exchange among collegian via face-to-face interactions

should not be ignored as these essentially facilitate achieving desired outcomes of collective learning (Yuen and Majid, 2007:485). The student-to-student transmission of knowledge assists foster a culture of knowledge sharing within the university and is an essential means by which universities help create knowledge workers who can make a valuable contribution to the contemporary knowledge economy. In this regard, an ordinary framework for the examination of other studies for knowledge sharing is shortly mentioned. In his paper Fischer-Appelt (1984) said that universities play a key role in the knowledge economy via their principal functions of transmitting and creating knowledge. In another study related to knowledge sharing among students says us universities create knowledge by way of research, and transfer it via teaching, collaboration and publication collaboration with government and industry (Fullwood, et al., 2013). Furthermore, the formalisation of knowledge sharing actions may be important to ensure that students obtain communication and teamwork skills that are crucial for success in the workplace (Gamlath and Wilson, 2017).

This study concentrates on knowledge sharing activities among university students. The purpose of this study is to identify the sense of desires or hoarding behaviors when other students need their knowledge, and also this paper finds out knowledge sharing practices among university students in Kahramanmaraş Sütçü İmam University in Turkey. This paper is organized as follows: knowledge sharing among university students is described and following that methodology, findings and data analysis are discussed. The conclusion and limitations are also presented. The findings are expected to provide helpful insights for policy makers, administrators at academic institutions to manage and practice knowledge sharing among undergrads.

KNOWLEDGE SHARING

Knowledge could enhance its value when shared with others. Knowledge which is information whose feasibility has been founded by way of evidence (Liebeskind, 1999; Lee, 2000), has shown up as a strategically considerable source of the firm. In this direction, knowledge management becomes a fundamental factor to achieve and maintain a competitive priority. McDermott and O'Dell (2001) says that; Culture does play a significant role in the success of a knowledge management effort. According to them, they found a lot of samples where well-planned knowledge management materials and processes failed because people believed that they were already sharing pretty enough. In fact, your culture is stronger than your knowledge management approach. As a result, there is not only one right way to motivate people to share but various different roads depending on the type of the organization (McDermott and O'Dell, 2001: 77). Knowledge management contains the process of storage, capturing, using and sharing knowledge (Lee, 2000: 324). Knowledge sharing takes place when a person is eager to help as well as to learn from other persons in the development of more qualifications.

Knowledge sharing can be described as a social interaction culture, including the exchange of personnel knowledge, experiences, and skills through the whole department or organization. Samples of knowledge sharing contain personnel



eagerness to correspond effectively with colleagues to illustrate donate knowledge, and intensely take colleague's advise to learn from them for example receive knowledge. Examples also appear of how knowledge sharing happens at the individual and organizational levels. For individual personnel, knowledge sharing is speaking to colleagues to assist them get something done better, more understandable, more rapidly, or more actively. For an organization, knowledge sharing is grappling, editing, reutilize, and transference experience based on knowledge that dwells within the organization and making that knowledge available and accessible to others in the business. Knowledge sharing suggests an organization the possible for increased productivity as well as detention of ideational capital, even after personnels quit the organization, which is essential for business that builds value added (Lin, 2007: 137).

An essential factor in the successful collaborative learning is the active, willing and voluntarily sharing of information among students (Yuen and Majid, 2006:428). Such knowledge interchanges help students answer questions, solve problems, learn new things, get fast solutions, increase comprehension regarding a particular subject, or solely acts as a means to help one another (Högberg and Edvinsson, 1998: 82). These exchange could be in the shape of apparent knowledge (also known as information) which can be captured and documented, and the nonapparent knowledge in the form of skills and competencies. On the contrary information which is generally context-independent, unclear knowledge is personal and can only be shared through socialization, interaction, communication and training which often requires face-to-face contact, or in many cases, transferred via observation, falsification, practice, and interaction with the environment (Al-Hawamdeh, 2003).

KNOWLEDGE SHARING BARRIERS

The identification and realizing of knowledge sharing barriers, whether it be a natural part of a individual's culture or not, plays an important role in the success of students. Knowledge sharing practices frequently can be perceived fail because people could attempt to adjust their culture to fit their university culture or knowledge sharing targets and strategy, instead of implementing them so that they fit their culture. According to Riege (2005) knowledge sharing barriers are frequently related to factors such as lacking communication abilities and social networks, differences in national culture, mention lack of time and trust. There are many reasons why people hoard their knowledge and the contexts are often multi-dimensional. Just about almost every book written on knowledge management mentions on the distribution of the correct knowledge from the correct people to the correct people at the correct time being one of the biggest challenging knowledge sharing. Barriers result from personal behaviour or people's perceptions and activities can relate to either individuals or groups.

In literature, knowledge barriers appeared to have been accepted at least three different points:

Lack of knowledge about relevant subject depending on barriers for knowledge sharing or transfer.

Not enough knowledge depending on level of education in a some area or about a particular topic.

The cognitive system in a particular human or group of humans does not involve enough contact points, or does not fit incoming information to benefit it and convert the information to knowledge.

These sights are not always easy to distinguish between and sometimes they can be appear more as a scale than being fixed group with clear limits. Depending on which aspect that is applied, important factors of how to "solve" knowledge barriers are implied (Paulin and Suneson, 2015:85).

It seems one mutual obstacle that conquers in all types of organizations is the "Knowledge is Power" mentality that outcomes in knowledge being regarded as an individual's private asset and competitive advantage that makes a person unwilling to share information and results in "Information Hoarding" (Chaudhry, 2005). Droege and Hoobler (2003) emphasized that reciprocity together with trust encourage knowledge sharing. The lack of trust and faith are an important factors as it is the key to positive interpersonal relationships in a variety of circumstances which encourages knowledge sharing (Alstynne, 2005). Besides this, the deprivation of in depth relationship between the source and receiver of knowledge. Lack of motivation or awards to share (Smith and McKeen, 2003), Lack of time and not having of knowledge sharing culture in the learning environment are doubt to cut knowledge sharing among students.

University students are the most vital part of a society and the main driving force for future growth and development, we are aware of the Turkish government authorities emphasize the education system and educating the public and particularly university student for the future of the country. In doing so, university students are expected to utterly understand and appreciate the act of knowledge sharing in their learning life and improvement. For this reason, it would be reluctance and gripping to study the knowledge sharing patterns of university students. The targets of this study were to enlighten the common attitude of students towards knowledgesharing, conditions where knowledge is more likely to be shared, the communication lines preferred for knowledge exchange, and factors that prevent or motivate knowledge sharing among the college students. It is expected that this study would help contribute in improving a general opinion about the knowledge sharing attitude of university students, which will help educators choose appropriate learning approaches to encourage more interaction and knowledge sharing among students.

METHODOLOGY

The aim participants of this article were undergraduate students studying at faculty of Business Administration at Kahramanmaraş Sütçü İmam University in Turkey. Since the populations is large, convenience sampling is believed to be the most practicable method to be employed in this study. In view that this study attempts to explore the knowledge sharing patterns among undergraduate students. A questionnaire was used for soliciting responses and the survey instrument composed of two chapter and eight sections. The first chapter of the survey collected information

about the respondents whereas the second chapter sought information related to the purposes approaches used for knowledge sharing. Including that chapter; general attitude towards knowledge sharing, preferred sources for study-related tasks, preferred channels for knowledge sharing and factors limiting knowledge sharing. The information about the paper was disseminated to the potential respondents by giving survey paper. The questionnaire was conducted KSU which is public university in Turkey and a total of 266 students participated in the study. The respondents represented business department. The participants constituted first grade students, second grade students, third grade students and fourth grade students from department of business at KSU.

FINDINGS

Researchers carried out frequency and factor analyses as statistically. Frequency analysis made for shed light on the demographical features of participants as indicated Table I. To show factor analysis results Table II, III, IV, V, VI, VII and VIII were constituted which are explained factors those affecting knowledge sharing behavior among university students. As stated previously section of the paper, seven important areas have been the focus of this search which are considered suitable for the present study with 45 attributes measuring attitudes, preferred sources, frequency, types, channels, barriers and motivators of knowledge sharing. Detailed analyses results presented clearly at this section.

TABLE I: Demographic information about participants

Profile characteristics	Nr.	%
Gender		
Female	145	54.5
Male	121	45.5
Years of study		
Year 1	39	14.7
Year 2	91	34.2
Year 3	103	38.7
Year 4	33	12.4
Department of study		
Business	266	100
Time of education		
Daytime education	146	54.9
Evening education	120	45.1

Profile characteristics	Nr.	%
Level of income		
0-250 TRY	49	18.4
251-500 TRY	109	41.0
501-750 TRY	43	16.2
751-1000 TRY	22	8.3
1000 TRY and more	43	16.2
Number of children		
Be an only child	7	2.6
Be two children	12	4.5
Be three children	51	19.2
Be four children	72	27.1
Be five children	68	25.6
Be six children and more	56	21.1

Demographic information about participants

The questionnaire involves demographic section. The section comprises of 8 questions designed to collect the respondents' demographic information. They include age, gender, year of study, department of study and time of education, hometown, level of income, number of children of family and grade point average. Table I indicates the

respondents' profile.

As shown in Table I, female made up the majority of the students sampled with 54.5 per cent, and male made up the minority of the students sampled with 45.5 per cent. Students from year 1 made up sampled with 14.7 per cent followed by, students from year 2 made up sampled with 34.2 per cent. Most of the students sampled in year 3 with 38.7 per cent. Years 4 students only comprised of 27.1 per cent. Study was conducted through students from business of department therefore business' students constituted the total of participants. More than half of the attenders were noted from daytime education with 54.9 per cent and the rest of participants were from evening education with 45.1 per cent. Unfortunately, 18.4 per cent of the students said that they have a level of income between 0 TRY and 250 TRY. Other group was noted that in a level of income between 251 TRY and 500 TRY with 41.0 per cent, another group was noted that in a level of income between 501 TRY and 750 TRY with 16.2 per cent. Students in a level of income between 751 TRY and 1000 TRY made up least sample with 8.3 per cent, followed by in a level of income 1000 TRY and more sampled with 16.2 per cent of the students. It is interesting to note that only 2.6 per cent of the responders were an only child, followed by 4.5 per cent of the students stated that they have a family with two children. Growing in a family with three children students constituted 19.2 per cent of the participants. The majority of the students who have a family with four children made up with 27.1 per cent. Students were note that they have a family with five children with 25.6 per cent of the attenders. Lastly 21.1 per cent of the students made up that having a family six children and more.

General attitude towards knowledge sharing

The respondents were presented a mix of positive and negative statements for understanding their general attitude towards knowledge sharing. A big majority of the respondents 60.9 per cent "agreed" or "strongly agreed", and 13.5 per cent of them "no opinion", as the same rate of "disagreed", and 12.0 per cent of the respondents "strongly disagreed" that sharing knowledge with peers would benefit all students. Another factor related to their opinion that knowledge should only be shared when approached by peers, 30.8 per cent of the respondents "agreed" or "strongly agreed" to this viewpoint, while 51.1 per cent of the participants either "disagreed" or "strongly disagreed" with this aspect, also 18.0 per cent of respondents "no opinion" recorded. Although vast majority of the participants 72.2 per cent "agreed" or "strongly agreed", other 15.4 per cent did not explain their opinion and 12.4 per cent "disagreed" or "strongly disagreed" that students should voluntarily share their knowledge with peers. The statement "sharing is caring" also yielded a somehow similar tendency where 71.4 per cent of the respondents either "agreed" or "strongly agreed" with it but when we look at negative statements 16.1 per cent of respondents "disagreed" or "strongly disagreed" and other 12.4 per cent did not clarify their opinion.

TABLE II: General attitude towards knowledge sharing

Number of Responses [%]

Perception	Strongly Agree	Agree	No Opinion	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
I feel that it is important to share knowledge with other students for the benefit of all	88 [33.1]	74 [27.8]	36 [13.5]	36 [13.5]	32 [12.0]
Students should share knowledge with their peers only when approached	29 [10.9]	53 [19.9]	48 [18.0]	94 [35.3]	42 [15.8]
Students should voluntarily share their knowledge with peers	92 [34.6]	100 [37.6]	41 [15.4]	15 [5.6]	18 [6.8]
I feel that 'sharing is caring'	83 [31.2]	107 [40.2]	33 [12.4]	23 [8.6]	20 [7.5]
It is better to avoid sharing information with peers whenever possible	19 [7.1]	21 [7.9]	44 [16.5]	77 [28.9]	105 [39.5]
Many students have the mindset that sharing knowledge is a type of plagiarism	32 [12.0]	64 [24.1]	55 [20.7]	58 [21.8]	57 [21.4]
Many students feel that they might be penalized by the lecturer for sharing information and knowledge	30 [11.3]	24 [9.0]	47 [17.7]	69 [25.9]	96 [36.1]

From another point of view, an overwhelming majority of the participants rejected three statements presenting knowledge sharing in the some negative context. Approximately 70.0 per cent of the respondents “disagreed” or “strongly disagreed” that knowledge sharing should be avoided whenever possible whereas only 15.0 per cent of the respondents declared their idea toward “agreed” or “strongly agreed” nearly same rate with “no opinion”. On the one hand, 43.2 per cent of the students

rejected the question that information and knowledge sharing is a type of plagiarism, on the other hand, 36.1 per cent of them approved that question. In excess of 60.0 per cent of the respondents were recorded for the suggestion that many students do not share information and knowledge out of the fear that they might be penalized by their lecturers. It was encouraging to note that the respondents largely have possession of a positive attitude towards knowledge sharing and were awake of its importance in the learning process. Besides they rejected some misunderstanding associated with knowledge sharing which reflected their level of understanding and maturity.

TABLE III: Preferred sources for study-related tasks

Source	Mean Score	Standard Deviation
Use the internet	3.81	1.17
Consult other fellow students	3.30	0.97
Use library resources to get more information on the topic	2.76	1.08
Consult the course professor/tutor	2.95	1.07
Consult friends outside the university	2.76	1.41

Scale: 1, least preferred; 5, most preferred

Preferred sources for study-related tasks

Result of students knowledge sharing preferences for study-related tasks is presented in Table III. The respondents were asked which sources they would rather, on a scale of 1-5, to consult while searching information on certain study-related tasks. The aim was to bring out their probability of approaching their fellow friends for getting the needed information. As indicated in Table III, it is clear that, 3.81 mean score of the respondents explained that internet is the most preferred source for students, while consulting other fellow students are among the more preferred sources by the university students in seeking for knowledge mean score 3.30. It is within expectation to see that students viewed professor/tutor resources as one of the more preferred sources of knowledge for study-related tasks mean score 2.95. Finally, Table III shows two statements that using the library resources and consulting friends from outside their university were the same results on preferred source for knowledge mean score 2.76. It seemed that students noticed the fact that their peers, conceivably owing to common understanding of the task, were one of the most useful sources in getting study-related information and knowledge.

TABLE IV: Preferred channels for knowledge sharing

Communication channel	Mean Score	Standard Deviation
Face to face	3.83	0.99
Internet (Skype, MSN, Messenger etc.)	3.84	0.94
Email	2.26	1.16
Telephone	4.00	1.02
Online message board	2.15	1.24



Preferred channels for knowledge sharing

As illustrate in Table IV, it was reached that telephone communication channel was the most preferred form of sharing knowledge mean score 4.00, followed by internet mean score 3.84. As indicated in Table IV, university students preferred mean score 3.83 in face-to-face interaction. However it is interesting to note that university students used email mean score 2.26. Finally the least preferred channel for knowledge sharing was the online message board mean score 2.15. The proliferation of other communication channels which could sufficiently meet the students's need could also be a factor that rendered the diminished use of the online message board. The telephone communication channel was probably preferred because it provides free chatting, sharing relevant links, instant feedback.

TABLE V: Factors limiting knowledge sharing

Perception	Strongly Agree	Agree	No Opinion	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Lack of depth in relationship	81 [30.5]	90 [33.8]	37 [13.9]	31 [11.7]	27 [10.2]
Afraid taht others would perform better	39 [14.7]	45 [16.9]	55 [20.7]	90 [33.8]	37 [13.9]
People only share with those who share with them	44 [16.5]	87 [32.7]	69 [25.9]	42 [15.8]	23 [8.6]
Do not want to be perceived as a "show-off"	28 [10.5]	79 [29.7]	57 [21.4]	59 [22.2]	43 [16.2]
Afraid to provide the wrong information	31 [11.7]	84 [31.6]	79 [29.7]	44 [16.5]	28 [10.5]
Lack of knowledge-sharing culture	30 [11.3]	77 [28.9]	78 [29.3]	55 [20.7]	26 [9.8]
Shy to provide own opinions	32 [12.0]	57 [21.4]	67 [25.2]	63 [23.7]	47 [17.7]
Lack of time	25 [9.4]	78 [29.3]	76 [28.6]	57 [21.4]	30 [11.3]
Lack of appreciation of knowledge sharing	32 [12.0]	61 [22.9]	79 [29.7]	61 [22.9]	33 [12.4]
Afraid that an opinion mismatch would offend others	31 [11.7]	45 [16.9]	79 [29.7]	70 [26.3]	40 [15.0]
Do not know what to share	29 [10.9]	49 [18.4]	77 [28.9]	63 [23.7]	48 [18.0]

Factors inhibiting knowledge sharing

Table V, shows the 11 possible reasons preventative knowledge sharing among students in KSU. The respondents were asked to indicate the possible factors in their opinion, pose hurdles in active knowledge sharing by their fellow students. A big majority 64.3 per cent of the respondents felt that it was due to lack of depth in relationship between students, other 21.9 per cent of the respondents either do not "agree" or "strongly disagree", there is a 13.9 per cent of the respondents had "no opinion" for this statement. An interesting findings was where 33.8 per cent of the participants felt that their classmates do not share knowledge with peers because they fear these students would perform better from them while 31.2 per cent of them felt that classmates share knowledge with peers. Other barriers to knowledge sharing, as identified by the 49.2 per cent of the respondents, were the lack of reciprocity in sharing and 25.9 per cent of the students felt nothing. Among the students 40.2 per cent of the respondents felt apprehensive to be perceived as a show-off, on the other hand, 38.4 per cent of the respondents had not apprehension about to be perceived show-off, remained 21.4 per cent of respondents had no opinion. The students were asked the fear of providing wrong information 43.3 per cent of the respondents implied either "agreed" or "strongly agreed" remarked but 27.0 per cent among them notified negative state. Clearly demonsrating in the table V 40.2 per cent of the respondents felt possitive to the lack of knowledge sharing culture, 29.3 per cent of participants had no idea and the rest of respondents felt negative for this statement. Among the respondents 33.4 per cent felt shy when provide their own opinions. The statement "lack of time" also yielded tendency where 38.7 per cent of the respondents either "agreed" or "strongly agreed" with it but when we look at negative statements 32.7 per cent of respondents "disagreed" or "strongly disagreed" and interestingly 28.6 per cent did not assert any opinion. When the respondents were asked that lack of appreciation of knowledge sharing as a type of factor inhibiting approximately 34.9 per cent of the respondents stated "agreed" or "strongly agreed", 29.7 per cent of the respondents said "no opinion", and 35.3 per cent of the respondents stated their view either "disagreed" or "strongly disagreed" as shown in Table V. It is seem that 16.9 per cent of the students afraid that their opinion mismatch would offend others whereas 26.3 per cent of them do not agree with that statement. The last inhibiting factor was asked to students about 40.0 per cent of the students explained they do not know what to share, on the other hand, 41.7 per cent of the students supported negative opinion the rest of participant had no opinion for this statement. It seemed that with a high degree of probability lack of depth in relationship and the pressure to outperform others, as well as certain other fears, were hindering active knowledge sharing among students.

CONCLUSION

In the current times, the frequent references in the knowledge management literature to terms like knowledge organisation, knowledge worker, knowledge economy and knowledge sharing is proof of the crucial role that knowledge plays in all



aspects of modern society. The importance of knowledge sharing between students is investigated by many academicians in many studies in many countries until this time. Efficient and voluntarily sharing of knowledge is a fundamental element of effective and meaningful at the learning. "Effective knowledge sharing can not be forced or mandated" (Bock, et al., 2005). As many students are expected to join the workforce after their undergraduate studies, a positive manner towards knowledge sharing would make students more fertile to their employing organizations. In other respects if their reluctance to share information and knowledge with peers during university years is left unchecked, it is presumably that this manner would become piece of their personality and they will maintain exhibiting the same mentality at their work place.

This study was conducted to examine knowledge sharing among university students. Our research has identified several factors that affecting knowledge sharing which are general attitude towards knowledge sharing, preferred sources for study-related tasks, preferred channels for knowledge sharing, factors limiting knowledge sharing. This research is based on statistical analysis such as frequency to explain how knowledge substructure is able to shape knowledge sharing attitude.

In our research, male constituted more than half part of participants, we collected students from business of department and each year of university life. Both daytime and evening time educated students are existed in the research. Finally students from large level of income and different number of children in family participated.

The respondents were presented both positive and negative statements for general attitude towards knowledge sharing even though positive ideas were mainly observed. Majority of the participants were of the same mind that students should voluntarily share their knowledge with peers and in their opinion "sharing is caring". Similarly in Yuen and Majid's results (2006) students rejected negative context such as knowledge sharing should be avoided or information and knowledge sharing is a type of plagiarism. As a negative statement they supported it is better to avoid sharing information with peers. It was interesting to note that the participants of this study valued their peers as an important resource of knowledge and, on the whole, demonstrated a positive attitude towards information and knowledge sharing.

The aim was to bring out that source which are preferred the most while sharing knowledge. As shown in section of analyses, our results revealed "internet" as a preferred source for study-related tasks. According to a current study related to knowledge sharing, Yaghi et al (2011) in their conductive paper supportively demonstrates that most of the student's idea that knowledge sharing via sharing power point slides, lecture notes and other learning resources among students would benefit all and university culture does not supply adequate support for sharing knowledge.

Findings show that, respondents stated that often knowledge sharing is through expressing opinions on certain study-related matters. Wei et al (2012)'s findings show that students from both public university and private university share URL's of revelant web sites with their peers. Consequently, in both paper demonstrated that even students preferred different types of information and knowledge sharing in general, students support sharing.

Obtained as the most preferred form of sharing knowledge is interestingly

telephone in our result. However in their paper Yuen and Majid's (2006) found that face-to-face communication was the most preferred form of knowledge sharing. In a way that supports them, Wei et al (2011) concluded the same result.

A lack of depth in peer relationship and the pressure to outperform classmates academically were the two essential factors that inhibited knowledge sharing with reference to our results. Another study concerning this issue, McDermott and O'Dell (2001) stated that overcoming "cultural barriers" to share knowledge has more to do with how you form and practice your knowledge management effort than with changing your culture.

As common trust and respect are noted important in knowledge sharing, academic foundations should make efforts to foster sincere relationship among students by means of providing abundant interaction opportunities through organizing informal social event. Droege and Hoobler (2003) emphasized that reciprocity together with trust encourage knowledge sharing. The lack of trust and faith are an important factors as it is the key to positive interpersonal relationships in a variety of circumstances which encourages knowledge sharing (Alstynne, 2005). Besides this, the deprivation of relationship between the source and receiver of knowledge. Lack of motivation or awards to share (Smith and McKeen, 2003), Lack of time and not having of knowledge sharing culture in the learning environment might cut knowledge sharing among students.

On the whole, our result suggests that each approach, tool, method should be considered to improve lifelong sharer behavior, which in turn can play an important role in the knowledge sharing in universities. As shown in this study, knowledge sharing perceptions of students at universities play crucial role in all success and progress. Furthermore, this important behavior goes on during career even until end of the life. The findings of this study provide support for the previous theoretical and empirical studies in the literature in addition to this, we hope that future researches in the way of science will be enlightened.

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Push-pull factors of migration today in Albania

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ABSTRACT

Migration is a phenomenon that has significantly impacted Albanian society. In recent years, migration has increased noticeably in Albania. The majority of departures consists of students and university educated persons. This study will research the factors influencing the perceptions and decision-making of migrating students.

The objective of this research paper corresponds with the study of the correlation between push-pull factors of student perceptions on migration and of making the decision to migrate. This study will employ quantitative research. The study sample comprises 163 Mediterranean University of Albania students. Research hypotheses are tested with a 95% confidence interval.

Push factors influence student perceptions to migrate, just as economic standing, conflict, unemployment and discrimination influence the students' decision to migrate. Whereas, personal safety is not significantly correlated to migratory decision-making.

Pull factors do not influence the perceptions of migration of students. Whereas, career opportunities, improving the quality of life and the quality of education influence in student decisions to migrate.

KEYWORDS:

migration, push factors, pull factors, students



INTRODUCTION

People migrate to other countries in search of better opportunities. Different people have different reasons to migrate, however everyone is in search of a better life in the host country. The migration phenomenon can also have a negative impact on society, such as the flight of human capital in large numbers. According to some researchers (Semiv & Semiv, 2010; Kumpikaite & Zickute, 2012) migration can have a negative impact on the social and economic development of a country, as well as on other aspects. Simultaneously, as a result of research (Gibson & David, 2011; Hawthorne, 2010) it is confirmed that it can also manifest certain benefits, such as: promoting the country abroad, learning and training, research exchange and networking, cultural exchange, professional development, information exchange, etc. The admission of highly qualified and expert persons can be beneficial to the host country. Most countries in the world give close and thoughtful attention to their migration policies. They continuously seek to attract professionals, specialists, researchers and students, particularly high performing ones. This paper focuses on students. The objective of this scientific paper relates to the study of the link which exists between push-pull factors in the perception of students regarding migration and migration decision-making.

LITERATURE REVIEW

A field of interest for researchers (Ferriss, 1965; McGill, 2013; Ramirez & Kumpikaite, 2013) is student migration. This being closely connected to the fact that students are the hope and future of a nation, therefore the effects of their migration not only have an impact on the present but also the future of a country. Different countries have well-developed migration policies for recruiting and retaining doctoral students. Some of the methods applied are: supplying funding, paying for their studies on condition that they return to work for a given period of time in their country, etc (Saxenian, 2005). The return of students in their country of origin has a positive impact on society. Several researchers have concluded that their contribution in their country of origin is high. (Hawthorne, 2010; Saxenian, 2005). The knowledge, information, and skills that they have obtained in the host countries can be applied in the country of origin. Thus, once having returned they begin implementing their knowledge. It is important to understand the number of migrating students and the number of returning students. If the number of returning students is higher than the number of departing students, it shows that a country has the capability of retaining students and attracting them from other countries. However, if the opposite phenomenon takes place, it is necessary for such country to focus on its migration policies and the development of pertinent policies in order to reclaim the students who are away.

According to Kerri (1976) the factors influencing the decision-making to migrate are separated in push and pull factors. The push factors are the factors that cause people to leave a country. Whereas, pull factors are defined as the factors which cause people to move to a certain area. From the research (Hazen & C. Alberts, 2006) it has

been concluded that social and personal factors have influenced students' decision-making to return to their country of origin. However, some students remain in the country where they have migrated. Their decision to stay is influenced by economic and professional factors. (Hazen & C. Alberts, 2006).

The factors which influence the decision to migrate are different. According to Czaika (2015) economic status plays a primary role in the decision to migrate. Persons living in unfavourable economic conditions tend to migrate, while those in a prosperous economic state prefer to stay in their country. Therefore, people tend to migrate to improve their economic condition (Žičkutė & Kumpikaite, 2015). At the same time, there are individuals who migrate in search of better job opportunities and career advancement (Czaika & Vothknecht, 2014). According to studies (Tupa & Strunz, 2013) social, psychological and biological factors influence migration decision-making. Polgreen and Simpson (2011) concluded that happiness is an influencing factor in migration. Based on its U-shaped distribution, researchers assert that people coming from "happy" and "unhappy" countries are most prone to migrate compared to people from countries of average happiness. Meanwhile, the data from Albania show that the reasons for migration are unemployment and better employment opportunities. Whereas, the reasons for returning are losing one's job and the family (Filipi, Galanxhi, Nesturi, & Grazhdani, 2013).

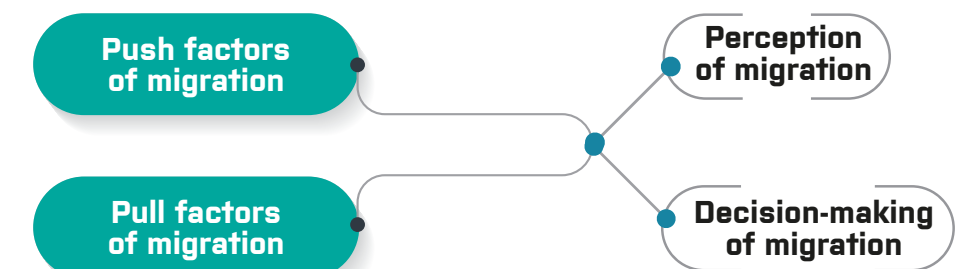
The research questions of this study are:

- What are the attitudes of students toward migration?
- What is biggest challenge for students if they would migrate in the future?

The research hypotheses of this study are:

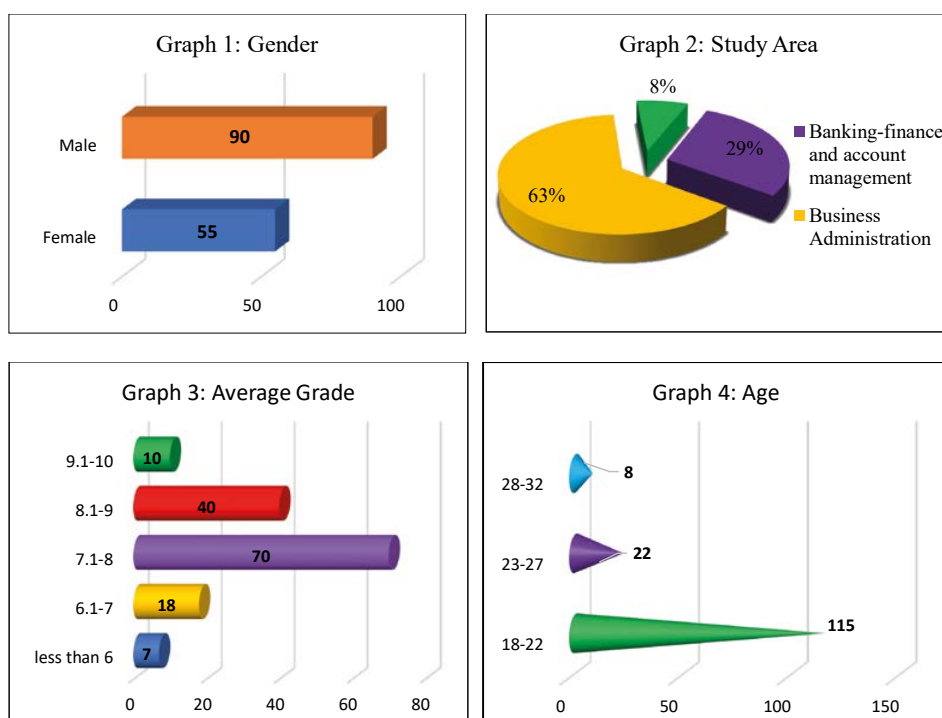
- H1a: Push factors influence student decision-making in migrating ($\alpha=0.05$).
- H1b: Push factors influence student perception in migrating ($\alpha=0.05$).
- H2a: Pull factors influence student decision-making in migrating ($\alpha=0.05$).
- H2b: Pull factors influence student perception in migrating ($\alpha=0.05$).

The literature review leads to this conceptual model:



METHODOLOGY

This study utilizes qualitative research. The research instrument is the questionnaire, which has been adapted to the particulars of this study (Hazen & C. Alberts, 2006). The questionnaire was distributed online, during the academic year 2017-2018. The questionnaire consists of 27 questions. The first and last parts consist of alternative questions, while for the questions of the second part a 5-point Likert scale is used, ranging from “Not at all important” to “Extremely important”. 163 students from the Mediterranean University of Albania participated in this study. There are 145 valid questionnaires. The response rate of return is approximately 89%. The characteristics of the study sample are shown in the following graphs:



Data analysis was conducted with SPSS 20 and JASP-0.8.5.1. The reliability coefficient Cronbach's α in this questionnaire is 0.952 (Table 1). A value larger than 0.7 shows that the data are valid and reliable for the purposes of this study.

Table 1: Reliability coefficient

	Cronbach's α
scale	0.952

Note. Of the observations, 145 were used, 0 were excluded listwise, and 145 were provided.

EMPIRICAL ANALYSIS

What are the attitudes of student toward migration?

The largest part of students think that people ought to migrate to other countries. Only 24 students assert that people must remain in the country of origin (Table 2). If students were in charge of migration policy-making, 56 students would create policies for reducing the phenomenon of migration, 61 would create encouraging policies in favour of migration and 28 are undecided (Table 3).

Table 2: Migration toward other countries

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Yes	121	83.4	83.4	83.4
No	24	16.6	16.6	100.0
Missing	0	0.0		
Total	145	100.0		

Table 3: Migration policy

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Would reduce migration	56	38.6	38.6	38.6
Would encourage migration	61	42.1	42.1	80.7
Does not know	28	19.3	19.3	100.0
Missing	0	0.0		
Total	145	100.0		

What is the biggest challenge for students if they would migrate in the future?

Students rank first the job interview as their biggest challenge. In second place they rank their visa interview. After those, they evaluate moving away from home, job-hunting, communication, not knowing anyone in their destination country, food, knowledge of laws and regulations, discrimination and last learning a new language (Table 4).

Table 4: Migration challenges

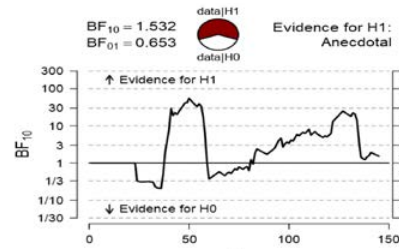
	N	Mean	SD	SE
Knowledge of laws and regulations in the destination country	145.0	3.614	1.259	0.105
Learning a new language	145.0	3.434	1.418	0.118
Food	145.0	3.731	1.192	0.099
Communication	145.0	3.890	1.113	0.092
Moving away from home	145.0	4.000	1.155	0.096
Finding a job	145.0	3.945	1.212	0.101
Discrimination	145.0	3.552	1.476	0.123
Visa interview	145.0	4.103	1.039	0.086
Job interview	145.0	4.145	1.027	0.085
Not knowing anyone in the destination country	145.0	3.738	1.328	0.110

H1a: Push factors influencing student decision-making to migrate (=0.05).

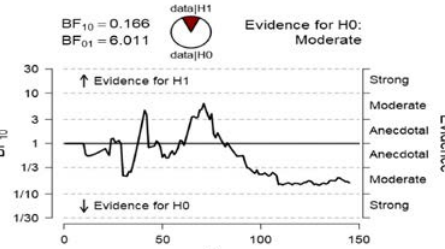
Push factors such as economic conditions, conflict, unemployment and discrimination influence student decision-making for migrating. Whereas personal safety does not have an important statistical correlation to decision-making for migrating. Table 5 values demonstrate that the correlation between conflict and decision-making to migrate has the largest coefficient, thus is more significant statistically. Analysis shows that four push factors influence decision-making to migrate and one factor does not, which brings to the rejection of the hypothesis. Graphs 5-9 provide a schematic representation.

Table 5: Bayesian Pearson Correlation

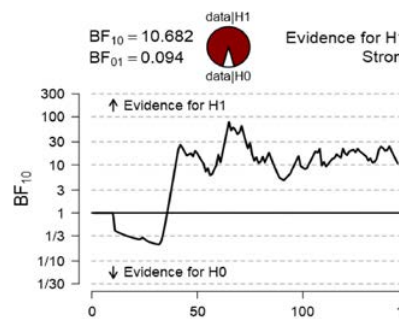
		r	BF ₁₀
Economic condition	- Decision-making to migrate	0.193	1.532
Personal safety	- Decision-making to migrate	0.082	0.166
Conflict (feuds)	- Decision-making to migrate	0.252	10.682
Unemployment	- Decision-making to migrate	0.227	4.317
Discrimination	- Decision-making to migrate	0.245	8.152



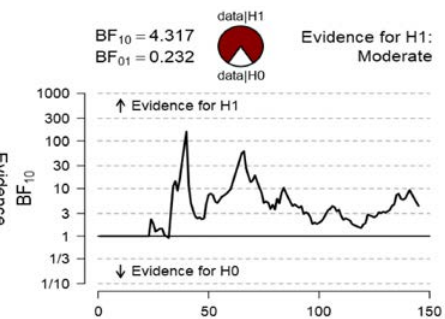
Graph 5: Economic conditions and decision-making to migrate



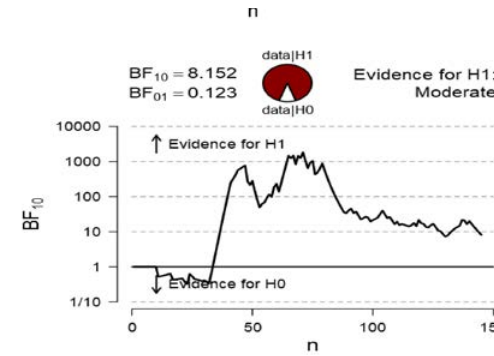
Graph 6: Personal safety and decision-making to migrate



Graph 7: Conflict and decision-making to migrate



Graph 8: Unemployment and decision-making to migrate



Graph 9: Discrimination and decision-making to migrate

H1b: Push factors influencing student perception in migrating (=0.05).

Push factors influence student perception to migrate (Table 6). Between push factors and student perception to migrate there exist a significant statistical correlation. All the correlations between the variables are positive. The strongest correlation exists between personal safety and migration perception. Hypothesis H1b is supported with a confidence interval 95%. Graphs 10-14 show the results of the data analysis.

Table 6: Bayesian Pearson Correlation

		r	BF
Economic condition	- Perception of migration	0.189	1.345
Personal safety	- Perception of migration	0.303	90.879
Conflict (feuds)	- Perception of migration	0.231	5.044
Unemployment	- Perception of migration	0.188	1.305
Discrimination	- Perception of migration	0.230	4.804

H2a: Pull factors influencing student decision-making in migrating (=0.05).

The pull factors in a country, such as the opportunities to advance one's career, improving one's quality of life, the quality of the educational system and marriage influence positively in student decision-making to migrate (Table 7). Moreover, between these factors and the decision-making to migrate there exist significant statistical positive correlations. Other pull factors do not influence student decision-making to migrate. Hypothesis H2a is refuted.

Table 7: Bayesian Pearson Correlation

		r	BF
Career advancement opportunities	- Decision-making to migrate	0.240	6.791
Professional development opportunities	- Decision-making to migrate	0.112	0.252
High salary	- Decision-making to migrate	0.030	0.110
Exciting work	- Decision-making to migrate	-0.035	0.113
More job opportunities	- Decision-making to migrate	0.152	0.544
Finding a job in one's study area	- Decision-making to migrate	0.051	0.125
Improving the quality of life	- Decision-making to migrate	0.218	3.247
Educational system quality	- Decision-making to migrate	0.269	20.385
Culture	- Decision-making to migrate	0.121	0.294
Desire to learn about other countries	- Decision-making to migrate	-0.045	0.120
Desire to travel	- Decision-making to migrate	-0.109	0.241
Family	- Decision-making to migrate	0.073	0.151
Learning a new language	- Decision-making to migrate	0.018	0.106
Marriage	- Decision-making to migrate	0.223	3.782

H2b: Pull factors influencing student perception in migrating (=0.05).

Table 8 values show that pull factors do not influence student perception toward migration. Between pull factors and perception of migration there exist insignificant statistical correlations. Hypothesis H2b is also refuted.

Table 8: Bayesian Pearson Correlation

		r	BF
Career advancement opportunities	-Perception of migration	0.043	0.118
Professional development opportunities	-Perception of migration	0.061	0.135
High salary	-Perception of migration	0.041	0.117
Exciting work	-Perception of migration	0.041	0.117
More job opportunities	-Perception of migration	0.098	0.207
Finding a job in one's study area	-Perception of migration	0.079	0.162
Improving the quality of life	-Perception of migration	0.166	0.750
Educational system quality	-Perception of migration	0.145	0.468
Culture	-Perception of migration	0.076	0.156
Desire to learn about other countries	-Perception of migration	0.100	0.211
Desire to travel	-Perception of migration	-0.011	0.105
Family	-Perception of migration	0.078	0.161
Learning a new language	-Perception of migration	0.146	0.477
Marriage	-Perception of migration	0.037	0.114

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Generally, student attitudes are pro-migration. Migration is viewed by most student respondents as an opportunity. The job and visa interviews are two of the biggest challenges encountered by students.

Push factors influence the perception of students to migrate, at the same time, economic conditions, conflict, unemployment and discrimination influence in student decision-making to migrate. Whereas personal safety does not have a significant statistical correlation with decision-making to migrate.

Pull factors do not influence student perception in migrating. While, career advancement, improvement of the quality of life, and the quality of the educational system influence student decision-making to migrate.

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My Practicum Experience

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ABSTRACT

As is known, practicum is an indispensable process through which student teachers enjoy the opportunity to put into practice what they have gained during their formal education years in their institutions. Viewed from this perspective, we can thus assume that this process would have not only a positive but also potentially some negative impact on the students. Based on this premise, this study builds on the experiences of student teachers' experiences in high schools as they joined in a 14-week practicum program as an integral part of their academic education. The participants were required to observe their practicum environment holistically, i.e. focusing on student-student interaction, teacher-student interaction, administrator-teacher interaction, the physical environment and other elements of classroom management principles in which the process took place. Throughout the 14 weeks, the data collected represented students' observations as well as their perceptions regarding positivity and negativity of the practicum process. All the data was reported week by week to the researchers/mentors through reflection journals via emails. Thematic analysis was carried out in order to thematize issues mentioned afore as a result of which the main arising issues concern teacher competence, discipline, physical environment, administrative policies, cultural elements and technology utilization in ELT. This study has specific implications for English language teachers and pertaining programs, in general, for other field related other teacher education programs and educational administrators.

KEYWORDS:

Pre-service English language teacher education, practicum, reflection journals.

1. INTRODUCTION

Practicum, one of the major components of teacher education programs, plays a crucial role in pre-service language teachers' professional as well as personal lives. We could observe its effects in various domains such as teacher candidates' already existing belief systems (e.g., Gan, 2013; Yuan & Lee, 2014, affective factors (e.g., Mau, 1997; Yan & He, 2010) and career related opportunities (e.g., Slick, 1998; Intrator, 2006).

Within the related literature, Moore (2003) states that time and classroom management are two of the mostly problematic domains for pre-service teachers. Spooner, Lane, Tangen & Campbell, (2009), in their study, identified twenty Asian pre-service teachers before and after their practicum in Australian schools, and the findings of their research indicated that language barriers and cultural differences played a significant role before the practicum, and that concerns about relationship with supervising teachers and limited time appeared to be most important for pre-service teachers after the practicum. Yuan and Lee (2014), investigating the process of belief change among three pre-service language teachers during the teaching practicum in a university in China, highlighted the importance of a supportive and open environment to boost pre-service teachers' practice and learning during practicum.

Farrell (2001), focusing on a single case, stressed the necessity of quality collaboration among the supervisor, the cooperating teacher, the schools and the trainee teacher. Within a similar scope, Yuan (2016) revealed that student teachers constricted multiple identities, and that these were highly affected by mentoring teachers during practicum. Negativity stemming from mentoring did seem to hamper the identity formation process of pre-service teachers.

In another study conducted by Merç (2011), the researcher aimed to identify the source(s) of anxiety experienced by Turkish EFL student teachers during practicum. The researcher stated that the main themes playing an important role for anxiety sources were "students and class profiles", "classroom management", "teaching procedures", "being observed", and "mentors". In their study, Mahmoudi and Özkan (2016) reveal that the highest source of stress stemmed from supervisors and mentors. The pre-service language teachers employed some stress coping strategies during practicum based on the research findings and the study implied that such strategies should be discussed in teacher education programs.

The current study aims to discover how pre-service language teachers perceive the practicum experience focusing on issues such as strengths, weaknesses, and needs, and what solutions they would offer in tackling potential problems. Within this framework, we sought responses to the following research questions:

- What are the strengths and weaknesses of the school experience?
- What problems do usually arise during practicum, and what would be the most appropriate solutions to such problems?



2. METHOD

2.1 Participants

This study was conducted with 14 pre-service English language teachers studying at the English Language Teaching Department in the Faculty of Education at Cukurova University in Adana, Turkey. All the participants were all receiving the *School Experience* course delivered by one of the researchers in the fall term of 2016-2017 academic year at the time of the study. The participants were of ages ranging between 21 and 23, and were all in their fourth year at this teacher education program. They had completed the methodology, literature, linguistics, language skills and practicum courses at the department, and were all familiar with technology due to their utilization of smart phones, and computing devices necessitated by other department courses. During weekly course delivery gatherings with the participants, they were all encouraged to voice their views related to practicum issues that may have arisen during that particular week. Ethical considerations, names in particular, were taken into consideration in presenting, discussing and evaluating the findings.

Additionally, all participants submitted weekly reflective reports in writing throughout the fall term of 2016-2017 academic year. Beside the journals which lasted 14 weeks, interviews with four open-ended questions were also conducted to identify the differences among perceptions of the participants. The qualitative data was analyzed and coded by a thematic analysis (Creswell, 2005; Merriam & Tisdell, 2016).

2.2 Data Collection Tools

As for design, explorative case study was adopted for this research, and the data was collected through two instruments: a) weekly journals, and b) face-to-face semi-structured interviews.

Journals: 157 journals, each with varying number of sentences between 11 and 70 were submitted throughout the academic term with focus on practicum-related issues.

Interviews: Three interviews were conducted in a single academic term and were all semi-structured including open-ended and closed (yes-no) questions. The interviews, all face-to-face, were conducted in English, with a total duration of ≈120 minutes (≈10 minutes per student), and were audio-taped, transcribed and coded by the researchers. The qualitative data collected from face-to-face interviews and journals was compiled and analyzed using thematic analysis. Inter-rater reliability was sustained by two researchers' collaborative coding processes. Member checking was also conducted to ensure the validity of transcribed data.

Following the analysis process, the participants' reflective papers and transcribed data were grouped with respect to emerging themes in common.

3. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

In this section the emerging themes from journals and interviews were discussed with the participants' verbatim related to each category.

Strengths and weaknesses of the practicum: The majority of the participants (75%)

believed that the practicum experience provided an ideal platform to test and put in practice what they have been exposed to in their courses.

P6: Most of the time, I do remember the content of micro-sessions in the methodology courses and thus prepare our lesson plans accordingly.

Some of the participants (45%) stressed that mentoring teacher generated the highest level of stress in pre-service language teachers. They asserted that the mentoring teacher hampered their confidence and self-esteem by displaying negative attitudes or reactions towards them. Some others (35%) stated that classroom and time management created tension among them during practicum. Some expressed such a concern as follows:

P5: Most of the time, my mentor teacher did not allow me to teach the lesson or have a role during class. Also, I never received feedback from her about my teaching.

My mentor teacher never gave feedback about my teaching and my class management.

P9: My class was very crowded and this had a great impact on my teaching and using English in the classroom. Sometimes, I could not control the class and it was only waste of time. Therefore, I could not control the time and my lessons were mostly unfinished.

Needs and problems associated with the practicum experience were other issues for discussion in the journals and interviews. The data illustrated that the participants regarded mentors as only "knowledge transmitters" and, alas were far from being "a guide". One other significant point raised by 65% of the participants was that mentors did heavily pursue rote learning techniques in their teaching and this significantly negatively impacted students' creativity in classes (35%).

Most of the problems encountered by the student teachers were related to classroom management issues: a) timing, b) students' names, c) L1 use, and d) using various accents or exposure to global Englishes and English as a lingua franca (ELF).

P1: I had a great deal of difficulty in planning my time since there was a lot of chaos in the class.

P14: Different accents, besides British, should be used I guess.

Most of the perceptions of student teachers were overall positive. They had high hopes and high expectations from this experience, which is far beyond the class where they were once students. They see themselves well upgraded to a teacher's level, and naturally, they have built expectations in this line. The verbatim below can best illustrate one participant's perceptions:

P10: A good mentor must be qualified in her own major, be able to guide and act like a model for us. She should also develop her interactional skills.

P8: Practicum makes us see clashes between what we have covered and the real environment.

P5: My practicum experience is exciting for it makes me feel like a teacher.

Possible solutions

The majority of the participants (80%) highlighted the very need for collaborative support by mentoring teachers. Such support what they believed should involve close contact between teacher trainees and mentor teachers in order to facilitate teaching practices.

P11: I need a guide during practicum and my mentor teacher should be a good model for me.

A small portion of the participants (15%) expressed the views that emphasize the positive influence of technological tools and applications for decreasing the tension of pre-service teachers especially related to classroom management issues.

P5: By our using one of the Web.2.0 tools in my practice (at practicum), I managed to take students' attention and eliminate most of the unnecessary talk in the class.

4. CONCLUSION

Pre-service teachers' beliefs and perceptions are extremely significant in the practicum planning process of teacher education programs. The views of the participants of this study here can be particularly encouraging as they demonstrate realistically what student teachers hold valuable in their practicum, believing that such values would contribute to their personal and professional development. The results obtained invite for close cooperation between student teachers, mentors, school administrators and departmental staff, in that only through such cooperative work can related problems be resolved and mindset change be initiated. As a first and primary step to take in this direction would probably be the respect vested in pre-service teachers' voices by policy makers and teacher educators, who would be most eligible to highlight and discuss such problems within a pre-service educational framework. At a micro level, then, supervisor-mentor-pre-service teachers' professional cooperation should lead to most in-class practicum-related issues, classroom management being on top of the list, to be tackled efficiently.

Although this study clearly demonstrates that practicum programs have not yet fulfilled the needs felt by pre-service teachers, it is, however, not free from some limitations. Since the study comprises only a small group of student teachers at one single pre-service language teacher institution, justifiably, the findings cannot be generalized to all other programs of pre-service English language teachers. Further studies conducted in this direction, yet with a larger population, would certainly enhance the validity of the points discussed and the issues raised here.

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LACK OF CREDITATION IN ALBANIANS ECONOMY 2008-2018

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ABSTRACT

Credit is essential in developed economies where banking capital is organically connected to business capital. In Albania, banks are not organically connected to businesses. Businesses in Albania consider banks simply as money circulation institutions and not as credit entities. Banks in the West direct businesses to efficient equity markets, because they do not simply have a credit role but also financial advisory role. In Albania, if a bank goes bankrupt, businesses does not because the connection is too weak. The problem will appear to the depositors and not to the business. Banks will have problem when businesses fail, because the number of creditors is small.

Business credit is vital for the economy, but that does not mean that it is essential, especially for the Albanian economy, which has unusual theoretical macroeconomic indicators. In Albania, since 2014, ALL Deposits have fallen and business loans have low growth rates. Although the REPO rates decreased from 2008 to 2018 from 6.25% to 1%, this is reflected in both deposits rather than loans. This means that this decrease has not given its effect on credit growth.

KEY WORDS:

Credit, loans, deposits, economic growth, liquidity gap.

THE PAPER INCLUDES

1. Introduction
2. Policies undertaken to increase loans
3. Deposits indicators, loans 2008-2017
4. Macroeconomic Indicators 2008-2017
5. Correlation between these indicators
6. Conclusions and Recommendations

1. INTRODUCTION

The¹ structure of financial system assets is dominated by banks, whose assets account for about 93% of the total assets of the system. Over the period, the share of banks in the financial system has increased. Banks with foreign capital account for around 81.4% of the sector's total assets. Business Lending is essential for the economy and sustainable economic growth. But in Albania, banks are not organically linked to business. Due to this connection if a bank goes bankrupt does not affect the business activity in Albania. Business sees the bank as an institution that circulates money rather than as a lending and informing institution. The theoretical link between macroeconomic indicators is unusual for the Albanian economy. The stimulating monetary policies undertaken in recent years have not yielded results. The effects of the 2008 crisis were transmitted to various economies through various channels. Albania did not engage in a wake-up recession after the 2008 crisis, but the degradation of economic activity performance occurred year after year, culminating in the 2012 and 2013, 2012, when Albania was considered at the peak of its poverty and in 2013 when the public and economic financial situation was in a state of mind, and did not overpower us when we scanned the reality.

2. POLICIES UNDERTAKEN TO INCREASE LOANS

From the multi-year data review, it turns out that Albania's banking system has the lowest ratio of credit quality to bank deposits, as compared with other non-EU member banks and EU member states. From the data it is easy to understand that the level of bank deposit source used for lending in Albania is almost twice lower than that of banks of other countries aspiring to join the EU. It is known that bank deposits represent the most important source of the economy of a country that through the banking system should be used for the growth of its economy. Meanwhile, the following data shows that in Albania Banks do not properly play the mediator role in the use of free resources for rapid development of the country through private sector lending.

The Central Bank is engaged in a mitigating monetary policy through:

- Lowering the Base Rate of Interest
- Growth of money injecting into circulation
- Effective monetary policy transmission

The World Bank has consistently provided recommendations on the quality and level of lending in the economy. The government through the reforms undertaken aims at sustainable economic growth through the reforms undertaken in recent years.

¹ <https://www.ebf.eu/albania/>



3. DEPOSITS AND LOANS INDICATORS 2008-2017

The Bank of Albania reports that the private sector and public sector banking sector financing costs are low, reflecting the accommodative monetary policy rate. «Low interest rates on ALL loans have helped expand the loan portfolio in domestic currency, which remains the preferred financing instrument and the main supporter of credit expansion for the private sector. The annual growth rate of ALL credit fell by 6% in August. By the end of this month, this loan accounted for about 46.1% of the total loan, «the report recently published by the Bank of Albania.

Table 1: Interest rates on deposits and loans 2008-2017

Years	Time deposits in mld ALL	Loans in mld /ALL	Time Deposit dynamics in %	Loan dynamics in%	REPO rate	GDP in %	Unemployment rate
2008	262,261.00	114,051.9	2.3	34.4	6.25	7.50	12.5
2009	293,675.90	140,479.9	12.0	23.2	5.25	3.35	13.8
2010	329,090.00	157,197.30	12.1	11.9	5	3.71	14.2
2011	370,105.20	188,779.10	12.5	20.1	4.75	2.55	14.3
2012	388,330.50	215,122.70	4.9	14.0	4	1.40	13.9
2013	397,295.60	219,933.00	2.3	2.2	3	1.00	16.1
2014	369,035.00	233,443.00	-7.1	6.1	2.25	1.80	16.2
2015	338,847.20	240,783.90	-8.2	3.1	1.75	2.20	15.5
2016	301,511.70	259,547.60	-11.0	7.8	1.25	3.40	15.6
2017	277,349.90	273,261.90	-8.0	5.3	1.25	3.95	14.1

Table 2: Interest rates on deposits and loans over the years

years	Interest rate on 12 month deposits in ALL	Interest rate on 12M credits in ALL	The treasury bills interest rate 12 months	Base Interest Rate
2008	6.86	11.11	8.56	6.25
2009	6.75	12.04	9.14	5.25
2010	6.07	11.52	7.09	5
2011	5.87	11.17	6.95	4.75
2012	5.38	10.28	6.37	4
2013	4.17	9.52	3.66	3
2014	1.92	7.66	3.33	2.25
2015	1.35	7.77	2.4	1.75
2016	0.8	5.89	2.92	1.25
2017	0.75	5.98	2.63	1.25

4. MACROECONOMIC INDICATORS 2008-2017

Albania's² economic expansion is expected to continue in 2018-2020 as a result of stronger domestic demand. Private consumption is seen as the main driver of development in the context of improving the labor market, increasing trust and favorable financial conditions. Forecasts see investment as an additional source of growth, albeit at a more moderate pace than in the last two years. There is a risk that net exports will be deducted from the GDP growth in view of the stronger domestic demand. Monetary policy remained accommodative given that inflation stays below the target and the budget deficit stabilized at a moderate level in 2017. Fiscal consolidation plans have been postponed compared to last year's program, which will slow the projected reduction of still high ratio between public debt and GDP rates.

The banking sector remains liquid and well capitalized, and the risks to financial stability remain low. The ratio of non-performing loans (NPL) has decreased considerably, which has helped to curb credit risk, but still remains high and an obstacle to further lending. Following the adoption of the National Co-operative Memorandum for De-Euroisation in April 2017, the Bank of Albania adopted several measures, including the increase of the Mandatory Reserve Rate for eligible foreign currency liabilities of banks. A license was issued to open the first private stock exchange to contribute to the deepening of currently very shallow capital markets, which started its operations in late February 2018.

Table 3: Some macroeconomic indicators 2008-2017

INDICATORS		2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	
1	GDP real in %	X ₁	7.50	3.35	3.71	2.55	1.40	1.00	1.80	2.10	3.40	3.95
2	Unemployment in %	X ₂	12.50	13.80	14.20	14.30	13.90	16.10	17.90	17.50	15.6	14.1
3	Inflation in %	X ₃	3.40	2.30	3.60	1.70	2.40	1.90	0.70	2.00	1.8	2
4	REPO in %	X ₄	6.25	5.25	5.00	4.75	4.00	3.00	2.25	1.75	1.5	1.25
5	Exchange Rate ALL/Euro	X ₅	122.80	132.10	137.80	140.30	139.00	140.30	140.10	137.65	132	124

Table 4: The correlation rate between these indicators is:

		X1	X2	X3	X4	X5
GDP real in %	X1	1				
Unemployment in %	X2	-0.65	1			
Inflation in %	X3	0.665	-0.74	1		
REPO in %	X4	0.751	-0.96	0.704	1	
Exchange Rate ALL/Euro	X5	-0.925	0.62	-0.59	-0.671	1

2

https://ceas.europa.eu/delegations/albania/45224/node/45224_cs



Without deposits and loans there is no economic growth. Deposits increased by 58.9%, loans by 38.7%, GDP by only 32.3%. The reason behind the different growth rates here should be seen in the structure of deposits, the structure of loans as well as in the Loan / Deposits report. Over 90% of foreign currency deposits pass on loans, only about 60% of ALL deposits pass for the loan the rest goes for the purchase of Treasury Bonds.

5. CORRELATION BETWEEN THESE INDICATORS

The reason behind the different growth rates here should be seen in the structure of deposits, the structure of loans as well as in the Loan / Deposits report. Over 90% of foreign currency deposits pass on loans, only about 60% of ALL deposits pass on credit the rest goes for Treasury Bond purchases. Correlation coefficients show that the link between real GDP growth and unemployment rate is opposite but not strong. The relation between the real GDP growth rate and inflation is weak, at the same level as 0.665. This is because inflation is an imported phenomenon. The real GDP growth with the REPO norm has a relation of 0.751. That will mean they have the same tendency. Lower interest rate (REPO) has been accompanied by a decrease in real GDP growth rates. In fact, the opposite had to happen. In a country with a normal economy, the decline in the rate of REPOs would lead to a fall in lending interest rates. The relation of real GDP growth with the exchange rate is strong (-0.925) and in the opposite direction. This factor has influenced and continues to adversely affect economic growth because it stimulates imports and curbs the development of the country's economy. The annual GDP growth for 2018 is projected to be 4 percent. Electricity production from hydro sources almost doubled in the first half of 2018 compared to the same period last year, due to multiple rainfalls. Tourism is giving a strong boost to increased service exports.

Increasing employment, wages and loans continue to fuel private consumption. While private investment is slowing down with the completion of two major FDI-financed energy projects, high public infrastructure spending is supporting the growth of total investment. Sustained growth has supported the creation of jobs and encouraged participation in the workforce. The unemployment rate fell to 12.4 percent of the labor force. In 2018, Albania's fiscal deficit is projected to maintain 2 percent of GDP. In line with the fiscal rule, public debt is expected to decline from 71.6 percent of GDP in 2017 to 69.5 percent in 2018. The exchange rate appreciation is expected to keep the public debt ratio to GDP at a slightly lower level than last year, although external funding is expected to grow.

6. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The World Bank has contributed to the strengthening of the financial sector in Albania through several projects including the loan of the year 2014 for development policies for the modernization of the financial sector. These reforms will create the right environment for banking and non-banking financial institutions to extend credit

to the private sector, which will therefore be an impetus for economic growth.

The policy taken by the government and the financial sector authorities supported by the new project include significant improvements in the legal framework

The Bank of Albania has conducted a survey on non-performing loans and identified several measures that lower their level by more than 8%. Banking experts recommend restructuring instead of measures aimed at corporate bankruptcy that have bad credit.

The economic growth in Albania 4% came as a result of doubling the production of electricity from hydro sources as a result of the heavy rainfall, the successful tourist season that boosted the export of services and the recovery of the processing industry. Since lending is largely driven by lending to individuals, the creation of a more diversified financial sector that favors economic growth would also help attract local and foreign investors.

Total loans fell in Albania, reflecting partly the recent appreciation of the domestic currency, which reduced the value of foreign currency loans. Despite overall progress in the expansion of the credit market throughout the Western Balkans, domestic credit to the private sector continues to lag behind the levels of the European Union.

After several attempts to reduce foreign currency lending, the Bank of Albania, in January 2018, presented a comprehensive strategy to reduce the use of foreign currency. Progress towards Anti Foreign currency process has been gradual; In Albania, Foreign currency loans are about 50 percent. Bankruptcy laws have come into force in Albania. Albania is preparing to introduce a system for voluntary extrajudicial restructuring. In March 2018, the NPL regional average was 8 percent of total loans. Although NPLs have declined steadily in Albania, from over 20 percent at peak time to 13.3 percent in June, this level is still the highest in the region; Kosovo has the lowest level of NPLs with 2.8 percent of total loans.

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AWARENESS OF YOUTH FOR THE ENVIRONMENT

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ABSTRACT:

Air pollution and care for the environment during the years is a primary concern of many national and international institutions. The industrialized society now understands that one of the most necessary investments represents the protection of the environment, they have also realized that for the created state the main culprit is the man himself, by not keeping proper account of the nature that surrounds it. Retention in this regard is part of the lives of citizens of these countries. Unfortunately, there is a lack of constructive awareness in less developed countries where the Republic of Northern Macedonia also participates. Some cities in this small country face enormous environmental pollution. In those settings, the municipality of Tetovo is also a preoccupation of this research.

KEYWORDS:

pollution, environmental protection, undertaking the measures by the relevant institutions, correct attitude towards nature.

INTRODUCTION

The protection of the living environment becomes ever greater demand for the survival of human civilization. There is also a need for mobilization of all human resources in terms of capacity building for the effective implementation of leading policy with the environmental life protection. It is clear that one of the main reasons for the degradation of the living environment is the inappropriate way of human behavior, as well as insufficient education for rational use of available resources. We can rightly say that today education represents the core strategy of governments, UN, international organizations and local non-governmental groups in the protection of the living environment.¹

The right to a healthy living environment is a universal human right, as well as an individual right, but at the same time a collective obligation for all citizens to save themselves to preserve the environment.²

Health protection consists of measures, activities and procedures for maintaining and the advancement of health, the living environment and the working environment, the rights and obligations that are realized in the health insurance, as well as masses, activities and procedures taken by organizations in the field of health for maintaining and advancing people's health, prevention and extinguishing of diseases, damage and other health deteriorations, early detection of diseases and health conditions, early and efficient medication and rehabilitation with the application of professional medical measures, activities and procedures.³

In a new report published for the Paris Conference on Climate Change by EEA in Copenhagen, it is estimated that 430,000 premature deaths per year in Europe are related to air pollution. Air pollution continues to harm the overall health of people and reduces the quality of life and life expectancy. This also has a significant impact on increasing medical care costs and because of job shortages for health reasons it also reduces the productivity of the entire economy.⁴

Air pollution is one of the most serious problems in the world. It has to do with the introduction into the atmosphere of polluting substances that affect people's health and the environment. The atmosphere is one of the most important ways of distributing polluting substances to the environment. The distance to the transport of polluting substances to the atmosphere may be several hundred to thousands of kilometers. This causes atmospheric pollution often have a regional character even global character. These pollutants are emitted from various sources and some of them act among them to form new compounds in the air. When we consider that, heavy metals are elements that can not be broken down, then these metals will continue to stay in the environment. Unlike many organic pollutants that eventually degrade in carbon dioxide and water, heavy metals will tend to accumulate in the environment, especially in lakes, at the estuary or in marine sediments. These metals can be

1 Ismaili, M, Durmishi, B (2006) : Shoqeria dhe menaxhimi I mbrojtjes se mjedisit, Tetove

2 Kushtetuta e Republikës se Maqedonise, neni 43

3 Sluzben Vesnik na R.M, zakon za zdravstvena zastita, osnovni odredbi, clen 1

4 <https://portalb.mk/222101-ndotja-e-ajrit-shkakton-vdekje-te-parakohshme/>



transported from one part of the environment to the other. Downloads from heavy metals to the environment are a global problem, because they are an ever-increasing threat to the environment in general.⁵

The main sources of emissions of polluting substances are particularly metallurgical factories and plants, mines, combustion by-products, industrial releases, agricultural and urban development, pesticides containing heavy metals and traffic.

Ecological education is an active developmental process of learning in which individuals and groups benefit from much needed knowledge, meaning and skill for solving action, motivated, responsible and above all else in terms of achieving and maintaining dynamic equilibrium in the living environment.⁶

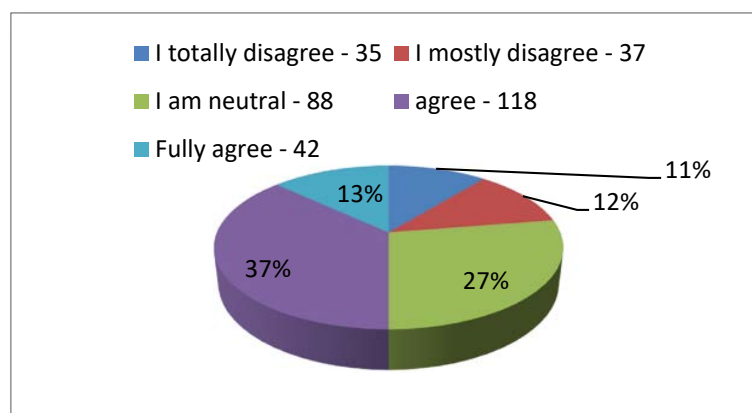
At the time of activities that could have an impact on the quality of ambient air, each is obliged to behave carefully and responsibly to avoid and prevent the pollution of environmental air and the harmful effects on health and the environment in general.⁷

Viewed from the above-mentioned perspectives the ongoing analysis has to do with one of the most polluted environments on the planet earth. It is about the city of Tetovo, located in the northwest part of the Republic of North Macedonia. In this research a considerable number of Tetovo population were surveyed mainly of young age, of different sexes and nationalities.

Of the respondents, 167 men and 153 women participated, expressed in percentage of 52% male and 48% females. Of the above mentioned number 148 are aged 15-16 years while 172 17-18 yr. In this research, there are participants of 197 people living around the city of Tetovo (rural areas), and 123 in the city. Viewed by ethnicity, 160 are Albanians, 90 Macedonians, 50 Turks, 20 others. Of this number, 148 were first-year students and 172 of the fourth year. In the following we will highlight only some of the most interesting questions of this research.

Degree for researching your attitudes for assessment of the living environment.

1. Very fast Earth will be overcrowded



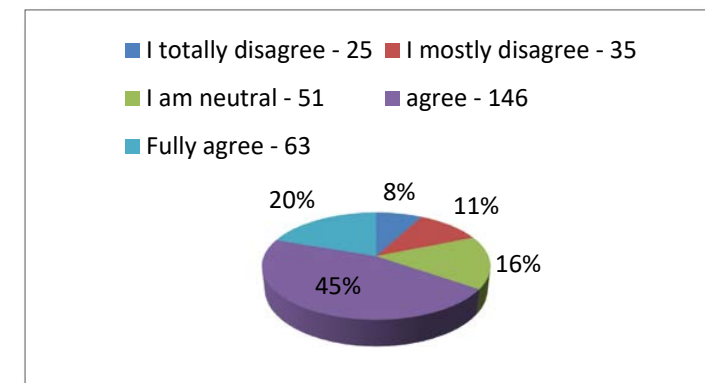
5 <https://www.slideshare.net/ervisicara/projekt-ndotja-e-mjedisit-ervis-cara>

6 Srbnovski, M. (2005), Environmental education, Prosvetno delo, Skopje

7 Sluzben vesnik na R.M, Zakon za kvalitet na ambientalniot vazduh,

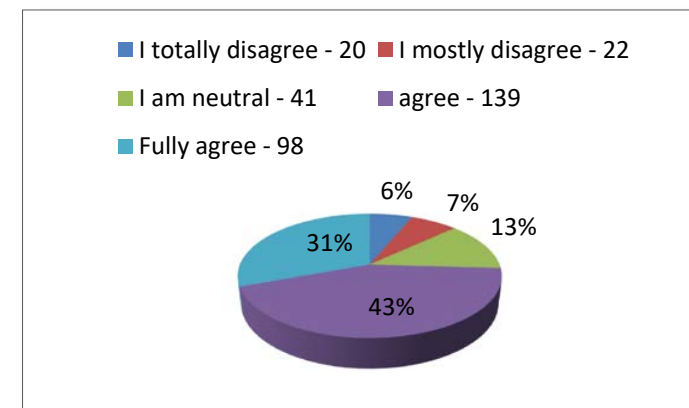
It is worrying that the question posed is noticed a lack of knowledge of high school youth about a vital problem for the future of the planet earth. This is evidenced by the fact that the 88 respondents expressed their neutrality.

2. Human beings have the right to adapt their living environment to their needs .



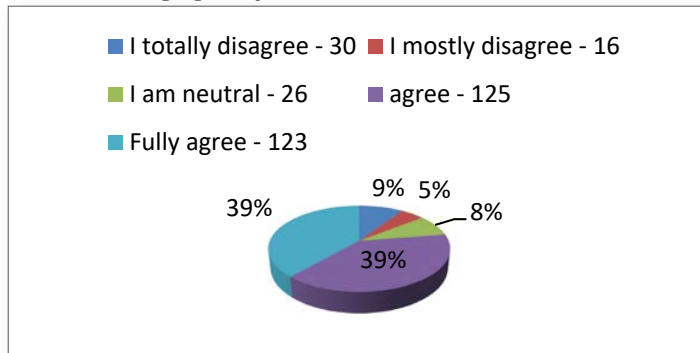
Failure to provide information even further comes to the answers given by the second question, where only 25 of the respondents expressed their position that they do not at all agree that human beings have the right to the living environment to adapt to their needs. Still worrisome is the number of those who agree, respectively, fully agree that a person has the right to dispose of the environment according to needs and desires.

3. When a person harasses nature, often faces dire consequences.



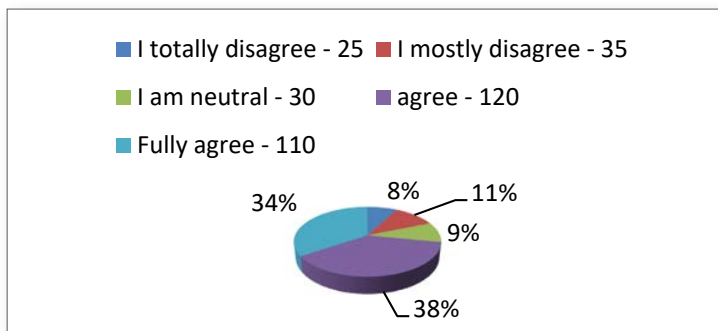
The answers to the third question are surprising, where 139 respondents agree that man often faces with terrible consequences in cases of harassing nature. If this is added to 98 respondents that completely agree, then everything becomes clearer. If we focus on the answers from the third question then we can conclude that maybe the preliminary questions were not sufficiently clear for the surveyed age groups and they have given not adequate answers to those questions.

4. Human beings greatly misuse the natural environment.



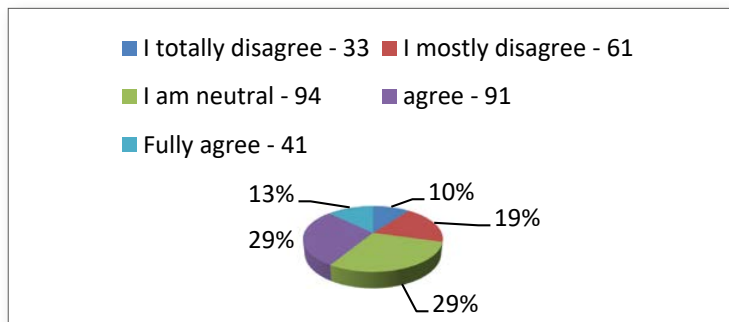
The fourth question even more confirms our assumption due to the fact that in these questions 125 respondents claim that human beings abuse the environment, while 123 others fully agree

5. The plant and animal world have the same right to life as humans



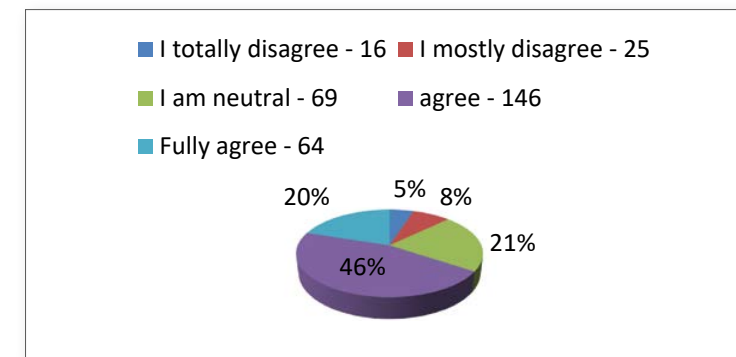
We are surprised by the fact that youth logic much more fairly than the older age groups for some fundamental issues related to the preservation of the environment. This is also evidenced by the answers given from the next question where 230 respondents agree or fully agree that the plant and animal world have the same right to life with humans.

6. Nature is strong enough to eliminate harmful effects caused by developed countries



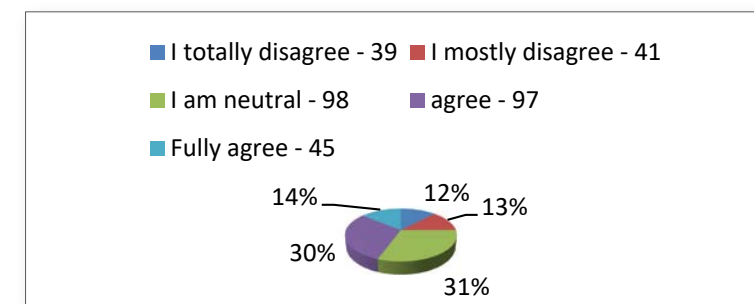
The next question to a significant extent reflects failure to properly inform the youth of Tetovo regarding industrial development. They did not do a better analysis, but have responded that nature is the one that in itself creates balance, bypassing the fact that traditionally developed countries have been the biggest environmental polluters. But this is not a rule, because many exceptions can be counted e.g the Republic of North Macedonia does not participate in developed industrial countries but is one of the most polluted sites in the globe. But because of the objectivity of these analyzes every time we have to consider the geographic extent of a state and the number of people living there.

7. Despite the great capabilities, as human being, we must nevertheless subject ourselves to the laws of nature



The next question again expresses a sound logic of the Tetovo high school youth, with the fact that 210 respondents have been expressed that apart from all achievements, human being must respect the laws of nature.

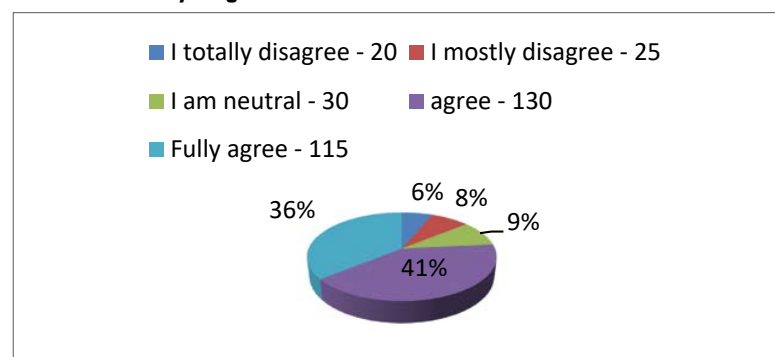
8. The so-called statement , "ecological crisis" that is threatened to the human race is exaggerated (excessive)



In the next question again, there is a slight fluctuation of attitudes with the fact that a significant percentage of respondents share the conviction that the ecological crisis debated in many local and global forums appear exaggerated.

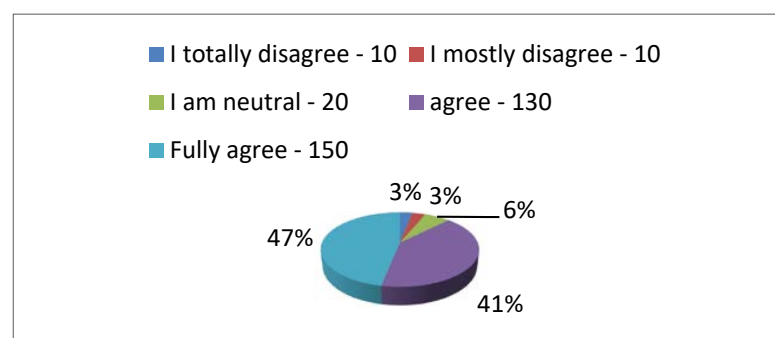


9. Nature is very fragile and vulnerable



The next question is clearly noted the logical attitude of the respondents with the very fact that most of them (130 agree and 115 fully agree) agree with the fact that nature is however viable and vulnerable to the uncontrolled actions of the human factor.

10. If we continue to do so with the environment, we will soon be faced with a great ecological catastrophe



To the last question asked, the surveyed youths of the high schools in Tetovo have proved their full maturity with the very fact that they have rightly perceived that people can do everything but not to behave with irresponsibility to the nature surrounding them. They give clear messages to their answers if people behave with no responsibility to the living environment will soon be faced with consequences respectively with great ecological crises which will make the imbalance in the relation kind human – nature and from all that biggest loss will be human type.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the data obtained from the questionnaire we can conclude that the high school youth despite the elementary knowledge of the living environment, still, there is a need for additional activities in their schools explaining to them what are the capabilities of nature and resources that it has, what are the possibilities of nature in relation to the large number of residents living on Earth today, to be taught that nature

and everything that exists is in harmony with one another and every touch in this harmony causes its disorder.

On the other hand, youth should understand that people should not rule the living things and everything else that exists on Earth but to coexist with them and cultivate them.

Regarding the “ecological crisis”, youth should know that it is not exaggerated, but with it as an existent reality, we should be regarded as individuals, as social groups and as an organized society, beyond what is meant by the conclusions of numerous national and international organizations and institutions that deal with this issue.

Starting from these recommendations, the municipality of Tetovo should be more active with regard to the development of activities from this field by holding various environmental seminars, collaborating with non-governmental organizations for citizen sensitization about how important a clean environment is. Also unavoidable necessity represents cooperation with central and international institutions to attract investment in this field, not to bypass in any way particular segments that contribute to raising the awareness and culture of citizens about the living environment.

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SOME BUSINESS IN *DYRRACHIUM* DURING I-III CENTURIES AD

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ABSTRACT.

In this paper, we will analyze the data that are discovered in archaeological excavations in *Dyrrachium*, the modern city of Durres in Albania. The archaeological excavations that are made in the last fifty years have discovered interesting information about business in this city during the I-III centuries AD. The city of *Dyrrachium* was the most important city during the Roman Imperial Period in Albanian territory. It was inhabited by thousand citizens from I century AD to III century AD. In this study, we will analyze the results of excavations that are made in Durres where are discovered ruins of business building in I-III centuries AD. Naturally, it is impossible to identify all business that have existed in I-III centuries AD in *Dyrrachium* because the scarce archaeological and historical data. This paper will mention and analyze some of business that are found and study today. The majority of the business that are discovered were small of medium activity, only a few were big business.

KEY WORDS:

Business, Fullonica, Thermopolium, ceramic manufacture, glass manufacture

INTRODUCTION

In these days, the archaeological studies are more and more focused in economic fields of the ancient society. The researchers are interested to know the economic situation of the ancient human society. For this purpose, our study is focused in economical situation of the inhabitant of the city of *Dyrrachium* during Roman Imperial Period.

This ancient city was one of the most important in the Albanian territory in Antiquity. Also, it was one of the most important at the western coast of the Balkan Peninsula during the Greco-Roman period. *Dyrrachium* was one of the great economical developed towns in Antiquity in Albania. It was one of the causes why stated The Peloponnesian War between Athens and Sparta. Not only that, the city of *Dyrrachium* was the reason why started The Roman-Illyrian War.

The city of *Dyrrachium* during the I-III centuries AD was the most important port in the east Adriatic coast. Some important roads have connected the city with the other parts of Balkan Peninsula. This city was the starting point of the ancient roman road named "Via Egnatia". The port of Durres was an important connection point for the products that came from Italy to Balkan and vice versa. Also, the geographic position and the good climatic condition have influenced the development of the city in I-III century AD. This is demonstrated from the archaeological finds that are discovered in the excavations in Durres as monuments, ceramics, glass, coins etc.

The city of *Dyrrachium* during I-III centuries AD had about 40-50 thousand inhabitants. Nowadays, the classical study told that the business during the Antiquity was divided only in two categories: the big business and the small business. This study will tell that in Durres was not this classification in I-III centuries AD but they were divided in three categories: larger, middle and small businesses.

Project Objective

In the modern city of Durres are conducted much archaeological excavation during the last four decades by Albanian and by non-Albanian archaeologists. These archaeological excavations have discovered information about businesses that have existed in *Dyrrachium* during the I-III centuries AD. So, the project objectives of this study are:

To start with, we will the mention of the businesses during the Roman Imperial Period that are found in Durres during. We know that it is impossible to identify all the businesses that have existed in *Dyrrachium* because the data are scarce for some types of enterprises during the I-III centuries AD.

Secondly, in this study we will identify which business were large, middle and lower businesses. As we know, this objective is very difficult because anyone today has made such a study in Albania yet.

Thirdly, we will tell what each business has produced during the Roman Imperial Period in *Dyrrachium*. Although, we know that this is very difficult to do this because the historical and the archaeological information that we have today are still not totally complete.

On the other hand, these are the project objectives that we have in this paper.



However, we know that these project objectives are not so easy to realized but the archaeological finds can help us in this study.

1.2 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

In our scientific study, we have used scientific methods. The archaeology study has its methods that the scholar can use for make a scientific study. In this paper, we have used the scientific methods that archaeologists usually use in their study. We will mention all the scientific methods that we have used in this paper.

Firstly, the principal methods are the archaeological excavations. These excavations are made by Albanians archaeologists during the last four decades. In different archaeological excavations, they have found data about Businesses in Durres during the Roman Imperial Period. The archaeological data that we have analyzed are: epigraphic inscription, artifact, ceramic, coins, architectural etc. Consequently, if we want to know and understand the businesses of *Dyrrachium* in I-IV centuries AD, we have to analyze the archaeological data because they are very important.

Secondly, the ancient Greek and Roman authors have writing for *Dyrrachium* in Antiquity. In their books, they have given information for business that had existed in the city during Roman Period. As a result of, this information is very important to complete the archaeological data in those cases where they are not complete.

Also, we have studied the archaeological finds in some Museum in Albania, where they are preserved today. In the first place, we analyzed the data at the Archaeological Museum of Durres. Furthermore, the data at the Archaeological Museum of Tirana and the Historical Museum of Tirana are studied. The archaeological evidence told us much about the businesses in *Dyrrachium* during I-III centuries AD.

Fourthly, the last method that we have used in this paper is the publication study of the other archaeologists. Albanian and foreign archaeologists have published papers and books for *Dyrrachium*. In these scientific publications, they spoken for businesses of Durres in the I-IV centuries AD but anyone of these scholars have mentioned one or two businesses during the Roman Imperial Period in this town.

All in all, these methods not only are scientific but are the most modern in the world. Today, they are use by all archaeologists in the world. Although, these are not all scientific methods that archaeologist use during their excavations and their studies. In this day, there are more and more archaeological methods for make e scientific study but for this paper we have used the four methods that we have mentioned before because we are conditioned from the archaeological data that are found until today. In the future, the other archaeological data and method will identify more social stratum in *Dyrrachium*.

ANALYSIS RESULT

The city of Durres was the most important at the western coast of the Balkan Peninsula during the I-III centuries AD. In this period, the city was under the roman control and it was part of the Roman Empire. It is known by the ancient roman authors

that the roman changed the Hellenistic name of Durres from *Epidamnos* to *Dyrrachium* (Mela 2002; Plini the Old 2002; Appianus 2002) because the word *damnus* for the roman brought bad luck. So, from the first century BC, Durres was called *Dyrrachium* by roman during all the Antiquity and Late Antiquity.

The port of *Dyrrachium* increases the importance of the city because here passed the ancient trade roads that connected Italia with the roman Balkan provinces. The important naval and earthly roads connected the city with other parts of Balkan and Apennine Peninsula (Kasa 2015 page 28-34). So, products and goods came in *Dyrrachium* from Italy to Balkan and vice versa (Kasa 2013 page 118-124). Also, the geographic position and the climatic condition had influenced the development of the city in I-IV centuries AD.

In the I-III centuries AD, the city of *Dyrrachium* had its more economic development. This is demonstrated from the archaeological finds that are discovered in the archaeological excavations in *Dyrrachium* as coin, ceramic, glass production, statue, terra cotta, the amphitheater, roman bath, aqueduct etc. (Kasa 2017 page 125-150). It was a heterogeneity city during Roman Imperial Period (Kasa 2018 page 46-53) and the inhabitants of *Dyrrachium* were Romanize in the I-III centuries AD (Kasa 2014 page 22-31).

This economical development created good conditions to open businesses in the city. So, the entrepreneurs invested their capitals and open some businesses in this period. Data that prove the existence of these businesses in *Dyrrachium* during I-III centuries AD are discovered by the archaeological excavations inside and in the periphery of the modern city of Durres.

The businesses of the roman period that are discovered in Durres were: big, middle and small enterprises. We have to underline that all the businesses ruins of roman age in Durres are discovered only the foundations, with few data about their use. We have identified the big business but it is difficult to identify which were middle or small enterprises because the scarce information. So, the middle and the small businesses in *Dyrrachium* we have classified both as one.

The big businesses in *Dyrrachium* were organized as the roman model of these centuries. These were named *Villa Rustica* and they were aristocracy private property. These businesses were named *Rustica* or *Rusticum* by the ancient Romans because they were located in countryside. It would often comprise separate buildings to accommodate farm laborers and slaves, warehouse and barns for animals and crops etc. The roman *Villa Rustica* in I-III centuries had three differed parts: the Urbana or main house building, agricultural center and the *Rusticum* or farm area. The *Rusticum* part was the most important area in this business. In this area here worked the workers and slaves to produced all the products that the owner will sell in the market.

The archaeological excavations had discovered ruins of four Villa near *Dyrrachium*. These Villa are dated in I-III centuries AD and they are not discovered completely. One Villa ruins is discovered about 13 km in the north of Durres, near the modern Erzen river embouchure (Myrto 1986 page 257, Myrto 1989 page 90). This house is discovered partially and the major part of it is sill un-excavated. The archaeological excavation found the foundations of 9 rooms, a corridor and a courtyard. Unfortunately, the data

that may help to understand the function of house space were scarce but the researcher understood from the archaeological context that it was a Roman Villa *Rustica*.

Other two Roman Villa ruins are discovered partially 10 km in the south of the modern city of Durres, near the Kavaja cliff (Myrto 1984 page 143-144). Also, another Roman Villa it is discovered 5 km in the east of Durres, today this area is called Shkozet. These three Roman Villa were inhabited from the second century BC to the second century AD. During the first half of the III century AD these fourth Roman Villa *Rustica* in *Dyrrachium* are destroyed. It is not clear what happened and why these agricultural estates are destroyed.

The Villa *Rustica* often was a hub of a large agricultural estate or *Latifundium*. The Villa *Rustica* in the I-III centuries AD produced agriculture and livestock products. Around the Roman Villa *Rustica* located a very extensive parcel of privately owned land. In this time, this land was called *Latifundium* or *Latifundia*. This name composed from two Latin words: *Latus* translated it means spacious and *Fundium* translated it means farm or estate. These extensive parcel estates produced agricultural products destined for export as grain, olive oil or wine etc. Also, in Villa *Rustica* could be devoted to livestock for herd breeding sheep, folds, chicken, horses, pig etc. These animals and their animal products were destined for export.

So, the Villa *Rustica* was an agribusiness or a farm in this time. The Villa *Rustica* during the Roman Imperial Period would serve as a residence of the landowner, his family and retainers but also as a farm management centre. They supplied the city with all agriculture and livestock products that the market needed. These big businesses had near of a city, a pavement road and agricultural land. These characteristics were important to move the products in the city market with a pavement road. So, the Villa *Rustica* was the closest approximation to industrialized agriculture in Antiquity. All their economics and work depended upon slavery.

Also, in Durres are discovered middle and small businesses of Roman Imperial Period. The ancient Roman did not have a clear division between middle and small businesses. Roman called both businesses *Tabernae*. It was normal during the Roman Imperial Period to see inside the defending city wall middle and small businesses in the Forum and in the first floor of the *Insulae*. So, *Tabernae* were “retail unit” within the Roman Empire Period. They were where many economic activities and many service industries were provided, including the sale of cooked food, wine, fish and bread.

The *Tabernae* were workshop or manufacture where were produced and sold the products. In this time, *Dyrrachium* was a major port area in Albania where imported luxury and exotic goods. These luxury and exotic goods were sold to the public. The function of *Tabernae* was a structural building that facilitated the sale of goods in the city. In the Roman Empire were two types of *Tabernae*: those that were found in domestic house and those that were found in public settings.

In *Dyrrachium* are discovered *Tabernae* in their external facade of Domestic houses, which were established in residential multi-storey apartment blocks called *Insulae*. As the development of urban center of *Dyrrachium*, the Elite of the city continued to develop residential and commercial buildings to accommodate the large masses of people coming in and out of this market center. The *Insulae* in this city were constructed

with *Tabernae*, located on the lower levels or first floor of them. In I-III centuries AD, the people who ran the *Tabernae* were called *Tabernari*. They were mainly urban freedman who had a *Tabernae* in his property or they were worked under a patron who owned the building and the *Tabernari* rent and used it for his activity.

The second type of *Tabernae* that had existed in the Roman Empire Period were similar to domestic businesses found in *Insulae* because they were in a fixed location within a complex of buildings. However, the difference was that they were located within public markets and forums. During the day, these areas received high amounts of human movement. The second type of *Tabernae* is not discovered in *Dyrrachium* yet. The public Roman area in *Dyrrachium*, as market and forum, are undiscovered yet. These areas still are under the modern building of Durres and they are waiting to be discovered in the future archaeological excavations.

In the last forty years are excavated more than 120 sites in Durres. In these archaeological excavations, only in 56 sites belong to I-III centuries AD (Kasa 2017 page 51-67). The numbers of *Tabernae* that are discovered in Durres are 33 and they all are discovered in 7 different archaeological sites inside the city (Kasa 2017 page 51-67). In the Roman Imperial Period it was usually that the building where was the businesses had one or two floors. When they had one floor, it was used as workshop and shop but if the business had two floors, the first floor was used as workshop and shop while the second floor (*Mezzanine*) it used as place where the owner and his family sleep during the night.

So, in the archaeological site number 4 in Durres are discovered parts of four different *Tabernae*. Only in one of these businesses are found data that inform the archaeologists which products were produced here. In this *Tabernae* are discovered formworks used for products pottery. This business was a manufacture where were produced ware to used in cook, transport, house and for deposited products. In the other three *Tabernae* are not discovered data that can inform the researchers what were produced. All the four businesses are dated in II-IV centuries AD (Shehi 2007 page 167-169).

In the site number 7 in Durres are discovered another three *Tabernae* of I-II centuries AD (Shehi 2007 page 173-176). The data that are found told us that the largest of them was a *Thermopolium*. This was an ancient Roman business where were produced and sold cooked food and drinks. From this *Thermopolium* are discovered two rooms, the largest room was used as a place where were served food and drink and the small room was a warehouse. In the other two *Tabernae* are not discovered data that could help the archaeologist to identify the types of businesses that they were in Roman Imperial Period.

In the end of second century AD these three businesses were burnt. The owners rebuilt the businesses in the end of second century AD. This rebuilt was used by the owners to reorganize the internal space of three burnt businesses of I-II centuries AD to create five *Tabernae*. So, the owners had more businesses to use or to rent them. This will give more economical benefit for the owners. The researchers did not find data that will help to understand what types of business activity were used them. These businesses existed until the middle of IV century AD, when the earthquake destroyed

all five *Tabernae*.

The archaeological excavation in the site number 9 in Durres has discovered 21 roman *Tabernae* ruins. All the manufactures were discovered in the first floor of four roman residential blocks or *Insulae*. In some case it is discovered the function that businesses had in I-II centuries but in other cases not because the archaeological data were scarce. In this site are discovered a *Thermopolium*, three manufacture where were produced pottery, two manufacture for glass production, one manufacture for small metal products, a bar where were sold drinks, a *tabernae* where washed and strengthened the clothes color and two shops. In the other *Tabernae* are not discovered data which could inform us about their activity during I-III centuries AD.

The ruins of a roman bar are discovered in this site where the people came to drink or bought liquor. This roman bar had two rooms, divided from a wall, the dimensions of largest room was 4.70x3.40 m while the closely room dimensions was 4.70x1.40 m. The largest room has a door, which it is open to the street. This room was used as a place where the persons stayed and drank. The second room was smaller than the first. Inside of this room are discovered a lot of earthenware and a well. The earthenware were used for drank the wine or other liquor of this time. The well was used for cooled the drinks in the hot moment of the day or during the hot period of the year. The bar was active from first century AD to the third century AD, when it was burnt from a fire.

A second Roman *Thermopolium* it is discovered in the site number 9 in *Dyrrachium*. It was placed in the north of the bar that we spoke previously and both were divided from a wall. The archaeological data discovered inside of it, inform that this was a business where sold cereals or cooked food. This business had two rooms, both built in *Opus Incertum technique*. The first room had dimension 4.80x4.90 m and it is open to the road. This room was used as place where the clients ate or bought the trade products. The second room had dimension 1.40x9.20 m and it was a warehouse where the own hold the food or cereals that had to sold. In this room are discovered a lot of clay pots (*Dolium*), which were used during the I-III centuries to store products. Both rooms were connected with a door. This business was destroyed from a fire in the middle of second century AD.

Another business of I-II centuries AD discovered in the site number 9 in *Dyrrachium* was a *Fullonicae*. In this period, a *Fullonicae* was a laundry in the Roman Imperial Period. So, it was a business where the clients brought to wash and clean clothes. In this business are discovered only five rooms, the other parts are still under the modern building of Durres. This first room was a shop with dimension 5.35x3.70 m. Behind the shop were three rooms, where were washed and cleaned the clothes. The first room has dimension 3.00x3.65 m, inside of this are discovered three clay tubs used for washed and cleaned the clothes. In the middle of the room was a well and in the north and east of it were the three tubs. Behind the second room was the third room and after that the fourth room. In the both are discovered a clay tub used for wash and cleaned clothes. Behind the fourth room was a courtyard, which was used to woven and dried the washed clothes. All the inside wall of these rooms were built in *Opus Mixtum* technique.

In *Fullonicae* worked the *Fullo*, the persons who wash and clean the clothes. Usually,

Fullo were slaves in roman time. According to Pliny the Elder, the work of *Fullo* was taken very seriously and it was highly reputable profession in Roman Imperial Period. The *Fullonicae* were legally responsible for the clothes they were washing and if they returned the wrong or damaged clothes to the client, the *Fullonicae* were subject to penalties. This business was burnt in the middle of second century AD.

In another *Insulae* of site 9 are discovered seven businesses of the I-III centuries AD. In the north-east corner of this *Insulae* it is discovered a room with dimension 9.60x4.60 m. The foundation of this room was built in the roman technique *Opus Quadatum* but the north wall was built in *Opus Incertum* and the south wall in *Opus Quasi Reticulatum* technique. Inside of this room are discovered a sink, which was used to wash the pots of the shop, and some other parts of ceramics ware. So, this business was a shop where were sold products for house or cosmetics.

In the south of the shop, it is discovered a second business of I-II centuries. This was another *Thermopolium*, the third that is discovered in *Dyrrachium*. The room was 9.60 m long and 4.60 wide. Inside of this room, in the south-east it is discovered a place where were prepared and cooked the food. Near of this place, it is discovered a well with diameter 0.80 m and it was used during the cooked process to take water. In the north-east of the room it is discovered a counter built in brick and mortar, with dimension 1.10x0.30 m, where the clients orders what they want to ate or paid the orders.

In the south of *Thermopolium*, it discovered the ruins of a roman *Tabernae* of I-II centuries AD. This business it is discovered uncompleted because other parts are still under the modern road and building of Durres. The excavation found part of two rooms, both wall built in the roman technique *Opus Incertum*. The first room was wide 4.50 m and long 9.60 m. This room was opened to the street and it was a shop where were sold the products. Behind the shop are discovered partially a manufacture where were produced the small metal products for house as keys, keyhole, small metal kitchenware, candle holder etc. that were sold in the shop. The second room was a manufacture where were produced these small metal products for house because some of these are discovered unfinished yet. Both rooms are connected with each other through a wooden gate, which had a square brick and mortar colon in each side.

A roman business of I-III centuries AD was a room in the south of the metal manufacture that we just described. This room is not discovered completely because it continues under the modern road and building of Durres. Inside of this room are discovered cesspool and sewerage, built in brick and mortar. So, this room was a *Latrina* of I-II centuries AD and it was a private property. If the inhabitants wanted to use this WC, they would pay for this service.

A *Tabernae* of I-II centuries AD it is identified in a roman *Insulae* of *Dyrrachium*. This *Tabernae* had three parts: a workshop or manufacture, a shop and a courtyard. The shop was opened to the road with dimension 2.60x4.70 m. Inside of this room are discovered the ruins of a furnace, it was built with brick and clay, where were produced pots, brick or tiles. This room was connected with the other two parts of this *Tabernae*. In front of the workshop, it was the shop where were sold the products of this business. The shop was long 5.50 m and wide 4.00 m. The courtyard was long 4.90 m and wide

10.60 m. It is not completely clear the function of this courtyard in this *Tabernae*. This business was burnt in the end of II century AD and in the beginning of III century AD on the ruins of this *Tabernae* it was built a structure with unclear function.

In the east of the business that we just mentioned are discovered the ruins of a fourth *Thermopolium* in *Dyrrachium*. This roman business had two rooms. The first room, with plan as L roman letter, it was opened to the road. In this room it is discovered a counter long 1.30 m, wide 0.25 m and high 1.05 m, where the clients paid or order for the food that they want to ate. So, this room was the space where the clients stay and ate in the *Thermopolium*. This room connected with a door 1.75 m wide to the second room of this business. It is not clear the function of this room because the archaeological data that are discovered inside were scarce. Maybe, it was the place where the owner keeps the food and drinks. This business was built in the middle of I century AD but in the middle of II century AD it burnt from a fire. This business was rebuilt in immediately and it was an active *Thermopolium* until the middle of IV century AD where a earthquake destroyed it.

The ruins of other five shops of I-II centuries AD are discovered in the site number 9. Unfortunately, inside of them are not found any information about the products that are sold in the Roman Imperial Period. All the shop are bunt and destroyed from a fire in the end of II century AD and the owners rebuilt them but not as business but as room of houses of III-IV centuries AD. Probably, in these centuries the conditions of business were not so good and the owner decided to use the rebuilt private building not as business but as house rooms.

Two businesses of I-II centuries AD where were produced glass are discovered in this archaeological site. Both are in the same *Insulae* and only the ruins are preserved. In the west side of the *Insulae*, was the smallest business. It had a single room large 8.00 m and wide 4.60 m. Inside of this room are discovered two brick pool and a furnace, which were used to produced the glass. The largest business was in the east side of the *Insulae* and had many rooms but they were not preserved completely. This business had a U plan, where the rooms in the south side were shops and the room behind these shops was the place where was produced the glass. The pieces of unfinished glass inform that these glass business of Roman Imperial Period in Durres produced glass, cup, plates, bowl, server, bottle, window pane etc. Both of these businesses were built in I century AD and they were burnt from a fire in the second half of II century AD.

In Durres the archaeological excavation discovered in the site 12 a roman *Tabernae* where produced pottery. The excavation found three rooms ruin but only in one of these the researcher discovered an oven large 3.00, wide 3.00 and high 1.00 m. This oven was built with bricks and clay. It was used for baked the ceramics ware because on it were discovered unfinished clay ware, bricks and tiles (Shehi 2007 page 173-174). The upper part of the oven was found destroyed. This business was built in the III-II centuries BC and it was burnt from a fire in the first century AD, maybe by carelessness of a worker, and it was never rebuilt.

Data for a roman business it is discovered in the site 15 in Durres. In a mosaic of I-III centuries AD in a *Tabernae* it is discovered an inscription in Latin word where was written: OFF (CINAE) PONT (I) HER (MERACLEIUS (Zeqo 1988 page 258-260). So, the

inscription tells us about a workshop and its owner named *Ponti Hermeracleius* but not what were produced in it. This was a early form of marketing and brand promotion during the Roman Imperial Period because the inscription was placed in a public place where all the persons that are going to enter in this business will see it.

The site 55 it is the last in *Dyrrachium* where it is discovered a damaged *Tabernae* of II-IV centuries AD. From this roman business are discovered only the some part of foundations of two rooms. Inside of one of this business are found negative ingot for ware productions. These told the researcher that it was a Workshop where were produced ceramics (Toçi 1974 page 382). These ingots were used to produce ware for house as plate, cup, bowl, lamp etc. In IV century AD, the workshop it is burnt from a fire and it never rebuilt.

In finished, the *Tabernae* have revolutionized the *Dyrrachium* economy in the I-III centuries AD because they were the first permanent retail structures within cities. They had signified persistent growth and expansion in the city economy in this period. These middle and small businesses provided places in *Dyrrachium* for a variety of agricultural and manufacture products to be sold, like wheat, bread, wine, jewelry and other items. The *Tabernae* were also the structures where grain would be sold to the public. Moreover, *Tabernae* were used in roman time as lucrative measures to gain upward social mobility for the freedmen class in *Dyrrachium*. The occupation of a merchant and a producer were not highly regarded in *Dyrrachium* economy. It still pervaded the freedman class as means to establish the financial stability and some influence in local government of the city.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The archaeological data discovered in excavations in Durres inform us that in this town existed and worked businesses during I-III centuries AD. These businesses were inside or in periphery of the city. The information that we have, tell that in *Dyrrachium* during the Roman Imperial Period were private businesses, with one or more owners.

Firstly, we will analyze the larger or bigger businesses of this time. These businesses had been private property of the high class or aristocracy. In the Roman Imperial Period the aristocracy businesses were named Villa Rustica. Usually, they were in the periphery of the city where the aristocracy had their properties. Some archaeological excavations near Durres have discovered the ruins of four Roman Villa. The Villa Rustica produced in these centuries agricultural and livestock products. So, the upper businesses were like modern farm. Also, large businesses in I-III centuries AD in *Dyrrachium* were the constructor industry. The aristocracy had capital to built building in the city where the inhabitants that did not lived inside the city could rent a house.

Secondly, the archaeological excavations discovered some middle and small businesses or manufacture during I-III centuries AD in Durres. The identification which was part of middle or small businesses in *Dyrrachium* it is difficult because the data are scarce. So, we have included these two categories in one group. We have named this group *Tabernae*, just like the ancient name which roman named these

types of businesses. These were private enterprises inside the defensive wall of the city. The archaeological excavations discovered the ruins of some of these *Tabernae* as: Thermopolium, Fullonica, shops, bar, manufacture that worked and produced glass, pottery and metals.

In the other hand, these were the businesses that are discovered in Durres in the Roman Imperial Period. Other runis of ancient businesses are undiscovered and they still are under the modern city that are waiting to discovered by the future archaeologists.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the archaeological excavations in *Dyrrachium* prove that in I-III centuries was a development town. This city was a consumer city and his markets had to supply with products and goods every day. These market requests were fulfilled by imports and local productions. The local productions of the city were divided in three types of businesses: the big, middle and small. The big businesses, as *Villa Rustica* and the constructor industry, were property of the aristocracy of *Dyrrachium*. The middle and the small businesses, named *Tabernae*, were craft and trade enterprise in possession of the middle class of *Dyrrachium*. Usually, the businesses which were in possession of the aristocracy located outside of the city because there were in the property of the owner/s but the middle and the small businesses were inside of the city. So, Durres in I-III centuries AD had good conditions for who want to open a business. This can explained the number of the businesses that were active during the Roman Imperial Period.

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External trade and export-import analysis for the five last years period according to, products and countries, Albania Case

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ABSTRACT

This paper is focused mainly on an analysis of foreign trade including imports and exports of goods by products and countries. The scope of data are based on a period of time including annual data for the period 2014-2018. we have collected the data provided by INSTAT on foreign trade of goods, and we have used comparative analysis to determine which types of products, Albania has exported more during the 5-years period taken in the study and which types of products has imported more according respective periods. The data provided by INSTAT include data on trade between Albania and other countries of the world. Also, we are based on comparative analysis to determine which are the countries where Albania has exported and imported more goods according to relevant annual periods of study, and how the exports and imports have been performed on over the respective periods. The purpose of this paper is to analyse trade balance regard to weight occupied by exports compared to imports. In our paper we used quantitative data which are calculated and expressed in % (percent) based in comparative analyses which are interpreted by using the descriptive method.

KEYWORDS:

Trade, Trade balance, Foreign trade, Trade of goods, Export, Import

1.INTRODUCTION

This paper is focused on the foreign trade of goods for Albania case, including data on trade between Albania and the rest of world. Statistics contain data that analyze foreign trade, including imports and exports of goods by product and by countries. We've obtained data from INSTAT publications on foreign trade for the years period 2014-2018. Analysis focuses mainly on the weight of exports and imports according to products and countries.

How have they changed according to the respective periods taken in the study? How was the performance of exports compared to imports and trade balance according to respective periods of study.

The trade balance presents ratio between import and export for period, usually one year. If the export value is higher than import value then trade balance is positive or active, but if import value exceeds export value, then trade balance is negative or passive. Our paper is based on comparative analysis between the relevant periods on the performance of exports and imports.

1.1 Research Method

In this paper we've used the descriptive method which is based on comparative analysis expressed in % , on performance of exports and imports according to relevant periods taken in the study.

The data

External trade data we used are secondary data for the period 2014-2018. And we've analyzed the performance of exports and imports by product, and by countries. We also focused on the analysis of trade balance to highlight relationship between import and export for years periods taken in study.

The paper purpose

The paper purpose is to analyse trade balance regard to weight occupied by exports compared to imports.

Analysis Result

Foreign trade according to products, for years period 2014-2018

Imports according to the foreign trade , standard classification

Currency: million ALL

Table 1.1¹

Imports according to the standard foreign trade, standart classification, (Import CIF)	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
Import (total) million ALL	552,281	544,616	579,248	626,186	641,405
Food, beverages, tobacco	93,971	96,897	100,365	106,738	106,494
Minerals, fuels, electricity	90,225	60,164	49,842	65,963	68,383
Chemical and plastic products	72,921	74,926	80,008	86,887	87,736
Leather and leather manufactures	14,320	15,916	17,378	18,983	18,895
Wood manufactures and articles of paper	22,922	21,736	23,357	23,692	25,153
Textile and footwear	63,004	69,300	79,971	87,123	88,219
Construction materials and metals	70,805	67,541	76,002	76,624	78,387
Machineries, equipments and spare parts	105,692	117,291	130,953	134,060	142,318
Others	18,421	20,846	21,372	26,117	25,819

Source: INSTAT, External Trade by Product, Import, 2014-2018

INTERPRETATION

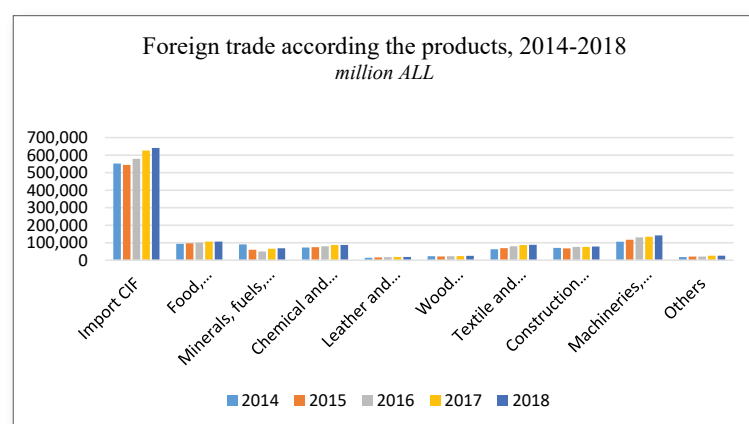
During the 5-year period including [2014-2018] there is a growing trend of exports and imports.

The group products that dominate imports in 2018 compared to 2017 are:

Machineries, equipment and spare parts, increasing by 16.6% Compared with 2017.

Imports of Products, Food, beverages, tobacco in the years period 2017 and 2018 have increased more compared to other years. In 2017, the import values of these products are 0.24% higher compared to 2018.

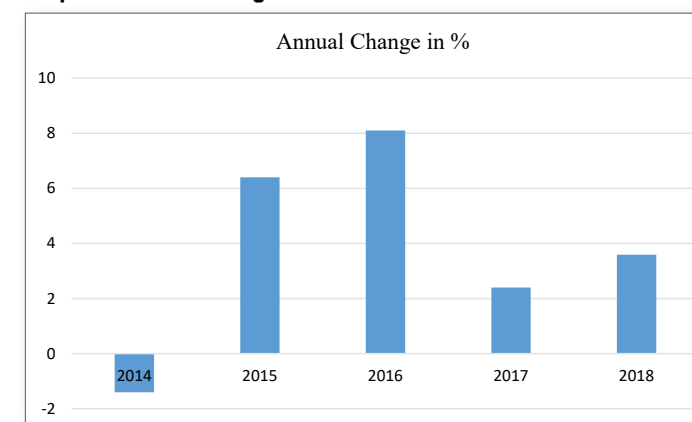
Graph:1 Foreign trade according the products, Imports, 2014-2018



Source: INSTAT: the data processed by Eriona Deda

1 INSTAT. (2019). External trade by products, Import, 2014-2018. [Online] Available: <http://www.instat.gov.al/al/temat/tregtia-e-jashtme/tregtia-e-jashtme-e-mallrave/#tab2> (January, 2019).

Graph 2: Annual Change in %



Source: INSTAT: the data processed by Eriona Deda

INTERPRETATION

In 2014, the weight of imports is 19% compared to 2015, with imports falling by 1.4% in 2015. Regard to 2016 year period the weight of imports is 20%, imports have increased by 8.1% compared to 2015. Meanwhile imports by 2017 are 21%, if we compare to 2016 imports have increased by 2.43%. As far as 2018 the weight of imports on total is 22% and has increased by 3.59%.

1.1.2. Characteristics of foreign trade by products

Exports according to the foreign trade , standard classification
Foreign trade according to products, for years period 2014-2018
Currency: million ALL

Table 1.2.²

External Trade by Product	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
Export FOB(total in million ALL)	255,759	243,183	243,497	272,988	310,397
Food, beverages, tobacco	16,747	21,066	25,347	30,081	32,320
Minerals, fuels, electricity	85,885	64,505	46,563	43,088	56,398
Chemical and plastic products	3,394	3,961	4,358	4,732	6,191
Leather and leather manufactures	3,076	2,897	2,596	2,966	2,727
Wood manufactures and articles of paper	9,181	8,336	7,764	8,309	9,627
Textile and footwear	85,936	90,091	106,608	117,389	123,720
Construction materials and metals	37,103	35,280	31,891	43,802	53,191
Machineries, equipments and spare parts	9,235	10,789	11,272	15,079	18,001
Others	5,204	6,257	7,098	7,543	8,222

Source: INSTAT, External Trade by Product, Export, 2014-2018.

2 INSTAT. (2019). Foreign trade by products, Export, 2014-2018. [Online] Availa (Economists, 2019)ble: <http://www.instat.gov.al/al/temat/tregtia-e-jashtme/tregtia-e-jashtme-e-mallrave/#tab2> (January ,2019).

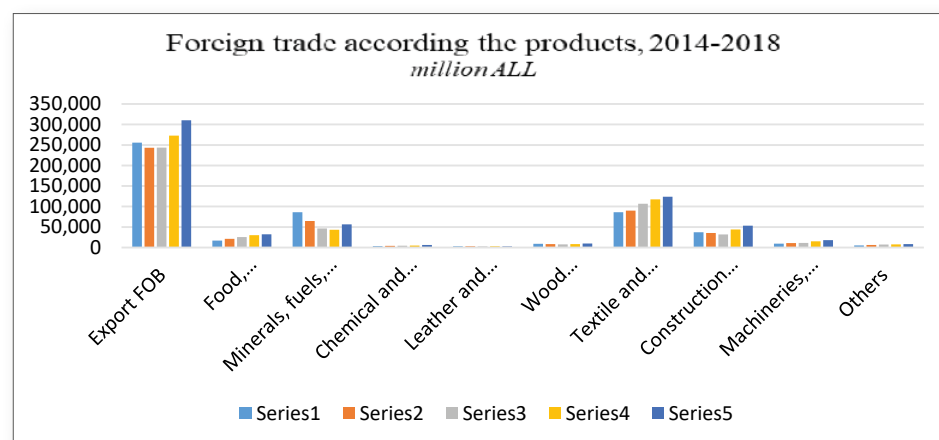


INTERPRETATION

The most exported products are textile and footwear and are mostly exported in years period 2018 and 2017. In 2018 the value of textile exports and footwear products is 5.34% higher compared to 2017. And next followed by minerals group, fuels, electricity, more of these products were exported in year period 2014.

In 2015, 33% less were exported of minerals, fuels, electricity compared to 2014 were exported.

Graph 3. Foreign trade according to the products, Export, 2014-2018



Source: INSTAT: the data processed by Eriona Deda

Trade Balance for foreign trade

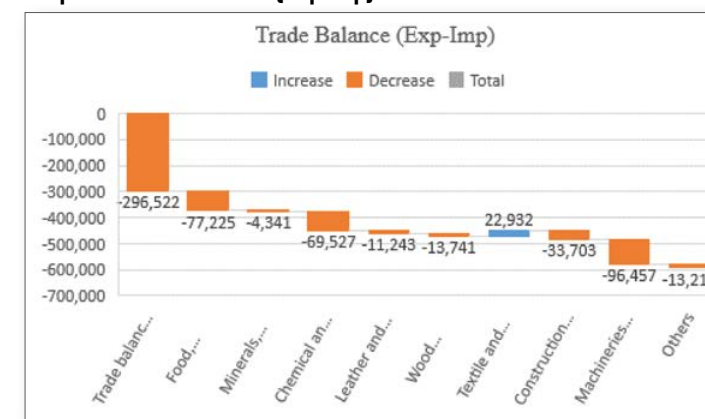
The trade balance is the net sum of a country's exports and imports of goods without taking into account all financial transfers, investments and other financial components. A country's trade balance is positive (meaning that it registers a surplus) if the value of exports exceeds the value of imports. And otherwise, the trade balance is negative if the value of imports exceeds the value of exports. If the trade balance is negative, it means we have a trade deficit.

Table 1.3. Trade Balance (Export- Import)

Trade balance (Exp - Imp.)	-296,522	-301,433	-335,751	-353,198	-331,008
Food, beverages, tobacco	-77,225	-75,830	-75,018	-76,657	-74,173
Minerals, fuels, electricity	-4,341	4,341	-3,279	-22,875	-11,986
Chemical and plastic products	-69,527	-70,965	-75,650	-82,156	-81,546
Leather and leather manufactures	-11,243	-13,018	-14,782	-16,017	-16,168
Wood manufactures and articles of paper	-13,741	-13,400	-15,592	-15,383	-15,526
Textile and footwear	22,932	20,791	26,637	30,266	35,501
Construction materials and metals	-33,703	-32,261	-44,111	-32,822	-25,196
Machineries, equipments and spare parts	-96,457	-106,502	-119,681	-118,981	-124,317
Others	-13,218	-14,589	-14,274	-18,573	-17,597

Source : INSTAT, External Trade by Product, Trade Balance, 2014-2018

Graph 4: Trade Balance (Exp-Imp)



Source: INSTAT: the data processed by Eriona Deda

INTERPRETATION

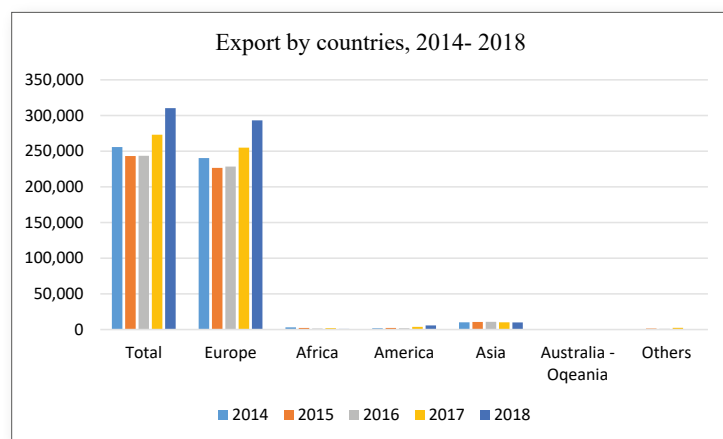
Regarding the trade balance we can say that for the period 2014-2018, external trade is dominated by Imports. Imports dominate all categories of products except textile and footwear categories of product. According to data analyzed for the years period 2014-2018, the highest weight of exports, is category of textiles and footwear. Exports of this category for the years taken in the study are as follows: In year 2017 compared with 2016, exports increased by 13.6%. In 2018, compared to 2017, exports of this product category increased by 17.29%. However, in total, the overall balance is negative, except for the category of textiles and footwear.

3 Economic forecasts from the world's leading economists, [Online] Available: <https://www.focus-economics.com/economic-indicator/trade-balance-usd-billion> (2019)

4 INSTAT. (2019). Foreign Trade of Goods, External Trade by Product, Trade Balance, 2014-2018. [Online] Available: <http://www.instat.gov.al/al/temat/tregtia-e-jashtme/tregtia-e-jashtme-e-mallrave/#tab2> (January, 2019).

1.1.4. Foreign trade of goods, external trade by countries

⁵Graph 5: Foreign trade of goods, export by country.

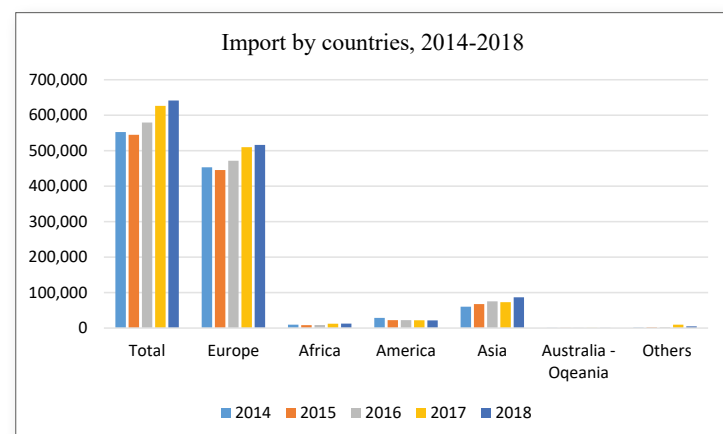


Source: INSTAT: the data processed by Eriona Deda

Interpretation

In 2018 the weight of exports to EU countries is 94.4%, while in 2017 is 93.3%. In 2018 exports increased by 15.1% compared to 2017. In years period 2014, 2015 and 2016 the weight of exports to EU countries is 93%. In 2014 exports were higher by 5.7% compared to 2015.

⁶ Graph 6: Foreign trade of goods, import by country



⁵ <http://www.instat.gov.al/al/temat/tregtia-e-jashtme/tregtia-e-jashtme-e-mallrave/#tab2> (January ,2019).

⁶ INSTAT. (2019). *Foreign trade of goods, Import by countries, 2014-2018*. [Online] Available: <http://www.instat.gov.al/al/temat/tregtia-e-jashtme/tregtia-e-jashtme-e-mallrave/#tab2> (January ,2019).

Interpretation

From 2014 to 2018, imports have been increasing in EU countries. By 2018 the weight of imports in EU countries is 80.4% of the total. In 2018 imports increased by 1.27% compared to 2017. In 2014 the weight of imports in EU countries is 82% of total. In 2015 imports increased by 1.75% compared to 2014. While in 2016 imports have increased by 5% compared to 2015.

CONCLUSIONS

Concerning the conclusions, we analyzed external trade by products and regarding to imports and exports by product and standard classification resulted that: During the 5-year period including [2014-2018] there was a growing trend of imports. The group products that dominate imports in 2018 year period compared to 2017 are: Machineries, equipment and spare parts.

Regarding to export the most exported products are textile and footwear and are mostly exported in years period 2018 and 2017.

Referred to foreign trade of goods by countries. Countries where Albania has exported and imported more are EU countries.

About the trade balance we can say that for the period 2014-2018, external trade is dominated by Imports. Imports dominate all categories of products except textile and footwear categories of product. According to data analyzed for the years period 2014-2018, the highest weight of exports, is category of textiles and footwear.

If value of export is higher than import value the trade balance is positive or active but if value of import exceeds export value then the trade balance is negative or passive. Less developed countries usually have a negative balance, while most developed countries have a positive balance. The negative balance of less developed countries is created due to import of industrial products and other services, which have higher prices than raw material exports.

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A GENERAL OVERVIEW OF TOTALITARIAN TENDENCIES AND PHENOMENA REINFORCING THE SOCIALIST CHARACTER OF EDUCATION IN ALBANIA DURING THE YEARS 1960 - 1989

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ABSTRACT

The years 1960-1989 represent a preparation stage for the implementation of totalitarian state's policies aiming at reinforcing the Socialist character of Albanian education. Significant changes of a comprehensive character occurred during this period, affecting the structure of education system and its special components including content issues of the teaching process. In this perspective, some radical changes carried out in the whole school activity affected also important issues related to strengthening the ideological Marxist-Leninist axis in the school's teaching and educational work. Certain processes carried out in this time under the pressure of political factors served to accomplish the "revolutionization" of the whole school life including its way of management. A "new" tendency getting always more determined and aggressive in the respective area was initiated first and foremost by the State Party, since on the one hand it made possible the efficient use of existing pre-university education system, and on the other it paved the way for deepening the adaptation of an "organic unity" process which included three school components: teaching - manufacturing work - physical and military education. The end of this period would mark an increased involvement of young people in national actions and direct production labor. Such an educational system was meant to provide more opportunities in order to hold the Albanian society under control, accomplishing its historic task of raising and educating the "new man", indoctrinating the intelligence with "revolution and loyalty ideals" in the Party's causes, in "closed" relation to the working classes.

KEYWORDS:

Educational policy, school, education, ideology, "revolutionization", Socialist society.

INTRODUCTION

After the Second World War, with the establishment of the communist regime in Albania, in view of the political and economic changes that had taken place in the Albanian society, the socio-educational-cultural ones would occupy an increasingly important place. As a model, especially after 1948, with the collapse of relations with Yugoslavia, the Albanian education was influenced by Russian education system.

The beginnings of the 1950s would mark the introduction of the Albanian education into a new phase, which changes were initiated in the structure, content, organization and functioning of education in Albania, as in all Eastern Bloc countries, gradually transformed and reformed according to the Soviet model, even after the collapse of the Soviet Union.

"In the structuration of education policies, Albanian schools followed the general principles of Soviet pedagogy, the curricula and curriculum built on the basis of those of the Soviet school and Soviet texts, translated or adapted. During this period, changes were made in the whole school documentation, which underwent a review, especially in the second half of the last century fifth decade".

At first glance, the upcoming developments in this field were considered positive and "they undoubtedly brought about massive transformations after what was experienced with the 1946 Educational Reform. The latter laid the foundations of the new educational system of secular, state and a unitary and an eastern-oriented school that supported its activity in a single, Marxist-Leninist ideology", said professor dr. Enriketa Kambo in her recently published book².

Pre-university education institutions could not get out of these lines. Developments could not go outside these lines. Developments were carried out within the same political orientation and consequently there is no overturn but a deepening of changes in teaching curriculum, in function of party-state policies.

"The communist state, in the course of previous policies, conceived and even accepted openly that its content would be based on the general principles that remained unchanged. New plans, programs and texts necessarily had to be traversed by Marxist-Leninist ideology and PLA policy"³.

In the 1960s, the second reform was marked and in June 1963, the Albanian Parliament decreed the *Law "On the reorganization of the education system in the Republic of Albania"*⁴ and the *Decree on "Forced compulsory education"*⁵, whose practical application was the most important challenge of the time in the school field.

The law envisioned the transition from the 7-year system to the 8-year system. The peak reached the third reform called "*Further School Revolutionization*", promoted

1 [Jani Sota, *Educational Developments in the District of Fier 1945-1960 (hereinafter: Educational Developments ...)*, Tirana: "Extra", 2012, pg. 321.]

2 [Enriketa Kambo, *Albanian School in the years 1960-1970 (hereinafter: Albanian School ...)*, Publication of the Institute of History at Albanian Center for Albanological Studies, Tirana: "Kristalina-KH", 2014, pg. 13-14.]

3 *Po aty, f. 49. [Ibid, pg. 49.]*

4 [Official Gazette of the People's Republic of Albania, No. 9, Year 1963, Edition of the People's Assembly, Tirana, 1963, pg. 167. Law "On Reorganization of the Education System in the Republic of Albania" No. 3697, dated 11.6.1963.]

5 [Official Gazette of the People's Republic of Albania, No. 15, Year 1963, Edition of the People's Assembly, Tirana, 1963, pg. 299. Decree of the Presidium of the National Assembly No. 19, dated 11.11.1963.]



since 1967 under the influence of the Chinese Cultural Revolution, following a speech by Enver Hoxha on the School's Revolutionization.

In the first decade of the 1960s, attention was focused on several aspects of "systematic and consistent implementation of the principle of uniting learning with productive work in all aspects of the education system"⁶. The implementation of this principle was related to a new political orientation in the field of content and also of teaching and education methods.

The strategy of gradual changes and the strengthening of the elements of communist education would be clearly defined in the Law "On the new educational system in the PRA" Nr. 4024, dated 24.12.1969⁷, which would take effect from January 1970 and continued until the fall of the communist regime.

The essence of the change would consist primarily in the continuation of the "contribution to the preparation and education of a young, fully-formed, communist-educated man, faithful to the end of the party affair, closely related to the working people"⁸, in building a new educational system "on the basis of organic learning unity with productive work, physical and military education, giving absolute priority to Marxist-Leninist ideological axis; in re-emphasizing the state's goals for the preparation of revolutionary new specialists, ideologically and politically formed by the proletarian spirit, at the level requested by modern science and technology and the demands of the development of the economy and culture"⁹; in introducing the principle called the revolutionary triangle that was: "teaching - productive work - physical and military education"¹⁰; in sanctioning the changes in the structure of the education system, which assessed "pre-school education as the first regular and general school chain"¹¹ [...] Elementary education was treated as the basic schooling of the education system, "a universal and compulsory school for everyone from the age of 6"¹²; and ultimately shifted towards the unification of "general and vocational high schools with a four-year study term"¹³.

The beginning of a reform, theoretically, required many changes in the education system. This meant finding the most appropriate solutions for securing the right to education by encouraging a new and more massive system. Second, it sought to strengthen the school's socialist content. "A specialized institution for the preparation and qualification of human resources", - states Professor E. Kambo, - *should not be enough with preparing educated people or specialists who demanded normal development. It should fulfil the "creation" of a man suitable for the societies in general and in particular of the man who could respond to the demands of socialist society that was moving towards consolidation*¹⁴.

6 [Manush Myftiu, "On School Organization and Further Developments in the Educational System", in: *Popular Education*, No. 7/1960, A recent pedagogical magazine, Ministry of Education and Culture, Tirana: "Mihal Duri", 1960, pg. 3.]

7 [Official Gazette of the People's Republic of Albania, No. 10, Year 1969, Edition of the People's Assembly, Tirana, 1969, pg. 162.]

8 [Ibid.]

9 [Ibid.]

10 [Ibid.]

11 [Ibid.]

12 [Ibid.]

13 [Ibid.]

14 [Enriketa Kambo, *Education in Albania 1945-1960 (hereinafter: Education in Albania ...)*, Edited by the Institute of History at the Academy of Sciences of Albania, Tirana: "Teacher", 2005, pg. 226.]

The practical implementation of the party-state reforms, however, posed many problems, especially extreme idealization and even more damaged the education system because it prepared a generation according to the model that the regime called the "creation of a new man". Significant transformations took place within it, which played a special and decisive role in the subsequent development of educational system in communist Albania.

Handling of issues within the boundaries that allows a scientific article is done by combining problematic and chronological criterion. This has allowed the reflection of the education policy of the Albanian state in these years, despite the conditioning and its consequences, to highlight the most important developments, in accordance with the general changes of each period and the unaccomplished standards in the education system.

THE REFORM FOR REORGANISING THE EDUCATION SYSTEM IN THE BEGINNING OF THE 1960S.

In the context of the new economic and political developments that the country was experiencing in the early 1960s, socio-cultural issues were increasingly evident. The school as a basic institution of education would be subjected to a series of broad spectrum changes, quite complex and incalculable consequences for its internal performance and beyond. Their essence would consist in focusing on the activity of the communist state in drafting the most aggressive and more determined policies and strategies for deepening the socialist character of education, which would experience the two well-known reforms "reorganization" and "revolutionization".

To shed light on this process, it would be sensible to re-evaluate the most significant economic, political and social factors that led to transformation into the post-war Albanian school by the end of the 1950s.

Post-war educational development goes hand in hand with the general laws of the new political system. First and foremost, they were important and complex, but under the direct influence of internal factors that ultimately defined those specific trends and phenomena that defined the whole process as Albanian.

"By the end of the 1950s, education in communist Albania was able to take the full physiognomy of a wide, unique, diverse system from the pre-school education to the higher education level. Education was free for all and was ensured national and secular character. Educational institutions expanded rapidly, especially elementary and 7-year system schools.

Intensive efforts to tackle illiteracy up to the age of 40 softened and solved the problem for nearly one-third of the population. Compulsory primary education, also after the year 1952, the 7-year-system, increased the education degree of younger ages. General secondary education, though not familiar with the developments of vocational and higher secondary education, entered the path of enlargement. For the first time, in 1957 a University was opened. [...] The initial training of teachers, qualifications, social status and the possibility of further perfection were important"¹⁵.

Orientation to the accelerated paths and forms was conditioned by the action of political factors, but especially it was conditioned by the growing difficulties of the

15 [Ibid, pg. 256-257.]



time, really made the process more difficult and left a trace on the poor level of the educational process.

“The knowledge provided by the Albanian schools at all levels was insufficient. It educated people who were educated but less capable of being oriented to practical life. Middle and high specialists did not have the skills to respond to the demands of the economy. [...] It was admitted that the school activity had a disadvantage, especially in the practical preparation of the students. From 1958 to 1959, many measures were taken to somewhat mitigate the “school out of life,” the introduction of elements of polytechnic education and the education of young people with the desire for work”¹⁶.

Analyzing from a double perspective, both in terms of quantitative developments that are more tangible and mark a commendable boom, as well as that of the qualitative development that is less apparent but still has its importance, school and education system was built on the basis of the Yugoslav and later Soviet school experience, which in terms of Albanian education received greater workload than the one they did.

Part of the overall judgment on the effects of schooling on the life of Albanian society would undoubtedly be the analysis of the type of “individual” it produced¹⁷.

“In view of the interests and views of the state to put education fully in the service of building socialism, all the teaching-learning activity and methods used, served for the preparation of a “citizen” suitable for the totalitarian system”¹⁸.

Despite all the limitations, the truth is that the national education system became more oriented towards a single ideology, Marxism-Leninism, which would be decisive for reforming all the elements related to the contents of the education system even after 1960.

Popular discussion for the reorganisation of education

During this period it was marked the introduction of the Albanian school into a new period, during which, a number of changes were initiated known as “Reorganization of the education system”¹⁹. The period from the beginning of 1960 and until June 1963, where the complete legal framework was completed, served as a preparatory stage for furthering the practical implementation of the reform²⁰.

Reorganization of the education system reform was implemented in all districts of Albania. The essence of the Reform was the organic link between learning and education with productive work, and the disappearance of the differentiation that existed between physical labour and mental work among young people. The main ideas of this reform, its organization and direction, were elaborated at the highest party forums in the country.

16 Jani Sota, *Pre-University Education in Post-Communist 1992-2013 (Monograph) - With a foreword by Prof.Ph.D. Antonello Biagini* (hereinafter: *Pre-University Education in Post-Communist Albania ...*), Berlin: “LAP LAMBERT Academic Publishing”, 2018, pg. 56-57.

17 E. Kmabo, *Arsimi në Shqipëri ...*, f. 258. [E. Kambo, *Education in Albania ...*, pg. 258.]

18 [Ibid.]

19 [Pajtim Bejtja; Ruzhdi Reçi; Alqi Mustafaj, *Overview of Vocational Education in Albania, Tirana: “Hua Shang International”, 1997, pg. 6.*]

20 [Enriketa Kambo, “The Beginning of the Reorganization of the Education System 1960-1963” (hereinafter: “Reorganization Begins ...”), in: *Historical Studies, No. 3-4, Edition of the Institute of History at the Academy of Sciences, Tirana, 2007, pg. 91.*]

Elements of polytechnic education, which had begun to embark on school content since 1956, were called encouraging but not enough. Thus, the communist leadership had come to the conclusion that “the school does not respond to the ever-increasing needs of the various sectors of the economy and culture, the staff as well as the ever-increasing demand of the population for education”²¹. The 7-year education system and secondary schools, especially general education “was still limited, there were major drawbacks in the school’s educational- instructive process, the quality of learning was not at the right level and the progress of students was low”²². But the biggest drawback of the school was “the lack of a healthy connection to “life”, a kind of life-span”²³.

By the government’s decision, on June 22, 1960, the theses of the Central Committee (CC) of the Albanian Labors’ Party (PLA) and of the Council of Ministers (CM) were published “On the close relationship of the school with the life and further development of the system of the popular education”²⁴, on the basis of which would be realized the reorganization of the Albanian education system. This reform was considered necessary for the fundamental improvement of the teaching methods, in order to achieve the “close link between theory and practice and better prepare youth for the labour market”²⁵. The reorganization of the Albanian education system was realized as a highly commanded, controlled, gradual and escalated process²⁶.

“Through reorganizing education reform, the aim was that in the 8-year educations system and middle school, education was to help students acquire the scientific basis, to learn how to solve various theoretical and practical tasks independently, doing laboratory experiments and systematic outdoor surveys and activities”²⁷.

Also in these theses the demand was increasing the level of teaching scientific subjects such as: mathematics, physics, chemistry, biology, practical work and labs. Priority would be given to humanitarian subjects and, in particular, to genuine polytechnic subjects that should be expanded, better serving the formation of a “communist worldview”²⁸.

In the educational activity within and outside the school, more attention will be paid to teaching, technical, artistic and sports circles for the development of individual students’ abilities, co-ordination of school work with family and youth organizations. These theses became the basis for broad discussion and preparation of new plans and programs²⁹. Based on the plans drawn up by the District Education Sections, working

21 [The Central State Archive of the Republic of Albania (hereinafter: CSARA), The Ministry of Education Fund (period 1945-1988) (hereinafter: F - No. 511), Year (hereinafter: Y.) 1960, File (hereinafter: F.) 10, Paper (hereinafter: pp.) 32-61. See: *For the close relationship between school and life and further development of the system of folk education - Theses of the Central Committee of the Council of Ministers of PSR of Albania* (hereinafter: *For the close association of the school with life ...*), Tirana, 1960, pp.1-47.]

22 [Ibid.]

23 [Ibid.]

24 [Ibid.]

25 [CSARA, F. 511, Y. 1960, F. 30, pp. 1-37. Report of the Ministry of Education and Culture: “For the close connection of the school with the life and further development of the popular education”.]

26 [E. Kambo, “Reorganization Begins ...”, pg. 87.]

27 [CSARA, F. 511, Y. 1960, F. 30, pp. 1-37.]

28 [E. Kambo, “Reorganization Begins ...”, pg. 97-98.]

29 [CSARA, pp. 48-55. Relationship to the discussion of Q.T. theses of the SPP and of the Council of Ministers: “On the reorganization of the education system”, dt. 27.IX.1960.]



on the discussion of the thesis was divided into two stages³⁰.

The first stage is characterized by a wider work with teachers, parents and employees in many employment centres, agricultural cooperatives and schools, for explaining the thesis on the duration from 7 to 8 years of the seven-year-term education system.

“The function of the 8-year- term would be to give students a general and full-time culture and especially their psychological and practical preparation for the labor market, a better orientation in choosing a future profession, etc. [...] Polytechnic education would be ensured by deepening the learning of work ethics, which would be carried out on agricultural parcels and school workshops”³¹.

The second stage, in the matter of importance, was to organize extensive public discussions on the theses of the CC of the PLA to express thoughts, proposals and remarks about a controversial 3 or 4 year duration education system that would give young people full secondary education through three paths: first, through general and polytechnic high schools, in teaching production; Secondly, through general evening high schools, on seasonal and part-time terms; thirdly, in night and part-time schools.

“The essence of the reorganized secondary school was to supplement knowledge of scientific subjects, expand students’ political skills and acquire a profession through teaching and production work”³².

It should be noted that in different districts of Albania the participation of teachers and employees in the reunions was more limited than in the first stage. Qualification courses, conferences and extensive meetings of mass organizations and councils, as well as basic party organizations in the work centres and agricultural cooperatives have been used for this purpose³³.

“The discussions deepened in support of these principles and the concrete implementation of the principles of the reform in the school’s plans and programs, cycles and profiles. This was reflected in the press of the time, where the main problems of the reorganization of the Albanian school were defined: the preparation of plans, programs and textbooks for the new 8-year school education system instead of the 7-year school system, the extent of reform in the school year 1963, and the preparation of the education staff for the implementation of the reform”³⁴.

*In the discussions that took place during this time, two main problems were fought: first, that of the 11 or 12 year school system, secondly, whether the 11-year system met the contemporary requirements*³⁵.

“Referring to the documents of the time, it turned out that in the district of Fier, 3,800 were for a 12 year term and 1,200 for the 11 year school education system. The other districts of Shkodra, Tirana, Durrës, Elbasan, Berat, Vlora, Korca, Gjirokastra

30 [Ibid, pp. 38-40. Relationship to the discussion of Q.T. theses of the SPP and of the Council of Ministers: “On the reorganization of the education system”, dt. 22.VII.1960.]

31 [Ibid.]

32 [Ibid.]

33 [Ibid.]

34 [Ibid.]

35 [Ibid.]

and Saranda “shared the same opinion”³⁶.

For the sake of the study we are presenting in a summarized way the arguments presented in the oral and written form, both for the one and the other variant, by the participants in the discussion, both by the teachers as well as by the parents, employees and specialists of the district of Fier.

Those who agreed with the 11-year-old education system, reorganized general education school, without denying the 12-year school favouritism, from the pedagogical point of view, thought the school would remain with the old system by submitting the following arguments:

“First, the 3-year term on elementary school or 11-year school system carries out the tasks to give the young generation complete secondary, general and polytechnic education and preparation for the labour market. Compared to today’s school 11-year-old education system does this without lowering the level of general culture, but rather forming it without compressing the subject and without any excessive burden”³⁷.

By comparing the curricula and case studies, it was noted that, generally, the subjects of general culture in the new school curriculum of the 11-year education system occupied a vast place compared to the existing one.

“In the humanitarian cycle, out of the 4,356 hours occupied in the existing school curriculum, it was anticipated to occupy 4,484 hours in the new plan, or 128 hours more”³⁸. In the natural sciences cycle, maths from 4,564 hours was predicted to 4,923 hours in the new plan, or 359 hours more”³⁹.

This extra hour served for best course development, enabling it to expand where it was more compact, and work freely. With the exception of literary teachers, who had fewer hours in comparison to the existing curriculum, other subject teachers had enough hours and in some cases even more hours that was needed (history, etc.).

Additionally, improvements would be made within the subjects of general culture in the 11-year school system (removal of unnecessary repeats), in cleaning up programs and texts from excessive, outdated and difficult things, as well as adding new things to make it more tangible, to better connect the theory with practice; shifting difficult knowledge from lower classes to higher grades, and especially to improve teaching methods and the knowledge level of students and, consequently, for better progress.

Also, simplifications would be made in the subjects that were being developed in the existing schools, as well as in their rational distribution in the new school. This would undoubtedly help relieve and normalize today’s load.

“In the 8-year school, most of the subjects such as Albanian language, history, geography, physics and chemistry at the 7-year education system were expanded to a year, without increasing the volume in general, thus reducing the students’ load. In the second stage of high school, there were fewer subjects left, as some of the secondary school subjects were downgraded at the first stage and some other courses were

36 [Ibid, pp. 49. See: J. Sota, Educational Developments ..., pg. 370.]

37 [Ibid, F. 101, pp. 13.]

38 [Ibid.]

39 [J. Sota, Educational Developments ..., pg. 371.]



taken away”⁴⁰.

Some teachers and subject specialists emphasized that “if you were to extend school a year more (from 11 to 12 years), generally would benefit only the second term of the school and not the first term or the 8-year education system because the last 3 years would be extended to 4 years”⁴¹.

It should be noted that the load of the new 11-year school system was not so big. “It’s true, - they would argue, - that the curriculum has about 1.100 hours more than the existing school”⁴².

“Adding hours did not represent an increase in the volume of general culture subjects, but they were the result of the subject lineage during the weeks (up to that time used within the school year), for useful social work, excursions and the addition of weekly classes to high grades from 32 to 36⁴³. Addition of work lessons in the last 3 classes (508 hours) was compensated by the abolition of the second foreign language, psychology, geology and repetition of the Albanian language (462 hours)⁴⁴.

Tab. 1⁴⁵

Hours per week according to classes / Extending teaching during daytime

CLASSES	Today’s School	New School
	Hours per Week	Quantity Hours per Week
Cl. I -II	24 hours	24 hours
Cl. III	24 hours	26 hours
Cl. IV	26 hours	29 hours
Cl. V	32 hours	33 hours
Cl. V - VIII	32 hours	34 hours
Cl. IX	32 hours	36 hours

As can be seen from the table above, the amount of hours per week was growing in line with the age of students to the extent that they had secondary schools, being within the norms of western schools. Out of this it was gained about 850 hours⁴⁶.

In addition, in order to avoid excessive student loads in the teaching process, the new high school curriculum had reduced the number of hours per week for subjects requiring great mental tension compared to the curriculum in force. More concretely, it would be implemented as follows:

40 [Ibid.], p. 374.

41 [Ibid.]

42 [CSARA, F. 511, Y. 1960, F. 30, pp. 49-51.]

43 [Ibid.]

44 [Ibid.]

45 [Ibid.]

46 [Ibid.]

Tab. 2⁴⁷

a) Plani i ri mësimor / The new curriculum

Lëndët	Orë në javë sipas klasëve / Hours per week according to classes										
	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII	IX	X	XI
Lëndët që duan punë mendore intensive / Subjects who want intense mental work	18	18	18	21	24	25	25	26	26	22	22
Muzikë, vizatim e fiskulturë / Music, drawing and physical education	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	2	2	2
Mësim pune / Work study	2	2	4	4	5	5	5	5	10	12	12

Tab. 3⁴⁸

b) Plani ekzistues mësimor / Existing curriculum

Lëndët	Orë në javë sipas klasëve / Hours per week according to classes										
	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII	IX	X	XI
Lëndët që duan punë mendore intensive / Subjects who want intense mental work	19	19	19	21	26	26	26	27	28	28	28
Muzikë, vizatim e fiskulturë / Music, drawing and physical education	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	2	2	2
Mësim pune / Work study	1	1	1	1	2	2	2	2	2	2	2

Firstly, analyzing the new curriculum and compared to the existing one, we think that 36 hours per week or 6 hours per day were not too much for students aged 16-18 years, since the subjects that want more mental work had less hours compared to the corresponding classes of teaching work with physical work in these classes. This facilitated the workload in both industrial and agricultural profile schools, although this change in the latter was more limited within a week and larger within a month. Alternative relief was proven in Soviet experimental schools, not just in the city but also in the village schools.

“Based on the experience of Eastern European schools, the curricula had 36 hours a week in high school grades, for example Soviet and Czech schools which after the second stage reform had a 3-year education system, with 36 hours per week, as well as vocational high schools, with 36 hours per week, though difficult subjects that require mental work were more elaborated than in the 11-year education system”⁴⁹.

Secondly, increasing school time could not be a decisive factor in improving the quality of education. The issue of quality and progress of students in the conditions of the Albanian school could not be solved by the addition of the school term one year more, but primarily with the improvement of all the teaching-organizational work in schools, with the improvement of plans, programs of the texts, as stated in the theses for the reorganization of the education system.

47 [Ibid.]

48 [Ibid.]

49 [J. Sota, Educational Developments ..., pg. 376.]



Thirdly, the strengthening of general and polytechnic education as well as the increase of labour in production, in the conditions of the Albanian school, did not necessarily require the addition of a year as in the Soviet or some other schools because education in Albania, compared to these countries had spare time. There were some unnecessary repetitions that caused the loss of time, and there were subjects that could be removed without breaking the level of general education (such as psychology, geology, etc.).

Fourthly, from the economic and social point of view, the 11-year term was thought to be most beneficial because: a) the 5-year term in the second stage of high school allowed every teenager to be ready for the working class a year in advance. In addition, the 3-year high school itself was less expensive than the 4-year-term, so its network could expand faster; b) Families, the working class and the peasantry of Fier city were also more interested in the 3-year term because the family budget was less burdened. The attendance of the 3-year-term high school would be greater for workers and peasants compared to the 4-year term, and this would affect not only the increase in student contingency rate but also in improving social composition. Particularly for girls generally in the village was more acceptable the 3-year term education system; c) From the point of view of meeting the needs in various sectors of economy and culture with middle and high education, especially in the specific conditions of the district of Fier, most advantageous was the 3-year term; d) If there was a chance to add one year to school, then it was fairer that this year would be given to the higher education, where high-level specialists were prepared. This is due to the speed of training the staff a year less than the high schools of other countries.

The vast majority of educators across the country were supporters of the 12-year school variation, bringing a number of pedagogical, economic and social arguments.

Firstly, pedagogically, we think that in defining the school term, always according to them, in the specific conditions of the district, factors such as the low level of teaching and students' progress, the poor condition of the education staff and the lack of school's teaching material, insufficient interest of the family and social organizations for the education of children, the role of the social environment in this matter. Under these conditions, the 11-year school version was rated as the most inadequate. The 12-year-term had many advantages, which we are mentioning the most important: a) The opportunity for the subjects to expand more correctly, the materials to be better absorbed by students, to have more time and space for repetition in subjects that were necessary, to strengthen the independent work of students;

b) The first stage of the 8-year-term education system was facilitated. One of the advantages of shifting from 7-year to 8-year term was also to ease the students from the concise materials. Some teachers were of the opinion that the 8-year school curriculum projects were unnecessary repeated. The 12-year-term education system allowed the first stage to be a little simpler, posting part of the subjects such as mathematics; c) In the 12-year-term there could be other subjects such as the second foreign language, geology and psychology; d) In the 12-year-term, subjects could be more elaborated. These were the main reasons why most of the teachers approved this kind of system.

In the 11-year-term, the student's weekly workload was 36 hours. Though in school it was thought that there would be a combination of teaching and practicing, the subjects were too concise. For most teachers 6 hours per day lessons were too much, as the students would be tired and would not have enough time to prepare. Numerous other extracurricular activities were held in the school, which would take students time; e) The 12-year school created better conditions for the quality of learning and the advancement of students in lessons; f) In the new education system, the volume of work increased as the work-learning and production work were increased.

"Based on the experiences of the Eastern countries that have carried out the reorganization, they have solved it by adding one year of school term. In the Soviet Union, high school was a 10 year education system and after the reform it became 11-year-term education system with two stages: the first 8 and the second a 3 year term. In Czechoslovakia the secondary school was 11 years term and after the reform it became a 12-year-term which was divided into two stages: the first 9-year period (5-year primary) and the second 3-year term. In Bulgaria and Romania it was decided to move from 11-year-term to 12-year-term divided into two stages, the first 8-year term and the second 4-year-term. In Germany, primary school was considered 10 years term while full-time secondary school was 12 years term"⁵⁰.

Secondly, in economic terms we think that the 12-year education system did not harm the economy, culture, budget, plans, etc.

"a) If after 1970, there were 100 twelve classes in general education schools, it would take 150 teachers and around 100 lessons, as the economic weight in the state budget was low, b) Starting with the implementation of the reorganization in two school terms, initially in the major cities and then in other centres (as proposed by many participants in the discussion), the creation of class XII would cause the reduction of the number of students who wanted to continued their studies in higher education in the 1970-1971 and 1971-1972 school years"⁵¹.

As in a 12-year-old school, parts of the young people would be ready for the labour market one year later comparing to the 11-year-term, same would be even in production, but students would be more qualified in the secondary school. They will have learned the use of a tractor, a seeding machine or a sailor and the students of the city of Lushnja, Fier Berat, Vlora, etc. will have learned the use of the planer, the electric turrets etc.⁵².

Also, during the discussions held in some districts of the country, the question of the balance between teaching and working has been raised⁵³. In the curriculum drafted by the Ministry of Education, it was envisaged that at the last term of the school, it would be allocated one third of the working time⁵⁴. Such a proportion was set in other socialist countries that were reorganizing the system at the time. Some of the speakers thought that this time was considered necessary to link teaching with working, to give

50 [CSARA, F. 511, Y. 1960, F. 30, pp. 48-55. See: J. Sota, *Educational Developments ...*, pg. 378.]

51 [J. Sota, *Educational Developments ...*, pg. 381.]

52 [Vasil Rista, "The widespread popular discussion of the Party and Government theses about the close association of the school with the life and further development of the popular education" (hereinafter: "Popular popular discussion of the Party and Government theses ..."), in: *Union, Everyday, Central Body of the Democratic Front of Albania, Tirana, July 9, 1960, pg. 3.*]

53 [CSARA, F. 511, Y. 1960, F. 30, pp. 48-55.]

54 [Ibid.]



the working ethics and to gain a massive profession⁵⁵.

There was the opinion that in the current conditions for a certain period, given the fact that large-scale mass professions would be provided to young people and some of them would go to higher education, work could occupy even about one quarter of the time. This idea was supported from both, those who were for the 11-year-term education system and the 12-year-term education system. But some of the speakers thought that this issue could be determined fairly by specifically studying how long it takes to own a profession⁵⁶.

There have been some remarks about the project plans as well as the subject matter⁵⁷. Thus, according to a time document, it was found that: the language in elementary school was difficult and should not be abolished in secondary school; fewer maths had to be done at the first stage school. Some subjects like physical geography and botany in the fifth grade were difficult and so on⁵⁸. Teachers from Fier expressed the idea that the curriculum discussion should continue even after the school deadline was set⁵⁹.

Tab. 4⁶⁰

Sasia e orëve në planet krahasuese / Quantity of hours in comparative plans

Nr	Lëndët / Courses	Shkolla Fillore / Primary School			Shkolla 7-8 vjeçare / 7-8 Year Term.			Gjithsej / total		
		Sot 1 - IV / Today I-IV	E reja 11-vjeç. 1 - IV / The new 11-year I-IV	E reja 12-vjeç. 1 - V / The new 12-year I-V	Sot I-IV	E reja 11-vjeç. V - VIII / The new 11-year V-VIII	E reja 12-vjeç. V - VIII / The new 12-year V-VIII	Sot I - VIII / Today I-VIII	E reja 11-vjeç. V - VIII / The new 11-year V-VIII	E reja 12-vjeç. V - VIII / The new 12-year V-VIII
1	Gjuhë shqipe / Albanian language	1584	1610	1610	429	574	574	2013	2184	2184
2	Letërsi / Letters	-	-	-	297	357	286	297	357	286
3	Matematikë / Mathematics	792	840	840	594	823	787	1386	1663	1627
4	Edukatë qytetare / Civic education	-	-	-	-	35	35	-	35	35
5	Histori / Story	66	70	70	231	286	286	297	356	356
6	Gjeografi / Geography	66	-	-	231	286	286	297	286	286
7	Dituri natyre / Knowledge nature	66	105	105	-	-	-	66	105	105

55 [Ibid.]

56 V. Rista, "Popular popular discussion of the Party and Government theses ...", pg. 3.]

57 [CSARA, F. 511, Y. 1960, F. 45, pp. 14-25.]

58 [Ibid.]

59 [Ibid.]

60 [Ibid, F. 38, pp. 35.]

8	Biologji / Biology	-	-	-	231	286	286	231	286	286
9	Higjenë / Hygiene	-	-	-	33	-	-	33	-	-
10	Fizikë / Physics	-	-	-	159	249	249	159	249	249
11	Kimi / Chemistry	-	-	-	66	142	142	66	142	142
12	Vizatim teknik / Technical drawing	-	-	-		71	71		71	71
13	Gjuhë ruse / Russian language	-	-	-	297	465	466	297	465	466
	Gjithsejt / Total	2574	2625	2625	2574	3574	3468	5148	6109	6093
14	Vizatim / Drawing	132	140	140	99	108	108	231	248	248
15	Këngë muzikë / Music songs	132	140	143	99	143	143	231	283	283
16	Fizkulturë / Physical training	264	280	280	198	286	286	462	566	566
	Gjithsejt:	528	560	563	396	537	537	924	1097	1097
17	Punë / Work	228	420	350	429	895	536	657	1315	886
	Gjithsejt / Total	3330	3605	3538	3399	5006	4541	6729	8611	8076

It is important that the publication of the drafts in both versions was primarily intended to help the reader understand the possibility of realizing new school assignments in both terms. In the instructions of the Ministry of Education, it was stated that: "Learning curricula and project-specific programs after being published will be discussed in extensive meetings of teachers"⁶¹.

"During the various discussions, about the reorganization of the school, it was noticed lack of information in discussing the theses. The important issues raised were: problems that arose with industrial enterprises or other enterprises for the creation of a workplace for the students, the issue of staff training and qualification, material and patronage issues, issues of pioneering care and social organizations for educating the younger generation, the issue of combating the formalism of methods that suppressed the initiative of teachers, school management issues, the issue of educational work, and generally of conscience and strong discipline in education, were rarely discussed by teachers and employees"⁶².

The problems and difficulties that would arise in pursuit of the demands for polytechnic education were overlooked or simplified. The problem that represented the level of development of techniques and technology in the country's agricultural industrial production did not provide sufficient opportunities for linking the laws and notions of various scientific subjects to the production practice of those years in our country.

Even education, which had known a wide spread and massive mobilization, during this period had considerable shortages in its equipment with teaching tools and with the necessary laboratory base. The efforts of teachers and students for the preparation of materials in the respective enterprises helped to provide some of the cartographic tools of the tables.

61 [Ibid.]

62 [J. Sota, Educational Developments ..., pg. 381.]

Step by step, over the next few years, it was possible to open only a few simple chemistry, physics and biology laboratories for the 8-year-term education system. With overseas laboratories, only one of the most pressing needs was met. In these conditions the acquisition of theoretical knowledge itself was not combined with practical laboratory work. In a few schools had started the practice of front lab work, while, in other schools it was done only demonstration.

Practical work in wood and metal working chambers, as well as manufacturing work at work centres, could in some cases be raised above the level of gaining some practical habits. This necessarily required the connection of the knowledge gained from the students in different subjects, relying on the tools they used, the processes being carried out, and the level of instructors' preparation.

The discussion about the reorganization of the school influenced also the educational aspect of the relationship between teaching and practicing⁶³. More emphasis was placed on the ideological formation of students by approaching the working class, which aimed to create their conviction for its hegemonic role and for the socialist system in general.

In addition to extensive public press discussions throughout the country, in districts and in the centre, over 21.000 meetings and consultations took place, attended by around 600.000 people, more than half of the country's adult population, and 160.000 people discussed about it⁶⁴. This proves once again that what was achieved by the popular discussion was naturally a result not only of the masses of the state, but especially of the positive reaction of all the citizens.

After a few months' discussion, "on October 8, 1960, a special plenum of PLA was developed, which analyzed the state of the school and decided to return the theses to the basic platform for" Reorganizing the education system ". This also marks the end of the recognition phase with the main directions of reform to move on to the preparation of the conditions for its start"⁶⁵.

This three-year period served for the final preparation of the legal framework. In June 1963, two of the most important documents in the field of the school were enacted, the Law "On the reorganization of the education system at PRA" and the decree "On compulsory eight years of education"⁶⁶.

It was the time when the reform was introduced to the implementation phase by the end of the 60s. Its effects were important and brought new developments both in the education system and in its content. The development of teaching and production practices, within specialty subjects, became the main clusters for the best realization of the connection between theory and practice, "school and life". The end of the period will mark the increasing involvement of student youth in national actions as part of the plans and programs now.

63 [Ibid.]

64 [Mehmet Shehu, On the conclusions of the popular discussion on the further revolutionization of our school (Political Bureau Political Bureau report of PPSH held in the 8th Plenum of the PCC of the DPM on 26.6.1969) (hereinafter: On the conclusions of the popular discussion ...), Tirana: "Naim Frasheri", 1969, pp. 4.]

65 [E. Kambo, Albanian School, ..., pg. 34]

66 [Official Newspaper of the People's Republic of Albania, No. 9, Year 1963, edition of the People's Assembly, Tirana, 1963, pg. 167. Law "On the Reorganization of the Educational System in the Republic of Albania" Nr. 3697, dated 11.6.1963.]

From this point of view, school reorganization was considered to be very important to the progressive development of complete platforms for "school revolutionization".

Teaching, productive work and physical and military education - the main axis of "school revolutionization".

Coming to an end with the discussion on school deadlines, further increased the efforts of the Albanian state to strengthen the socialist character. The measures undertaken until this period for the development and consolidation of the education system prepared the ground for co-ordinating the activities of party, state bodies, mass organizations and teachers to deepen the process of change.

Future priorities would be to scale and specifically change the prospect of deepening the political and ideological education of the young generation, work ethics, physical and military education of pupils and students.

An important moment in this period was the "further revolutionization of the school" according to the orientations given by the party-state at the 5th Congress of the PLA (November 1966), at the 17th Conference of the Party for Tirana (December 1968) and the 8th plenary of the CC of the PLA (June 1968). In the various documents of the PLA and in the speeches of the dictator Enver Hoxha (held on 6 February 1967 at the meeting of the Political Bureau of the CC of the PLA on 7 March 1968, in the 8th plenary of the CC of the PLA in June 1969) gives a more complete definition of goals, tasks, ways and means to ensure school progress on the socialist path.

The general tendency remains the rapid pace of change in the overall educational structure, in its particular links, in the structure of a school year and in the curriculum cycle, expressed in different, in the first place in the teaching content and education, as well as their methods, built on the organic unity of the three "new school" components: teaching-production jobs and physical and military education, focusing on the Marxist-Leninist ideological axis.

In these years it will continue the further extension of pre-university and higher education institutions and, in particular, the deepening of changes in the content of teaching-educational activity. New developments would bring the implementation of the 1966 reform on "For further school revolutionization" of the entire school system. The motives that pushed the country's leadership into deep-seated action remained deeply political. Through it, it aimed primarily at "focusing on the state's activity in the content issue"⁶⁷. Compared to other reforms, it would be a further but more radical follow-up to adapting to "the needs of developing the production of everyday life and responding to the structure and superstructure of our socialist country"⁶⁸.

8 YEAR COMPULSORY EDUCATION – BASIC AND MASSIVE LINK

The years 1966-1969 represents the preparatory phase for the new school reform, during which the Law "On the new educational system at the PRA" was prepared and

67 [M. Shehu, On the conclusions of the popular discussion. ..., pg. 4.]

68 Po aty, f. 15. [Ibid, pg. 15.]



approved. N° 4024, dated 24.12.1969⁶⁹, which would take effect at the beginning of January 1970 and repealed the Law “On the reorganization of the education system” of June 1963. The main purpose of this law is the realization of the Marxist-Leninist ideological axis of the school, in the unity of its underlying components: teaching - productive work - physical and military education.

Article 1 of the Law “On the new education system in PRA” of 1969 explicitly states: “The education system is based on the principles of socialist democracy, is entirely covered by the ideological axis Marxist-Leninist and is developed on the basis of the organic connection of learning with physical and military education”⁷⁰.

The new law brought significant changes in the curricula of the 8-year-term education system. The latter were considered as the basic and massive, unified and mandatory link of the education system, providing students with a healthy beginner formation, embedded the basic elements of political, moral, aesthetic and physical education, providing the necessary polytechnic knowledge.

On December 23, 1969, the Council of Ministers adopted a decision on the new education system, which creates a complete and varied educational system with this structure: Pre-school education for children aged 3-5 years; *8-year education term compulsory* for children aged 6-13 years, primary education without dismissal and special school; *Secondary education*: 4-year upper secondary schools, 4-year vocational high schools, industrial, agricultural, medical, economics, trade, lower professional technical schools, the duration of which was 1 and 2 years; *Probation*, respectively a preparatory year for attending school-leavers, with the exception of those who enrolled in 3-year pedagogical institutes; *Higher Education* includes 3-5-year (disconnected), 3- and 6-year (no break-out) and 2-year and 3-year (off-the-job) educational institutions; *Probation* (9 months) and *military exercise* (3 months) for students who had been disconnected from work; *Pre-university education* includes specialization courses and retraining on a high school basis⁷¹.

Meanwhile, education had a rapid quantitative development. The number of schools increases and the school network is expanded. Thus, in the 1970-1971, 1.374 8-year schools were counted in Albania with 555.259 students and 18.944 total teachers, out of 557 7-year-term schools with 274.937 students and 8.569 teachers in 1960-1961⁷².

Without departing from the study period, it would first be worthwhile to make an assessment of the factors that conditioned the deepening of the socialist character of the school. In their multitude, the political orientation was the determinant. As is well-known, in communist Albania, the tendency of “further school revolutionization”

69 [Official Newspaper of the People's Republic of Albania, No. 10, Year 1969, Edition of the People's Assembly, Tirana, 1969, pg. 115-113. See: *Pre-University Education in Post-Communist Albania 1992-2013 (Monograph) - With a foreword by Prof.PhD. Antonello Biagini* (hereinafter: *Pre-University Education in Post-Communist Albania ...*), Berlin: “LAP LAMBERT Academic Publishing”, 2018, pg. 62.]

70 [Ibid.] Po aty, f. 15. [Ibid, pg. 15.]

71 *Bashkimi, E përditshme, organ qendror i Frontit Demokratik të Shqipërisë, Tiranë, 24 dhjetor 1969, f. 3. Shih: J. Sota, Pre-University Education in Post-Communist Albania ...*, pg. 61. [Union, Everyday, Central Body of the Democratic Front of Albania, Tirana, 24 December 1969, pg. 3. See J. Sota, *Pre-University Education in Post-Communist Albania ...*, pg. 61.]

72 [Statistics Department (SoD), *Statistical Yearbook of RPSH 1971-1972, Tirana: “Mihal Duri”, 1973, pg. 150-155. Chapter XI. Education and Culture.*]

would continue during the other stages of the 1970s and 1980s, mainly related to the decisions of Congress VI (1971) of Plenum IV of the CC PLA (1973), Congress of the VII (1976) and VIII of the PLA etc ..

From the point of view of the factors involved in the process of change, it seems interesting to analyze the decisions of the above-mentioned congresses and the speeches of the communist leaders of that time. From a general view of the documentation of this period, the leading and primary role would continue to be the party-state and the central and local structures, indisputably aided by the mass organizations.

After the “unanimous” approval of the 8th Congressional decisions of the PLA, it would be made public in the visual media and those written on the front pages of the main press organs. Very soon the Ministry of Education would also define the necessary organizational measures as well as the criteria for further enhancing the quality of teaching and education of the school.

“By virtue of the unitary character, 8-year education enabled “the attraction of six-year-olds in first grade, “which had begun experimenting since the academic year 1964-1965”. New programs and texts were developed on the most studied ideological criteria , scientific and pedagogical, the subject of “Political moral education” was introduced since the first grade of the lower cycle, “ Knowledge about the nature “ in the second grade, “History” from the third grade, several studies were conducted for the subject “Albanian Language” and “Literary Reading”, “Chemistry” and Foreign Languages; efforts were made to perfect the teaching methods to better fit the new content and age-specific features that encouraged the upgrading of programs, plans and texts of general and special culture subjects, was further enriched school didactic mathematical basis. [...] In the academic year 1983-1984, the eight-year school in our country began working with new curricula. The curriculum of this school represented a unique overall plan from the classroom to the eighth. It included a total of 16 subjects with a load ranging from 23 hours (first grade) to 32 hours (eighth grade). The new curriculum made some changes and generalizations that avoided parallels and provided a better order and range of subjects in adaptability to age. *Formative subjects such as* “Albanian Language”, “Singing”, “Mathematics”, “Chemistry” and “Physics” have been left to a great extent, while the treatment of some subjects such as: “History” and “Knowledge about the nature “, in the first 8-year school classes were removed. The programs of “Music” and “Teaching Work” were shortened, as the activity in these subjects is supplemented with different outside activities [...] The course “Geography” shifted from fifth grade to sixth and continues until grade eight. The educational schedule was removed from the curriculum, which was part of the school practice and paralleled “Moral and Political Education” and educational work outside the classroom. [...]

The curriculum includes *social subjects* such as: “Albanian Language and Literary Reading”, “Foreign Language”, “History”, “Moral and Political Education” - account for 44.6% of it; *mathematics-natural subjects*, through which students are familiar with the laws of living and non-living, such as “Mathematics”, “Physics”, “Chemistry”, “Biology”, “Geography”, “Knowledge of nature “and” Knowledge of homeland and homeland

- occupy 33.8%; *the subjects that cover the development of creative artistic skills and the aesthetic education of students*, such as: "Drawing" and "Song of Music" - occupy 7.3%, "Physical Education" - 7.3% "and" Teaching and Work" Useful social work" - occupy 7% of the curriculum"⁷³.

An important step would be the massivization of the 7-year-term unique education and later the 8-year-term, representing the "basic and massive, unified and mandatory link of the Albanian education system"⁷⁴, which "provided students with a sound initial training, incorporating the basic elements of political, moral, civic, aesthetic and physical education as well as providing the necessary technical knowledge"⁷⁵.

From a more detailed overview of the official data for the 1988-1989 school year, the total number of the 8-year-term schools was 1.698 with 551.000 pupils (with and without disengagement) and 28.441 teachers⁷⁶.

SECONDARY EDUCATION IS PART OF THE NEW REFORM CHANGES

Changes in the system, among others, will also be reflected in the curricula of the high school. But since the beginning of the period of implementing the new reform and beyond, the differences between secondary education and other school categories, and within the latter, between *high school* and the *vocational school* are even more profound. The Albanian communist leadership, based on the goal of the country's economic development, especially the heavy industry branch and the fulfilment of needs for secondary technicians, considered vocational education as a priority. The policies pursued after 1970, deepened the differences between quantitative and qualitative developments.

According to official data "for the academic year 1971-1972, from 43 general high schools with 15.791 pupils and 502 teachers, 26 high school with 14.105 students and 386 teachers in 1960-1961, was achieved in 44 secondary schools general with 33.584 students and 1.318 teachers; 85 vocational high schools with 50.072 students and 1.172 teachers"⁷⁷. By the end of the study period, improvements and extensions in secondary education were noted. Thus, the number of general secondary schools did not exceed 43, with 63.000 students, out of which 51.000 students attended school while working at the same time and 1.869 teachers⁷⁸. The professional education has known other dimensions. Efforts to strengthen the existing school organizational structure and

73 Sotir Temo, *Arsimi në Republikën Popullore Socialiste të Shqipërisë (më tej: Arsimi në Republikën ...)*, Tiranë: "8 Nëntori", 1984, f. 40-41. [Sotir Temo, *Education in the Socialist People's Republic of Albania (hereinafter: Education in the Republic ...)*, Tirana: "8 November", 1984, pg. 40-41.]

74 AQSH, F. 511, V. 1985, D. 4, fl. 3-14. *Raport i Ministrisë së Arsimit "Mbi fillimin e vitit shkollor 1984-1985"*. [CSARA, No. 511, Y. 1985, F. 4, pp. 3-14.]

75 [Ibid.]

76 Komisioni i Planit të Shtetit (KPSH), *Vjetari statistikor i R.P.S. të Shqipërisë 1990, botim i Drejtorisë së Statistikave në Komisionin e Planit të Shtetit, Tiranë: "Mihal Duri", 1990, f. 149. Kapitulli XIV. Arsimi dhe Kultura. [The State Planning Commission (SPoC), *Statistical Yearbook of P.S.R. of Albania 1990, publication of the Directorate of Statistics at the State Planning Commission, Tirana: "Miha Duri", 1990, pg. 149. Chapter XIV. Education and Culture.*]*

77 DS, *Vjetari statistikor i RPSH 1971-1972, f. 156-159. [SoD, *Statistical Yearbook of PRA 1971-1972, pg. 156-159.*]*

78 KPSH, *Vjetari statistikor i R.P.S. të Shqipërisë 1990, f. 149. [SPoC, *Statistical Yearbook of P.S.R. of Albania 1990, pg. 149.*]*

to open new ones increased. In the school year 1988-189, 454 schools with a total of 140.000 students (88.000 students attending school leaving school) were employed and 7.498 teachers⁷⁹.

From the analysis of the documents of the period, it is easy to see the presence of the reasons that led to the deepening of the socialist character of the school. For his explanation, there were different ways of thinking, always conceived within party and state lines. What could not be denied was the fact that the changes aimed at further enhancing the quality of the school's educational work and better reflecting on the "Albanian reality", now considered "crucial and decisive" for student orientation towards problems of economy and culture.

All the measures taken after the 8th Congress of the PLA, held on November 1, 1981, and the decisions of the Political Bureau of the CC of the PLA "On the further enhancement of the quality of educational-educational work" would be aimed at moving even to a label standard, which was thought to best suit the development agenda of all secondary education.

"The destination of the upper school was clearly defined, some improvements were made especially in the vocational school curricula," fairer "relations were established in the relationship between teaching, productive work and physical and military education, adding the learning period; measures were taken for a more organic combination of productive work with professional practices and for a more rational use of the time set for this purpose [...] In vocational secondary schools a more reasonable ratio between the general culture of professional culture was set from 59: 41% to 55: 45%; Theoretical subjects were best placed in the function of the vocational training of students⁸⁰; new materials were introduced such as "Selection and Experimentation in Agriculture", "Washing and Cementing Liquids", "Mining Insurance Techniques" etc .. Materials such as "General History" from Technical High Schools agricultural, "Albanian Language" from all general secondary schools, "General Agriculture" and "Foreign Language" from Secondary Schools, "Pedagogy" and "Psychology" from Art Schools, and instead 19 new subjects were introduced. Many of the subjects that were left underwent changes in their volume and extent. There was a "normalized" weekly load, the number of matriculation examinations increased in vocational education, the periods of learning, manufacturing and military education changed. [...] The curriculum of the general high school includes: political-social subjects ("Knowledge of Marxism-Leninism", "Literature", "Foreign Language", "History", "Geography" - a total of 1.872 hours; basic science subjects ("Mathematics", "Physics", "Chemistry", "Biology", "Astronomy") - 1.611 hours; vocational subjects ("Technical Drawing", "Car Tech", "Electro technical" - 351 hours in total; "Physical education - total 568 hours"⁸¹.

Toward the massivization of the secondary school, it would mainly go through the system with and without a break from work (more attention was paid to attracting students to these school categories), organizing the teaching process, drafting general

79 [Ibid.]

80 Në shkollat bujqësore "Kimia" e "Biologjia" zunë një vend më të madh, në shkollat teknike u bënë përmirësime të dukshme në shtrirjen dhe përmbajtjen e matematikës dhe fizikës. [Shënim i autorëve]

81 S. Temo, *Arsimi në Republikën ... f. 61. [S. Temo, *Education in the Republic ... pg. 61.*]*

and vocational culture textbooks, sufficient material base etc. Changes in the content of secondary education, among others, would also reflect on the function and purpose of high school at that time.

*"The general secondary school (with and without disengagement from work) aimed at having the student with complete schooling: comprehensive ideological formation, basic knowledge of political-social sciences, nature sciences and technical subjects developed in this kind of school, in close connection with life, production and revolutionary practice, the general theoretical and practical polytechnic formation through the development of basic theoretical subjects, technical subjects and production work. Whereas, vocational secondary schools (with or without disengagement from work) aim to prepare students for production and for socio-cultural spheres, mainly with broad profile, with ideological formation, with necessary technical and vocational skills and knowledge on the basis of a broad theoretical horizon, in order to attend the high school in the respective branch or in another branch similarly to it"*⁸².

HIGHER EDUCATION IN THE FOCUS OF "REVOLUTIONIZATION"

Socioeconomic and educational changes after the 1960s conditioned the new developments that would affect the entire system of higher education in Albania. *"It is well known that he represents the peak of the pyramid of any educational system"*, says Professor E. Kambo, *"an extremely important link, the outcome of which can be judged on the level of progress of the entire society"*⁸³.

*"The communist state aimed at rapid industrialization, undertook a framework of measures for the orientation of the activity of high schools and scientific institutions not only towards the solution of the problems that lay the socialist economy but also the priority of deepening the socialist character of the school and the ever- and the fullest of the teaching-educational structures on the basis of Marxist-Leninist ideology"*⁸⁴.

Efforts to consolidate higher education, organizational development, structures, profiles, drafting of texts and programs created opportunities for laying the foundations for better correlation "school-life" and "socialist construction", especially for the ideological and practical preparation of students. A rapid expansion was noticed in the education system without disengagement from work, especially in the late 1960s.⁸⁵ However, for a long period of time, the results and the benefit rate remained lower compared to the education system with disengagement from work.

The experience of the first years would serve for further development of higher education, although the difficulties were numerous both in terms of organization, content and teaching by standards. It should be noted, higher education institutes since the establishment would operate on the basis of the statute and the internal regulation.

82 [Ibid.] , p. 62-63.

83 [E. Kambo, *Education in Albania ...*, pg. 148.]

84 Jani Sota, *High Education in Post-Communist Albania 1992-2013 (Monograph) - With a foreword by Prof.Ph.D. Antonello Biagini* (hereinafter: *Education in Post-Communist Albania ...*), Berlin: "LAP LAMBERT Academic Publishing", 2019, pg. 35-36.

85 [Bardhyl Golemi and Vladimir Misja, *Development of Higher Education in Albania*, publication of the Faculty of Economics at the University of Tirana "Enver Hoxha", Tirana: "Mihal Duri", 1987, pg. 48.]

*"All the activities of the high schools until the mid-60s would be organized according to the Statute of the State University of Tirana (SUT) of 1957 and its regulation in 1958. [...] The statute provided the main organisms, whose function was detailed in a more complete form in the SUT Internal Rule and those of the faculties. On their basis, high schools, faculties, branches, specialties, cathedrals, postgraduate specialization courses, libraries, labs, etc., function in full accordance with the "well-known principles of socialist management and planning" [...] They were opened and closed by a decision of the Council of Ministers"*⁸⁶. [...] In 1966, the new Statute was established, which was implemented in the academic year 1966-1967"⁸⁷.

However, it should be said that year after year somehow managed to accelerate the rhythms, the chances of getting into the path of solving some of the other problems that the SUT and the higher schools have changed significantly.

*"But, it has long been noted that the Albanian school of all levels suffered the consequences of poor quality of the educational process. The most visible effect on higher education was the inadequate degree of specialists' preparation. Over the years this problem, so comical and broad-spectrum, has become more acute. Stabilization of the situation was conditioned by the best focus of attention, coupled with measures that led to more sustainable solutions. At that time there was a more serious engagement of the country, but also all the intellectual forces working in the field of education"*⁸⁸.

In order to increase the level of preparation and to focus on deep changes in content, from 1982 on the basis of the 8th Congress orientations and the decision of the Political Bureau of the Central Committee of the Socialist Party, it was worked to improve the situation somewhat out of which illusions, but which, in any event, paved the way for partial changes.

"The changes aimed to better determine the destination of each high school branch; in some branches the study deadlines were extended; adjustments were made to the relationships between the three components, the relationships between the three components, the relationships between the basic theoretical subject groups and theoretical specialty subjects, the enrichment of new scientific specialty information, the elimination of some traditionalism that was introduced in some theoretical subjects to more widely use the generalization structures in them and to open up to new methods. [...] The centrepiece of the revised curriculum is the Marxist-Leninist ideological axis, the theoretical opinion of the Party and Enver Hoxha, the experience of the country's socialist construction. Political-social disparities ("The History of SPL", "Political Economy" and "Dialectical and Historical Materialism") in all higher schools are the same in volume, rank and aim. The total volume of lessons in the curriculum ranges from 8 to 10% in technical, natural, agricultural and medical branches and up to 27% in the social and economic sciences branches. In the curricula of the branches dealing with Albanology subjects, improvements have been made in favour of subjects

86 [Official Gazette of the People's Republic of Albania, No. 9, 10 August 1957, Edition of the People's Assembly, Tirana: "Mihal Duri", 1957, p. 314-330, Decision of the Council of Ministers no. 256, dated July 3, 1957 "On the Approval of the Statute of the State University of Tirana". See: E. Kambo, *Albanian School ...*, pg. 372-373.]

87 [CSARA, F. 511, Y. 1966, F. 53, pp. 13-28.]

88 [E. Kambo, *Education in Albania ...*, pg. 148.]

of national character, in order to reflect in more depth the achievements of studies in the field of our sciences, special courses have been added. [...] The rapid development of “Mathematics”, “Physics” and “Chemistry” etc., which constitute the theoretical foundation of applied disciplines, technology and technology, has been given priority over the addition of new and necessary scientific information. [...] The specific weight of theoretical-core subjects has been added to almost all new teaching plans. [...] New lessons and chapters have been introduced in the lesson plans, without which it is difficult to conceive the preparation of senior specialists. About 90 new subjects are included in these plans. [...] New high school teaching plans have been further improved in the lecture / seminar report, exercises and labs (theory / practice). The theory / practice ratio has deepened to the benefit of practical learning^{89*}. During the design of new curricula attention has been paid to the professional work of professional practice conceived as a whole in content and organization. In the technical branches to this component it has been given 20 weeks^{90*} distributed somewhere equally in all school years and somewhere not. [...] In the branches of social sciences, natural and medical work and professional practice occupy 16-20 weeks^{91**}. [...] Physical and military training in all high schools took place three weeks per year^{92*} throughout the study period. [...] On all new plans, to provide a full preparation for the specialists, teaching time increased^{93*}, for the respective academic year⁹⁴.

All the measures taken during the party-state policies during the course of our study, of course, had their value, but “The Achilles Heel” remained the deepening of the socialist content of the entire teaching-educational activity of the high schools⁹⁵.

As with other school categories, organization in these proportions seriously damaged the teaching process. He broke the traditional relationship between the subjects, lacked the time needed to acquire knowledge, politicized the content of the various disciplines, leading to a drop in the overall level of knowledge offered by

89 *[In the Engineering Faculty, from the ratio of 60% theory to 40% practice is passed to the ratio 50% to 50%; in the Faculty of Geology and Mining from 58% to 42% to about 50% to 50% etc.; in the Faculty of Natural Sciences and at the Faculty of Economics, in most new curricula, the report is in favor of seminars, exercises, laboratories, etc. [...] In the practical part it is anticipated to add specific weight of laboratory work, which in some engineering branches account for 14% of the hours, from 5% of the time at the Institute of Higher Physical Culture theoretical part by 20% which was on the first increased to 30%; but there is a lack of theoretical part of the course at the Higher Institute of Arts, especially in the branch of Directorate, Composition and so on. [Taken from: S. Temo, Education in the Republic ..., pg. 83.]*

90 *[In some branches, production and professional practice extends until the fourth year (in the branches of the Faculty of Geology and Mining), in some other branches until the fifth year (in the branches of the Engineering Faculty and in that of the Industrial Chemistry). [Taken from: S. Temo, Education in the Republic ..., pg. 84.]*

91 *[In the Faculty of Agriculture, the production and professional practices occupy 18-20 weeks, (at the Veterinary Faculty only 23 weeks), at the Institute of Fine Arts 16-20 weeks, with the exception of the figurative arts branch (27 weeks) and at the High School of Physical Culture 12 weeks. [Taken from: S. Temo, Education in the Republic ..., pg. 84.]*

92 *[One week of these is left to theoretical teaching at the auditorium during the first semester, the other two are devoted to exercises, grouped during the second semester of each school year. [Taken from: S. Temo, Education in the Republic ..., pg. 84.]*

93 *[In the branches of the Engineering Faculty, learning throughout the academic year is 132 weeks from 100 to 108 years old, in the branches of the Faculty of Geology and Mining 125 weeks from 102-105 that was in the first. Even in other faculties where the study deadline has not changed, there is an increase of 2-6 weeks. [Taken from: S. Temo, Education in the Republic ..., pg. 84-85.]*

94 [S. Temo, Education in the Republic ..., pg. 80-81.]

95 Jani Sota, “An Overview of The Main Phenomena and Trends That Accompanied The Development of Higher Education (1990 - 2013)”, to: *Academic Journal of Interdisciplinary Studies, Vol. 7, Issue 3, Publisher De Gryter, Gentiner StraBE 13, d-10785 Berlin / Germany, Owner: Mediterranean Center of Social and Educational Research, Rome, Italy. November 2018, pg. 43-54.*

higher education⁹⁶.

Approaching with the People’s Republic of China in the field of culture and education brought orientation towards the “cultural revolution”. This orientation further inspired the struggle against religion with massive violent actions, the control of the working class in every area of life, up to the school’s teaching process, the attack on specialists of every field by means of “big-character reports”, which were similar to big character posters, emphasizing the principle of “policy in the foreground”, contempt for technocratism, etc.

However, given a realistic viewpoint, such as the expansion of the educational institution network and the quality of the specialists, the developments in higher education helped not only in the development of the economy and culture but also in the emancipation of Albanian society at the time. The comparative figures presented in the table below demonstrate the dynamic development that has been made in this area:

Tab. 5⁹⁷
The dynamics of increasing the number of students and high schools for the years 1970 - 1989

Nr.	Vitet / Years Treguesit / Indicators	1970	1980	1985	1989
		1	Shkolla të larta / Higer schools	5	8
2	Studentë / Students	8275	7221	9995	13310
	- Me shkëputje nga puna / Full time	3159	4212	7870	10617
	- Pa shkëputje nga puna / Part time	5116	3009	2125	2693
3	Pedagogë / Pedagogus	135	222	347	471
4	Të diplomuar / Graduated	1613	2877	3248	4303

The above data reflect the development of high education in quantitative and qualitative terms, as an integral part of the progress of all the links of the education system in Albania. If in 1970, at the country level, 1.613 people completed their studies meanwhile in 1989 there were 4.303⁹⁸. It is understandable the fact that in 1989, a total of eight high schools were enrolled with high-level staff in more than 70 specialties⁹⁹.

From a general point of view, the reform for a new socialist education system, it should be mentioned the fact that the contribution of lecturers, teachers and senior specialists was considered important and did not lack their commitment to becoming part of this process. “*But realistically*”, - said Prof. Dr. Kambo, - *there would be a selective approach that, despite the propaganda, expressed the true view of the PLA. [...] This logic of*

96 [E. Kambo, Albanian School, ..., pg. 393.]

97 [SPoC), Statistical Yearbook of P.S.R of Albania 1990, pg. 152-153.]

98 [Ibid, pg. 164-165.]

99 [Ibid, pg. 149.]

*communist leadership could not be realized by "anyone". Those who will work in these areas should not only "know" the theoretical basis of this philosophy, but be willing to implement it*¹⁰⁰.

However, the changes that were made during this period, left traces on further progress of the school, of the Albanian society in general and of the youth in particular.

CONCLUSIONS

Handling the research article "An overview of the phenomenon and tendencies of the Albanian totalitarian state for deepening the character of the socialist school in the years 1960-1989" gives us the opportunity to reach some conclusions:

The basic conclusion of the study is that the educational development in communist Albania during the years 1960-1989, has been in conformity to the laws, decisions, norms, teaching plans and programs of the educational development in national scale.

Also in the profile of educational development in the districts of our country can not avoid the regional dimension, which is configured by factors such as geography, field and hilly terrain of the province, educational traditions and the great desire of the population to learn new knowledge, the level of the teaching body, the creation of a benevolent climate and respect for the future, the economic performance with agricultural tendencies, without denying the industrial-agricultural development trends of some of the districts of Albania in the period after the World War II.

As in the whole country, education became of priority care for the communist government. The Albanian state supported financially the whole educational process, preparation and qualification of pedagogical staff, augmentation of teaching-didactic base etc. The whole education was concentrated in the hands of the communist state, completely controlled by the state structures.

By the end of the 1980s, the educational developments in communist Albania were reflected in the consolidation of the main links of the new education system, such as the 8-year school, the general and vocational secondary school. With the adoption of the 1952 and 1969 Law, it was possible to have the 7-year education initially (for all children between the ages of 7 and 16) and later the 8-year education (for all children 6-15 years old). In this period, in Albania, vocational education was consolidated with technical-vocational 2-year and high-school 4/5-year schools, where qualified workers, technicians and secondary specialists were trained. Some of them were able to continue their higher education in the fields of economics, industry, teaching, culture, construction, army etc.

By the end of the 60's, the teaching process in Albanian schools was a parable of Soviet experience up to. New programs and textbooks were developed according to the Soviet model.

The "History of the Communist Party (Bolshevik) of the Soviet Union" and the "Foreign Language of Russia" were included in the curricula. This period can be

characterized as the period of complete sovietization of school and education in Albania. Most of the high school textbooks, especially those dealing with scientific and technical issues, were translated from Russian.

Nevertheless, despite the Soviet influences and model, the Albanian school maintained some of the inherent national characteristics that provided principles, norms, legal documentation, curricula, and their unique applicability throughout the Albanian state. Despite the fact that after the 1970s, the Albanian school was influenced by the Chinese school experience, however, it retained those elements of the traditional school.

The 60's marked the entry of the school in a new period, known as the "Reorganization of Educational System". As it is well-known, it led to important changes aiming to the establishment of all school activities on the basis of the principle of connecting learning with producing work. The consequences of this new reform were experienced also in the district of Albania.

In conformity with the Law "For the Reorganization of Educational System in the People's Republic of Albania", in June 1963, in the district of Albania were established the first experimental schools, such as: in the 7-years school of Tirana, of Durres, of Lushnje, of Berat, of Fier, Of Korca etc., where the establishment of connection between learning and producing work was experimented. Based on the achieved results, the districts of Tirana, Fieri, Korca etc., became the place of the organizing of a seminary in national scale, with the acquired experience serving as an example for the other schools of the country.

Politics pursued in the educational framework, its submission to the control of the State-Party, cultivated a kind of submission to the politics and the Marxist-Leninist ideology of the Labor Party of Albania, oppressing the free thinking and weakening the critical spirit with its abilities to contribute to the development of the society. In spite of this, *it must be stated that the teachers of the Albanian teacher worked with a high devotion to transmit to the young generation not only the necessary scientific knowledge, but also the moral and human values, as well as the region's traditions. This made the teacher in Albania to be perceived as a respected and personality by the whole community.*

In conclusion, *it can be stated that in the perspective of quantitative results, which were important, the educational systems of the first decades after the World War II contributed to the development process of the Albanian society in general.* In spite of limitations, the educational level kept growing and offering more opportunities to all population strata, and especially to the young generations.



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INCLUSIVE EDUCATION AND GIFTED CHILDREN

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ABSTRACT

The approach of inclusion in education actually constitutes an almost global educational policy. The Declaration of Salamanca (1994) has served as a starting point and a cornerstone of inclusive education policies. Even though in the aforementioned declaration gifted students are considered as students with special needs, in some countries, including Albania the whole attention is focused on the students with learning disabilities. The opinion that gifted students are able to progress even without any particular attention is inspired by a mythical portrayal and it is not based in research. In fact, studies have shown that this category of students, because of their asymmetric development, needs to be understood and addressed in such a way that they also meet their needs within the public education service.

This article provides a theoretical summary in order to understand the concepts of "gifted student" and "talented student" based on the contribution of François Gagné (2003). The authors examine the Interpretations of Behavior according to Saunders (1986) and point out arguments imposing the necessity to recognize the characteristics of such children both by educators and parents. In the article, careful treatment of these children is viewed from the perspective of social justice. The article includes also pros and cons related to the costs produced if gifted children are not discovered and considered as such. The authors conclude that their identification at an early age, as well as creating a nurturing environment around them in order to help their interaction with peers is highly important. On the other hand, the special training of teachers and parents for gifted children is essential in this context.

KEYWORDS:

social justice, gifted children, inclusive education, academic achievement.

INTRODUCTION

The Republic of Albania is on the path of constant reformation since the 1990's, when Albania changed the form of a political regime. Although it has made constant efforts to reform in all areas of development, it remains pending in anticipation of the opening of its EU membership negotiations. The Republic of Croatia has been an EU member since July 1, 2013, and yet it is still in the process of reform. Both the Albanian and the Croatian states, considering their international commitments, have been involved in a number of reforms in Pre University Education. The vision of education reforms in both countries extends toward the 2030 Sustainable Development Agenda. In the field of education, reforms in both countries are particularly focused on Objective 4 of this Agenda, which aims to "ensure inclusive and equal quality education, and to create and consolidate chances for lifelong learning for everyone".

In one of the reports of the European Commission for the Western Balkan Countries, which includes both Croatia and Albania, it has been noted that the pedagogical approach with the student at the center is very slow. The researchers argue that this situation is explained by the mentality of initial teacher education, which is too theoretical, and depends on the way how young teachers are formed, creating so the belief that the particular needs of students (learning disadvantaged or talented students) can only be met by specialists trained specifically for these categories of students. This report stresses that the need to increase teachers' capacities in order to meet the needs of all students should be considered as a priority for all Western Balkan Countries (CE, 2013: 8-9).

In many European countries, till lately, it has been a perception that talented students have no specific need and therefore do not need any special attention. It was thought that gifted students could progress to regular classes without the need for any specific help. This mentality led to neglecting the quality education of talented children (Reid & Horváthová, 2016). This perception, that moreover is not supported by scientific evidence, has created a mythical profile of gifted students and thus has hampered the identification and treatment as needed.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Concepts of "gifted student" and "talented student" is a concept that could not have an agreement on definition because there are at least three theoretical frameworks such as: Tannenbaum's Star Model, Renzulli's Three-Ring Conception and Gagné's Differentiating Model of Giftedness and Talent, which view this concept in different ways. Specifically, Tannenbaum's Star Model has a more conservative point of view in determining the gift compared to the other two frameworks. In this paper to better understand this category of students we found as reasonable to stop at the concepts of "gifted student" and "talented student" deepening theoretically into one of the most internationally accepted theoretical frameworks, the definition of François Gagné, Differentiating Model of Giftedness and Talent (2003). The essence of this model is



the notion of talent development. So Gagné opposes the possibility of achieving an extraordinary performance based solely on potential or innate gifts. According to him, if children were born with gifts, they should channel this potential born in the development process, in order to turn it into talent. Gagné identifies the factors that influence this process of development that according to him are factors that are related to the character of the individual as personality and motivation. These personal factors are considered to be linked to environmental factors, including family environment and learning experiences. The model doesn't see talent and gift only in intellectual or academic fields, but much wider. According to him, children may have the gift of various forms, such as intellectual abilities, creative abilities, socio affective skills and sensorimotor skills. On their base, can be developed high-level skills in different areas such as academic area, arts, business, leisure, social, sports or even different technologies.

The illustration in Figure 1 also clarifies this model better.

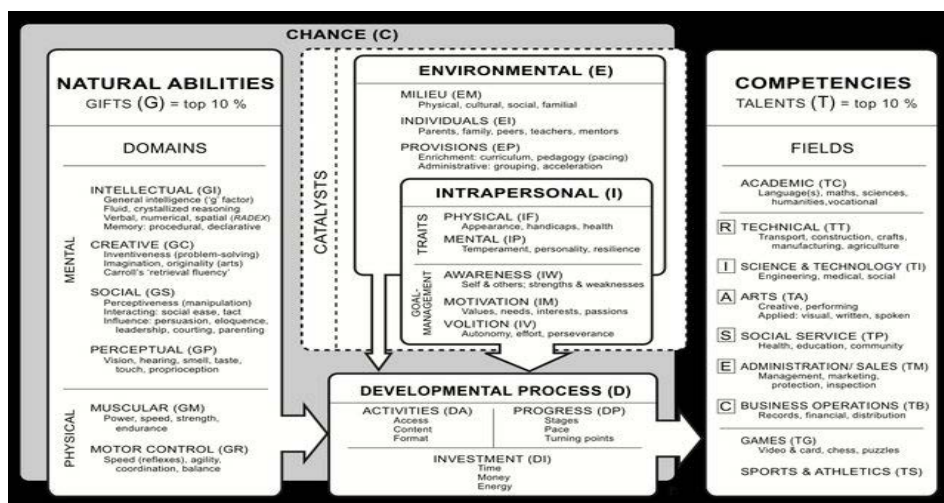


Figure 1. Gagné's Differentiating Model of Giftedness and Talent (DMGT 2.0; 2008 update) In Gagné, F. (2013:7)

COMPARISON OF LEGAL GROUND

In both countries, the Law on Pre-University Education is based on the principle of developing the full potential of each student, which means that teachers in principle should meet the needs of all students. This is a principle that actually supports the sustainable development of education in both countries. Regarding the discovery of gifted children, there are differences between the two states. Law of Education in Primary and Secondary Schools (NN152 /14), at Article 63, obliges all schools in the Republic of Croatia to identify, pursue, and promote gifted students. Unlike Law 69/2019 on Pre-University Education, Croatian law in Article 62 clearly states that

students with special educational needs are not only hard-working students but also gifted students. During a school year gifted students can complete two classes. The conditions and procedures according to which the student can complete the school in the shortest term is defined in Article 64. Also, talented students, eg. athletes or artists, and those preparing for international competitions, according to article 81, may complete the school by attending classes or taking part in exams to halve the duration of the program.

In Albania there isn't a legal clause that obliges the identification of gifted students. Reporting for children performing at a higher level than peers is done by classroom teachers (Kashahu & Zenelaga, 2019), while in Croatia at the National Framework Plan for Primary and Secondary Education in Chapter 10, it is mentioned that gifted students are presented as students with special needs, which forces the educational institution to identify and provide support to meet their needs in both aspects ,cognitive and physical, in emotional and social terms. Identification of gifted children is realized by psychologists in collaboration with other specialists (Petani, Kashahu &, Miočić, 2018).

Even in the National Curricula (MES, 2014a, MES, 2014b), both in Albania and in Croatia (MZOS, 2010), key competencies are encouraged to develop individual initiative and entrepreneurship. From the analysis of the curricular framework in both countries it is noticed that even though there is no clear stance on gifted or talented children in Albania, there are noticed some indicators of creativity and innovation such as free initiative, self-organization or taking over of the same risk as those expressed in the curricular frameworks of pre-university education in both countries (Kashahu & Zenelaga, 2019, in press; Petani, Kashahu & Miočić, 2018).

On the other hand, significant changes have also been made with regard to further treatment after identification. In Albania, parents are the only support of gifted children. After they have realized that their child has a particular inclination, they find ways of further development of these gifts based on their possibilities. Mainly, parents have to pay to create opportunities for their children in order to advance on the basis of the gift, but there are many children who, due to lack of family income, remain without support. In the National Curricula Framework according to school levels, it is cited about talented students and their participation in competitions like the Olympiads, but schools have little or no support to help these students with additional programs and lessons. In big cities, schools provides clubs according to students' interests, but this is more common in secondary schools. Normative Provisions (MES, 2013) envisage the way of the organization of the Olympiads. However, every year in schools, there are instructions to organize the Olympiads in different fields. Within the schools competitions are organized involving the most prominent students. The best of them competing with the students of other schools in the cities. In the last phase, the competition is carried out at the national level and in the Olympiads participate only the winning students of each city (Kashahu & Zenelaga, 2019, in press). The problem is that in order to take part in these kinds of activities, the student needs support, which is currently only provided by the family members.

In Croatia the fact that the identification of gifted students is a legal obligation

enables the support of gifted children to be carried out within schools. The National Framework Curriculum (MZOS, 2010) guides their support to specific programs that are designed by teachers within the school by consulting with higher level teachers and specialists in relevant fields. For example, if a child appears gifted in math or science at elementary school, primary teachers create a special program to seek the assistance of secondary school teachers, as well as math and science specialists from other educational and scientific institutions¹. Individualized or grouped programs are tailored to the student's specific needs. The National Pedagogical Standard for Elementary Education (NN 63/2008) defines the minimum requirements of infrastructure, financial and human resources for the realization and development of primary education. This means engaging a disciplinary specialist who has high intellectual and / or academic, or / and creative, and / or psycho-motor skills.

There are three main forms to meet the needs of these children. The first form implies differentiation based on enriching the content and teaching methodology in adaptability to their forms of thinking. The second form is acceleration, which means that the child can attend the lesson in the area where the gift appears in one or more than one class above. While in other subjects, learning takes place with peers. Finally, Centers of excellence² offer special programs for these children. The Olympiads are also an opportunity to promote the development of these children, as well as extracurricular clubs and winter or summer programs. The advancement of gifted children and their achievements is monitored and pursued step by step (Petani, Kashahu & Miočić, 2018). Since 1991, there is an Ordinance on Primary Education and Educating Gifted Students, (NN/34, 1991), which regulates how gifted students learn, educate, encourage and supervise, as well as the conditions and procedures under which a student can complete elementary school in the shortest possible time. The fact that this regulation dates back to 1991 shows that there is an urgent need for change and that it is required to adopt a new regulation.

WHY IS SO IMPORTANT SOCIAL JUSTICE IN EDUCATION

Talented and gifted children are defined in the Declaration of Salamanca (1994) as children with special needs, but especially in Albania when talking about children with special needs, it has been found that all attention is focused on children with physical, mental, or learning disabilities (Kashahu & Zenelaga, 2019, in press) and in fact this does not happen only in Albania. Researchers Reid and Horváthová (2016) acknowledge that although schools have qualified staff in special pedagogy, they mainly focus on the problems of the various disabilities of the students, while the needs of the gifted students are neglected. Based on the study of World Vision Albania and Save the Children in Albania (2018), 10.4% of children in Albania have a disability. And while we have a statistic and a legitimate legal basis almost complete about children with learning disability, because of the lack of the legal education framework, we can

¹ Državni pedagoški standard predškolskog odgoja i naobrazbe. Available at: <http://www.propisi.hr/print.php?id=2561>

² Centers of excellence are found only in large cities and not in all cities. They are supported by various NGOs, as well as scientific research institutions and prominent specialists by field of expertise.

not have any statistics to show how the prevalence of the gifted students in Albania can be. However, if we refer to the world literature on gifted students, prevalence depends on the conservator or liberal standpoints and the theoretical framework used to identify and determine these gifts. If IQ is taken as the reference point, this figure may range from 3 to 5% (Missett & McCormick, 2014 in Kashahu & Zenelaga, 2019, in press). If we refer to the model of Renzulli (1986) it is about 15-20% of the population, which is only 5% higher than the measurements based on the model Gagne (Gross, 2005: 13). It is very fair that the legal basis should support children with learning disability, but what we see with concern is that even gifted students are also children with special needs and in the case of Albania they do not have their interests properly reflected in no document related to the legal basis that supports the development of pre-university education.

The question that arises in this case is: Why is there so much importance for a gifted student to be treated as a student with special needs? As mentioned above due to different theoretical frameworks, there are various definitions of Concepts of "gifted student" and "talented student" one of the definitions that we would emphasize to support the essence of this social justice is related with asymmetric development thesis. It is about the definition of the Columbus Group under the direction of Dr Linda Kreger Silverman as follows:

"Giftedness is asynchronous development in which advanced cognitive abilities and heightened intensity combines to create inner experiences and awareness that are qualitatively different from the norm. This asynchrony increases with higher intellectual capacity. The uniqueness of the gifted renders them particularly vulnerable and requires modifications in parenting, teaching and counselling in order for them to develop optimally" (in Parliament of Victoria, Education and Training Committee, 2012:20).

Asymmetry is developed due to advancement in a certain direction in one of the fields where the child has gift, such as intellectual, physical, or emotional development. This does not mean that a child with intellectual development that is considerably more advanced than peers will have the same emotional development. However, considering the advanced way of thinking of this child, adults may create unrealistic and at the same time unfair expectations. Specifically, if a 6 year old child in the first grade justifies solving social problems in the sixth grade, this does not mean that his emotional control would be the same as that of a 12-year-old child. When they see their intensity and way of thinking compared to the others, gifted students understand that they are different from others. This change leads the child to suspicion and isolation, which can reach up to the retreat (Tolan, 1998).

Silverman supports the thesis of asymmetric development on the fundamental theories of Hollingworth, Terrassier, Dabrowski, and Vygotsky. It brings persuasive evidence of the risk that gifted children carry with them and justifies the necessity of these children to be treated according to their needs in school and elsewhere (Silverman 1997), thus putting their rights objecting with arguments the thesis on elite education. Silverman's (1997) attitude backs us to Gagne's Differentiated Model of Giftedness and Talent (DMGT, 2003) by re-evaluating developmental processes and environmental factors as the main supporting factors for which gifted students have

the need, combined these with their personal characteristics.

Since 1988, Betts and Neihart researchers brought six profiles of gifted students over the years (T1, The Successful; T2, The Creative; T3, The Underground; T4, The At risk; T5, Tëice/ Multi Exeptional; and T6, Autonomous learner (Betts, & Neihart, 2010), on the basis of which teachers and parents and other professionals in the school can firstly understand within the category of gifted students that we have a group of very heterogeneous students (Neihart, 2017) and secondly, broke the myth that these students can advance alone, without being treated like student with special needs. Betts and Neihart (1988; 2010) based on their many years of work and with the periodic reflections of their work, brought theoretical data of great practical value. The scientific data collected from ongoing research over the years provided the opportunity for practitioners to clearly understand how these students can be identified by six types, as their achievements are not always sufficient indicators. Knowing how adults and peers perceive them, what kind of support needs each type in school and family, what their needs are, and in particular their feelings, attitudes and behaviors are the elements from where the change can start in working with them.

The researchers, Diezmann, & Watters (1997) concluded that identifying gifted students is a major challenge and that the perception that they can be easily identified is unfounded in empirical evidence. The excellent academic outcomes are not the most reliable indicators when it comes to the identification of gifted students (Oswald, Hanisch, & Hager, 2005). If we go back and analyze six profiles in the revised profiles of gifted and talented (Betts, & Neihart, 2010), the gifted students who are associated with the profiles of The Creative, The Underground, The At Risk, Twice / Multi Exceptional can only be identified if teachers have the right formation to do so. Studies have shown that the professional development of teachers (Gallagher, Smith, & Merrotsy, 2011; Geake & Gross, 2008; McCoach & Siegle, 2007), as well as their previous work experience with gifted students (Kesner, 2005; Ugur, 2004) are extremely important in their identification and treatment according to the needs.

If these children could be identified as gifted, they have more chances to receive appropriate treatment in accordance with their characteristics, while the purpose of education is to support the development of the individual based on his / her own needs. The start of identification is the parent nominations and teacher nominations, where the last one is sometimes even more important. The basis for nomination is the interpretation of the child's behavior, but on the other hand the interpretation of these behaviors is subjective. Saunders (1986) interprets the subjectivity of behavioral interpretation by looking at the same behavior at the same time as Admired Behavior and Problem Behavior. Table 1 shows clearly how a behavior can take two different bumps. Diezmann, & Watters (1997) pointing out that if teachers and parents have the right information and education, they can understand properly the gifted students. Understanding the behavior of gifted students, according to these researchers, is very important because on this basis they identify and decide how to work with these children.

Table 1

Two interpretations of behaviour (Saunders, 1986)

Admired Behaviour	Problem Behaviour
Verbal Proficiency	Talks too much; talks above the head of age peers
Long Attention Span	Tunnel vision; resistance to interruption
Rapid Learning	Inaccuracy; sloppiness
Creativity	Escape into fantasy; day dreaming
Independent Learning	Inability to accept help; nonconformity for its own sake
Critical Thinking	Critical attitude towards others; perfectionism and unreasonable standards
Preference for complexity	Resistance to simple solutions; over-extension of energies, off-task

Source: [Saunders, 1986 in Diezmann, & Watters, 1997]

WHAT HAPPENED IF THEY ARE NOT SUPPORTED?

Research on gifted students has shown that they, despite their intelligence, are at risk of lower academic achievements (Bruns, 1992; Callahan, & Hertberg-Davis, 2013; Emerick, 1992; Reis and McCoach, 2000; Smutny, 2001). The term and concept of the underachievers when it comes to gifted children is very complex. This complexity justifies the variety of definitions of "gifted underachievers". Full explanation requires a long discussion, which does not lie in the essence of the purpose of this paper, and therefore, in order to create clarity, we have chosen Reis and McCoach (2000) among many definitions. According to them:

"Underachievers are students who exhibit a severe discrepancy between expected achievement (as measured by standardized tests, assessments, etc.) and actual achievement (as measured by grades and teacher evaluations)"

[Reis & McCoach, 2000].

The underachievement of gifted students, even though there is no precise definition, has some widely accepted indicators as a discretionary between ability and achievement. Neisser, and her colleagues (1996) after analyzing some studies reach the conclusion, despite high correlations of IQ and Academic achievements, that only 25% of the achievements are explained by intelligence. So other factors such as family impact, peer influence, personality traits, motivation and education conditions explains about three quarters of students' achievements. Low achievements of gifted students are just one of their problems. Their intellectual and emotional characteristics have emerged some external or internal problems as: 1) Difficulty with social relationships; 2) Refusal to do routine, repetitive assignments;



3) Inappropriate criticism of others; 4) Lack of awareness of impact on others; 5) Lack of sufficient challenge in schoolwork; 6) Depression (often manifested in boredom); 7) High levels of anxiety; 8) Difficulty accepting criticism; 9) Hiding talents to fit with peers; 10) Nonconformity and resistance to authority; 11) Excessive competitiveness; 12) Isolation from peers; 13) Low frustration tolerance; 14) Poor study habits; and 15) Difficulty in selecting among a diversity of interests (Silverman, 1987). These problems are not only related to low achievements but also to other risks. Studies reveal risks such as dropping out of high school (Gallagher, 2002; Hansen & Johnston Toso, 2007; Matthees, 2009); mental health problems such as depression (Blatt, 1995; Kaiser & Berndt, 1985; Neihart, Reis, Robinson, & Moon, 2002) or suicide (Dixon & Scheckel, 1996, Fleith, 1998, Hyatt and Cross, and committing crimes and other problems with the law (Harvey & Seeley, 1984). These scientific facts put us in front of the facts to judge the extraordinary importance of the education in line with the needs and proper treatment of gifted students in the family, school and beyond,

CONCLUSION

Experts, based on the fact that gifted students are highly specific and different from the rest of the student population, both in academic and emotional terms, judge that they should be considered as students with special educational needs (Kulik, 2003, Moon, 1995, VanTassel- Baska, 2003). They are the most promising part of society, people who in the future will realize inventions and innovations that will solve many current problems of humanity. Lack of identification hinders the proper education. In order to meet their needs, should be consider a list of their needs and conditions, enabling them to maximize their achievements (Feldhusen and Robinson-Wyman, 1980) in order to find themselves in the education system and not to do the opposite .

By comparing the legal base in Albania and Croatia, there are significant changes in the status and systems of gifted education in both countries. In Albania, work should begin with the completion of the legal basis for guaranteeing the right to education of gifted students. With regard to Croatia, although there is room for updates and improvements to the legal basis, the problem lies mainly in its application. In practice there are situations where talented students are not recognized, teachers do not encourage their diversity or do not enrich their programs. There are rare cases when the giftiness of the student is ignored. This eliminates systematic support, individualized approaches, the application of new forms of work and the creation of curricula to fit the needs. To maximize the potential of gifted students and to make sustainable talented education, it is essential to improve school flexibility, diversify teaching methods and techniques, enrich the content of the curricula and increase the qualification of teachers working with talented students (Reid & Horváthová, 2016: 66).

In both cases for Albania and for Croatia it is important to emphasize the necessity to enrich the curricula of higher education at the Faculties of Education in order to prepare teachers with the necessary knowledge for the recognition, identification and psychological and methodological treatment of gifted students. These Faculties should be the starting point for acquiring competences to work with talented students

and continuing support with high-level training expertise for teachers working with this category of students. On the other hand, both countries need to cooperate more with the Faculties of Education of countries that have advanced treatment systems of this category of students such as Austria. We propose the creation of a network of professional co-operation between the Faculties of Education in Europe to enable the creation of a common European framework defining the status and systems of gifted education.

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YOUTH EMPLOYMENT GAP

(CASE OF ALBANIA)

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ABSTRACT

Albania is a developing country, and its main goal is to stabilize the economy and society by using all the necessary mechanisms. Human resources, and especially young people, are one of the most important elements that can transform the whole economy of a country. All the challenges is on managing and using them with the right efficiency, promoting participation in the labour market, active decision-making and increasing their value in benefit to the society.

This paper will analyse a general picture of the Albanian labour market, paying particular attention in the young people age group (18-29 years old). The key data was obtained from INSTAT and ILO, taking into account the reports and studies that have been carried out on this topic in previous periods. The aim will be to present the current state of the youth unemployment in Albania, their difficulties entering the labour market, the consequences of high unemployment in the society and economy and various recommendations on minimizing the youth unemployment rate. The young people represent a dynamic and important segment of the population of each country. Generally, countries with a relatively young population are characterized by a good economic level and a higher standard of living. Numerous policies need to be devised for their employment and training in the fields of economy to establish a safer trajectory towards economic stability. The employment and training of youth in Albania has been and continues to be one of the most problematic challenges of the society. Based on the statistical data, our country is characterized by a high unemployment rate in this age group and therefore we think it is one of the issues that needs to be more greatly studied now and in the future.

KEY WORDS:

labour market, unemployment, youth, economy.



1. INTRODUCTION

Youth unemployment between the ages of 16 and 29 is one of the most important research topics, driven by the great impact it has on the social and economic sphere of a country. Numerous studies have analyzed youth unemployment by comparing them with a struggle of the social and economic development. Based on ILO¹ studies almost every country in the world is affected by a high unemployment rate in youth groups, where compared to the adult group is estimated to be 2-3 times more “threatened” in the labor market. Overall, there has been a modest economic growth globally, but youth unemployment remains high and employment quality is a concern.

Youth unemployment is not a simple and transient problem, on the contrary, it contains the long-term transition period from school to unemployment, then to unpaid or minimum paid employment, employment with an uncertain timetable, etc. that all of these are an opportunity cost not only for young people but also for society and the economy of the country. Youth unemployment limits opportunities for increasing living standards and economic growth in the medium term, the World Bank has estimated in a special analysis of youth employment in the region. There are many factors that influence the increase of the youth unemployment rate, some of which will be analyzed in this paper. It should be emphasized that in all countries of the world, education is one of the main factors that differentiates the supply and demand for youth work. It has also been accepted by other studies that youth unemployment is due to the limited professional skills they have compared to seniors²

More than half of young people in Albania are not part of the active economy. This is because many of them are unemployed, some are employed but not declared and many are taking the tendency to emigrate. This paper aims to analyze young people's unemployment in Albania as a problem that requires solutions, and the effects it has on social and economic life in the country.

2. LABOUR MARKET IN ALBANIA

Unemployment is considered one of the most worrying macroeconomic problems of any society, especially those who have experienced the transition period after the fall of the communist system and those in the developing world. The economy's transition from the centralized to the free market, as well as the political changes that took place after the 1990s, were accompanied by significant changes in the labor market for Albania. It is very important to study the labor market in Albania because it tends to change at rapid and constant rates and further more the information and orientation, especially for young people, as the age group that suffers the high unemployment phenomenon in Albania.

1 Global Employment Trends for Youth 2017/ Paths to a better working future.

2 I Sackey, H. A. and B. Osei (2006), Human Resource Underutilisation in an Era of Poverty Reduction: An Analysis of Unemployment and Underemployment in Ghana, African Development Review, Vol. 18, No. 2, pp. 221–47.

2.1 The main trends of unemployment in Albania

The labor market in Albania has changed with rapid steps and has not always been in line with the interests and needs of citizens for facing demand and labor supply. Unemployment has been and continues to be a concern for society especially in the youth age group. Graph No.1 presents the unemployment rate by age group from 2008 to 2017, and the large fluctuation of the youth age group compared to other age groups is noticeable.

Graph 1: Unemployment rate by age group, 2008-2017



Source: INSTAT, 2018

The youth age group reflects the highest unemployment rate, where, especially after 2011 and until 2016, there has been only increase in the unemployment rate. The highest unemployment rate for young people is marked in 2015 with the corresponding value of 33.2%. Currently, at the end of 2018, based on the Labor Force Survey, youth unemployment is estimated at 23.1% versus adult age groups (30-64 years old) at the rate of 9.2%, pointing to a really large gap between these two age groups.

The challenge for youth employment in Albania requires, in addition to addressing labor demand-supply, constant involvement of government agencies, labor market institutions, employers' organizations and employees.³

2.2 The link between education and youth unemployment

The transition of students from educational institutions to the labor market has been one of the main difficulties of young people and one of the causes of unemployment in the group. Often this transition is accompanied by long waiting times for young people to find a job by reducing their motivation to be competitive in the market⁴. Training young people to better adapt to market demand remains the best individual and government investment in its employment growth targets. Greater productivity in the labor market may be when employing students is done rapidly after the completion of their studies. In this way, they also can be motivated to put into practice all the formal knowledge acquired and have the opportunity to qualitatively qualify at work. According to the Institute for Co-operation and Development report (2015) on youth employment trends in Albania, the difficulty of finding a first job in a

3 Global Employment Trends for Youth 2017/ Paths to a better working future.

4 Labour Market Report 2018.

market that is not controlled by the state has always been in very high levels. (Which is the case of Albania after the 1990)⁵.

Table 1. Youth unemployment rate in relation to education.

		Unemployment rate					
		2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	
Total	15-24	Basic Education	23,6	29,3	33,1	30,5	31,9
		High School	36,5	46,3	42,8	36,7	31,4
		University	44,3	44,9	45	45,4	33,1
	25-29	Basic Education	18,5	23,6	25	21,8	18,8
		High School	28,3	31,5	27,3	20,9	21,9
		University	23,5	24,9	27,7	23,5	20,6
Male	15-24	Basic Education	28,4	35,6	36,5	35,4	35
		High School	39	48,1	41	36,2	33,2
		University	37,9	45,7	40,1	50,4	35,7
	25-29	Basic Education	23,4	30,1	26	22,6	20,4
		High School	29,8	29,9	25,2	22,4	20,9
		University	20,5	24,3	22,4	21,7	18,6
Female	15-24	Basic Education	15,3	16,3	25	19,6	23,6
		High School	30,7	40,8	48,1	38	27,7
		University	49,5	44,4	47,8	43	31,2
	25-29	Basic Education	10,6	13,2	23,5	20,6	16,7
		High School	24,6	37,4	33,9	16,6	25,8
		University	25,5	25,3	31,7	24,8	22,2

Source: INSTAT

Based on INSTAT data, the highest level of unemployment is observed among young people aged 15-24, where the highest rate is for the youngsters who have just graduated with 33.1%, and very sensitive for the male rate by 35.7% compared to women with a 31.2% unemployment rate. This is related to the fact of their difficulty in entering the labor market and finding the right job for their skills. The labour market offers are those that require employees with qualifications and experience and do not always have the criteria that the newly graduates can meet, depriving them of entering the job market immediately.

It should also be noted that many young people with basic education and without proper qualification tend to be employed informally, in temporary work and at low wages. There is a large difference in the unemployment rate for men and women

⁵ Shtetiweb.org and the Institute for Co-operation and Development (2015). Youth Employment Trends in Albania: What Does the Market Require ?. [online] Tirana: Friedrich-Ebert-Stiftung. Accessible: <http://cdinstitute.eu/ëb/ëp-content/uploads/2015/10/t-150427-text-al.pdf> [Accessed 28 Jul. 2017].

with basic education, where men and women account for 35% and women 23.6% respectively. This difference can also be related to the types of work that are required in the market that may be more suitable for women than for men. (For example, the fashion industry).

Among the young people who have a high school certificate, the most endangered to remain unemployed are the holders of general high school certificates, compared to those who have completed a vocational school thought to be more skilled in the labor market. Also for this level of education, men of every age group have the highest rate of unemployment in relation to women, except for the reason mentioned above in basic education, may be the informal jobs they do not include in the labor market.

The difficulty of finding the right job, forces young people to be less selective about the type of work and salary offered, accepting any alternative in the job market. It is very important to have a systematic analysis of the labor market to assess what are the required qualifications and how to adapt the demand and job supply to the market.

2.3 Youth Survey Related to Unemployment

In order to carry out a more productive and qualitative study, we have conducted an online survey of young people aged 18-29 in relation to their current job market situation. During the survey, 250 young people participated, objectively answering questions of the questionnaires. About 80% of young people were with a university degree, 15% with a high school certificate and 5% with a basic education. Of these, employed in the labor market were 28% versus the unemployed of 72%. The divergence between employed and unemployed young people is a serious problem for the society. The current employment status is also a big worry. Most of them were temporarily employed, part-time and contracted with a fixed term and not giving assurance on the term of placement in that job.

75% of young people were currently employed in the private sector, compared to those in the public sector of 12% and only 3% of young people had taken the initiative of entrepreneurship by being self-employed in the market. The unemployed young people, which constituted a considerable amount, thought that the most important (ordered on the importance) reasons why they are in this position were: lack of vacancies, lack of market demand, characteristics of specific jobs, lack of skills and qualifications required, etc. Their unemployment duration was mostly up to 3 years, but there were others who had a longer time as unemployed, which really badly affects their motivation for the job market. The ways that young people use to find a job site were: online notifications, newsletters, job offices, social networks, etc.

3. THE MAIN REASONS OF INCREASE OF YOUTH UNEMPLOYMENT IN ALBANIA

Youth unemployment limits opportunities for raising living standards, social welfare, and economic development. Albania is not the only country that suffers and fights unemployment. This macroeconomic phenomenon is present in every developed and developing country, but all the difficulty lies in controlling its rate so that it is not problematic and sensitive to the standard of living in the society. Some of the main reasons why the youth unemployment rate may be high are:



Economic transition. Changing the economy from the centralized to the free market led to a very negative effect on the growth of the unemployment rate. For a long time, the labor market had many fluctuations in youth unemployment in the country due to the transition of the economy.

High level of informality in the country. The long wait to find a good job can motivate many young people towards a temporary informal job. Many of them decide to engage in job activities without being declared in any firm that they are really working and can be considered as working force. This may come as a result of their age below the age of 18 due to the avoidance of tax obligations, or as a result of employers to avoid those obligations towards the government.

Low level of education. Numerous studies show that one of the main reasons for increasing the unemployment rate is the low level of education of young people. Young people without proper qualification for the labor market are more vulnerable to unemployment. Not always, young people manage to study market needs and appropriate education orientation to meet market demands.

Discrepancies in the skills gained from education against labor market demands. There is a lot of divergence between the skills required in the job market and those currently studying at the faculty. In many cases, young people are hired to work in something not related to their field of study. Some of them are over-qualified for the work they do, and some others do not have the right qualification for a specific job. This should be addressed in the modification and upgrade of the curriculum in education in order to alternate to a greater extent with the labor market practices during their studies. In this way, every student can feel more qualified on the academic and professional side of the job market, and have no difficulty in finding the job they want.

Corruption. Searching for a job in Albania is largely based on personal connections, as job-finding mechanisms are small and dysfunctional. Not always the relevant employment institutions can have as a priority the arrangement of skilled young people in the labor market vis-à-vis those who may have connections and address them in a more specific way.

Inappropriate economy orientation towards specific sectors. The phenomenon that has been observed in Albania is that although economic growth has been at satisfactory levels in recent years, still unemployment, especially in the youth age group remains problematic. During his study, economist Kota, 2009 argues that economic growth in Albania has a weak relationship with unemployment, which means that economic growth over the years has been inadequate to reduce unemployment. This may require the orientation of economic development towards the sectors that create more jobs such as tourism, as well as a balanced distribution of investments and public works on the territory of the country.

Lack of experience. The newly graduated students do not possess the experience required to enter the labor market and there are not always vacancies available without previous experience. Such criteria penalize newly graduated young people to enter the labor market and allow them to accept any other low-paid alternative and in most cases be over-qualified for the job they can take.

4. THE CONSEQUENCES OF HIGH YOUTH UNEMPLOYMENT IN THE SOCIAL LIFE AND ECONOMY OF THE COUNTRY

Youth unemployment brings major problems in the society. The government should try to promote good governance to bring youth employment, empowerment and socio-economic development, as they are the future of each country. By contrast, society will face many serious economic and social consequences. Many of these consequences can be:

Slow economic growth. The higher the unemployment rate for young people, the lower their individual incomes and the standard of living will be lower. At the same time, the higher the unemployment rate, the greater the gap between current and potential GDP.

Decrease of revenues in the government budget. As unemployment increases, it will also decrease the possibility of collecting revenues from collecting taxes.

Demotivating young people. In terms of unemployment, especially for a long time, the most negative effect is on the social aspect of young people, demotivating them for the labor market. This also causes their diplomas and professional skills to lose value if they are not used for a long time.

Increase of poverty. The more unemployed young people we have and for a long time in the market, can increase the level of poverty by lowering the standard of living.

Increase of criminality, reducing the dignity and mental health of young people.

Increasing immigration. According to an ILO study, the main factors affecting the emigration of young people in Albania are employment, economic status and level of education.⁶ Facing the labor market by young people, and their failure to do so, can bring their emigration to other more developed countries and have confidence in their future. An example is the graduate in medicine that immigrated to Germany⁷, for better employment and living, causing Albania to lose specialized staff in hospitals.

5. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS.

Youth unemployment is one of the key issues that a society can have, and therefore it is necessary to pay special attention to its treatment. The process of youth employment coincides with their transition from university to the labor market. The transition of the economy in Albania and its transition to a free market economy caused many fluctuations over the years to the unemployment rate, especially in the youth age group that holds the highest unemployment rate. Education has a very important connection with youth unemployment, where mostly young people with basic education, high school certificate holders and university graduates but not in the right specialization according to market demand has brought a very high rate unemployment where the most vulnerable are males versus females. Based on the online youth survey, the divergence of employees compared to those at work was emphasized. The latter mainly owned a temporary job by not giving them security for the future. The general reasons why young people in Albania can be unemployed are: economic transition, high level of informality in the

6 Youth employment and migration brief Country:Albania

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



country, low level of education, inconsistency of education skills against labor market demands, presence of corruption, inadequate orientation of the economy towards specific sectors, and lack of experience. The consequences of high youth unemployment are very vulnerable in society, both socially and economically. High unemployment leads to slow economic growth, decrease of income in the state budget, youth demotivation, increase of poverty, increasing criminality, increasing emigration, etc.

“We can not build the future for our youth, but we can train them for the future “

<Franklin Delano Roosevelt>

Integrating young people into the labor market should be one of the most important issues posed for solutions to society. They should be at the center of attention to government policies, educational curricula, relevant labor institutions, private entities, etc. The government should play a key institutional role by allowing the development of the socio-economic and political field, including infrastructure delivery and making the investment climate acceptable. A more productive and qualitative correlation between higher education curricula and labor market trends needs to be achieved. To undertake structural reforms of higher education to focus the third level of education towards specialization of market interest. Modification of educational curricula, and their combination with theoretical treatment and practical experience, to enable young people to work in the labor market. On the other hand, the private sector (companies) should invest in the training and qualification of new employees to create skilled and qualitative workforce. Developing strategies, government policies, minimizing the informal economy, adopting education and training of students with market needs, will facilitate more the student transition from university to the labor market.

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The impact of Internet Protocol Television and comparison with the conventional TV

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ABSTRACT

The world of TV and video has changed so much in the last decade that nobody now doubts the infinite business possibilities that this sector offers. IPTV (Internet Protocol Television) is one of the options presented for this sector and its importance has been recognized already by the main telecommunications companies and other agents of the Media & Entertainment market. Comparing to the traditional television, IPTV is being transmitted through the internet networks technologies. Generally, IPTV will become a breakthrough point for the strategic transformation of telecom operators and meet their innovation demands. In this paper we have emphasised the development of the IPTV and we have also compared it with the conventional TV infrastructure. Furthermore the regulatory framework of the TV broadcast and IPTV in Europe is analysed

KEYWORDS:

unicast, multicast, middleware, server, VoD



INTRODUCTION

IPTV (Internet Protocol Television) is a technology where the digital television services are delivered to the television sets or the smart phones through a broadband connection, rather than being delivered through the conventional cable or broadcasts set-up. In few words, IPTV is nothing more than the delivery of video and audio over an IP network. These IP networks can be managed or not. If the TV signal is analog, video and audio signals are initially converted to digital. The information is further enhanced to digital video and voice signals, so they can be routed through a data network or internet. Devices or view adapters convert the signal to a form that can be controlled and viewed by users.

An user can watch internet TV on computer screen, a television screen (with a set-top box installed) or a mobile device like a cell phone or an iPad. The video streams are (translated/put into secret code) as a series of internet rules of conduct packets and those packets travel through the public internet which can be received by any user by having a settop box (STB) and a subscription for the service. IPTV is a technology that offers money/money income creating opportunities for the telecom and service providers. Verizon was the first Telco to offer IPTV as it launched service in Keller Texas in Sept. 2005.

There are a lots of IPTV providers as of now. The figure below shows a very high level view of an IPTV system.

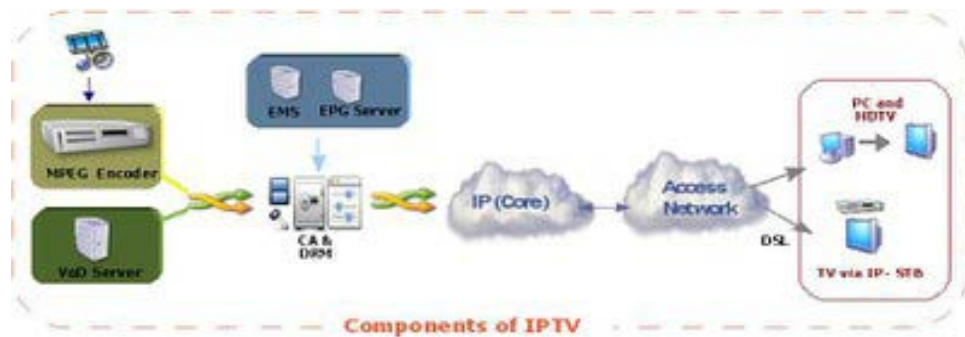


Fig. 1 Components of IPTV

The content like Live TV channels, picked up from various sources like the satellite, are decrypted. Then it is compressed into a digital format like MPEG-2 or MPEG-4. Multiple programs or channels or sources like this are then packed into a single transport stream (MPEG2-TS) and packetized into IP packets to be multicast over the IP network.

VoD Server is the place where Video on Demands are stored, after encrypting them with content protection mechanisms. The VoD servers are either centralized or geographically distributed.

The IP packets reach the home through a high-speed Internet access like DSL, where a splitter is used to separate out the TV from regular broadband.

METHODS

The *middleware system* is the most important element of the IPTV. It connects IPTV services with IP STB. The IPTV Middleware server supports various types of software and client hardware. ZZXV10 middleware is a service management platform for IPTV networks. It provides user management, network management, VAS management and EPG functions. The middleware system interacts with user equipment and software and other elements of the IPTV system such as the billing system, management system, and so on.

CAS (Conditional Access System) crypton content that will be transmitted to unprotected channels. Content can only be reproduced by authorized users. The CAS device and the Middleware system share the same database to make sure the user manages to be authenticated.

BSS (BSS) is the system where the user data is thrown. This system receives data from the sales department and registers it on its server

EMS (Elements Management System) is the network management system. The main areas where this system operates are; error resolution, channeling, rapport extraction, performance and security.

There are two ways of providing IPTV: *unicast and multicast*.

UNICAST: Unicast transmission is used to describe a stream connection from the server to a single client. Unicast service is relatively easy to implement.

MULTICAST: Multicast transmission is the one-to-one multi-media distribution proxy that sends a single message or an information stream that contains an address designed to allow multiple network nodes to receive and retransmit the same signal to multiple recipients.

ANALYSIS

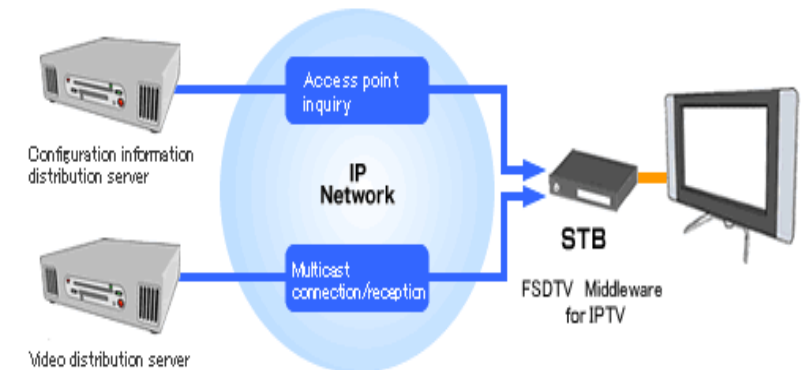


Fig.2

We planned the IPTV integration in an existing network. We supposed that were received digital signals from Satellites and ground too. The main server offers the possibility to extract the desired video/audio program and had many properties: play/

resume, stop, Reverse, Jump, ect. VOD's standards included IVOD,TVOD,SVOD and FVOD.

Once traffic comes out of the various multicast traffic encoders, it goes to this server. This server configures multicast groups that are different for each TV channel. Requests for different channels go to this server and as it sees in its database whether or not that multicast group returns an answer. If so, he uploads the stream to the IP network to go to the subscriber and if not he sends a negative response.

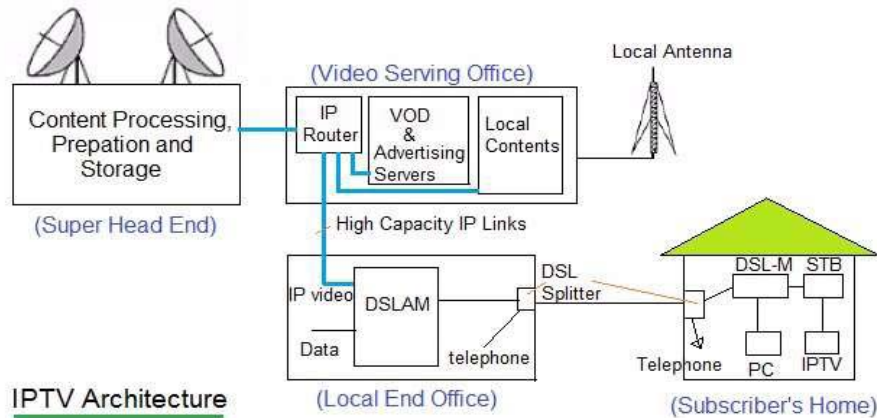


Fig. 3 IPTV Architecture

For providing IPTV services, the network should be prepared to support some specific protocols for processing the signal performance. The main reason for using these protocols is the increasing demand for bandwidth. The need for generation ever wider, as the essential prerequisite for meeting the growing demand for internet with high speed, VoD, IPTV, VoIP and multimedia services, has oriented the providers of services, ex TiK, to implement the IPTV platform. Existing infrastructure network of TiK, is based on IP / MPLS. The end of the network TiK is dominated by copper cables being a limiting factor in achieving the objectives wide service delivery. Therefore, it is necessary to use them intelligent compression techniques for compressing video signals. IPTV platform on TiK uses MPEG (moving picture expert groups) techniques, and concretely, for MPEG-2 TS (Transport Stream) and MPEG-4 are used for video compression.

CONCLUSION

IPTV technology has many advantages over other digital technologies or traditional TV broadcasting.

- 1 Integration as the one of the advantages of IPTV is the integration of services in the package. IPTV is an example of a little integrated with the broadband Internet connection and VoIP. All these services can be transmitted directly to the client. Therefore, the costs for the system can be reduced and the customer can reach agreement with the service provider by getting more services, making the service more convenient.

- 2 Switched IP Technology: Cable and satellite TV generally send all the telegraph signals at the same time and then the viewer chooses which signal to see in his wristwatch. Therefore, a large amount of unnecessary bandwidth is used for this process. Usually IPTV uses Switched technology because the whole process is more efficient with this technology. In this case all TV records are kept in a central location and only channels selected by the client are transmitted. Since bandwidth is no longer a problem, this technology offers the ability to add more data and more bandwidth so that the distribution service of this best quality.
- 3 Interactivity: Compared to cable, satellite and TV broadcasting systems it is very easy to operate with IPTV interactivity. Because the IPTV system distributes its services over the Internet directly to the client's home, it is very easy to move data from the home entertainment company and from the client to the TV company. There are several ways for better interaction between the customer and the company than the TV using the telescope. With interactive TVs, viewers can buy or order productions directly from their screen. Viewers can also ask for more information on a program they want to see.
- 4 Home Network: An internet connection that allows users to play files stored as digital, video, and music files. Many computer monitors have TV tuners, so viewers can watch TV programs on computer monitors. So if the client has a TV tuner on a computer monitor it means that there is another TV in the house.
- 5 Video on Demand (VOD): The IPTV system uses VOD which is an interactive technology. Allows users to search TV programs from television. For example, users can control programming and choose who they want to see.

Services of Owner-Occupied Dwellings – Benchmark Estimates in Albania

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ABSTRACT

Imputed rent is one of the largest imputations while compiling national accounts and without it, the difference between rental and owner-occupied dwellings would impact GDP. This is also relevant for the comparison of the level of GDP over time and across countries, which would otherwise be complicated by the differing levels of dwelling ownership.

In year 2001, INSTAT conducted the Census of Population and Dwellings and for several years' services of owner-occupied dwellings were estimated based on some fixed ratios. The next Census, carried out in October 2011, provided more detailed information since it collected data on dwelling stocks, year of construction, etc. In this way, it was important to use the recent results for making a new benchmark estimate.

Starting with the reasons why the standard procedure of "Stratification Approach" recommended in the System of National Accounts (SNA) cannot be applied in Albania, this paper explains the methodology of the next best alternative for estimating imputed rent called "User Costs-Approach" and its application for the first time in Albania. This article gives also answer to the questions why owner-occupied dwellings are treated as an economic activity even though there is no market transaction and what happens if they are not.

The present methodological paper is also an outcome of INSTAT. It has been prepared by me while estimating this component under IPA 2011 MB Statistical Programme: "National Accounts Methodology".

KEYWORDS:

imputed rent, user cost approach, benchmark estimates, owner-occupied dwellings

INTRODUCTION

In Albania, as in other countries in transition, dwellings were very quickly included in the privatization process and rapidly bought by individuals becoming in this way private property. In the year 2001, INSTAT conducted the Census of Population and Dwellings and imputed rent were estimated based on some ratios determined in year the 2003 by using especially this data source. The next Census of Population and Dwellings, carried out in October 2011, provided more detailed information since it collected data on dwelling stocks in physical units, year of construction, etc. In this way, it was important to use the results of the recent Census as the most important data source on dwelling stock and estimation of dwelling services as well, for making a new benchmark estimate.

METHODOLOGICAL FRAMEWORK

The so-called standard Stratification Approach for estimating rent of owner occupiers cannot be applied in Albania because of the following fundamental reasons:

- Rented dwellings constitute **less than 25%** of all the dwellings in the country;
- Rented dwellings are **not distributed** over all parts of the country, which means that rental markets are small and limited to Tirana or principal urban areas;
- The tenants are usually foreigners, government or other employees paying rents that **cannot be regarded as representative**.

Under these certain and specific circumstances, the COMMISSION REGULATION (EC) No 1722/2005 recommends to apply an alternative approach called User Costs-Approach (UCA), where the output is valued by the total production costs incurred, such as:

Rental OOD = Intermediate Consumption (P2) + Other Taxes on Production (D29) + Consumption of Fixed Capital (K1) + Nominal Operating Surplus (B2)

For its application is followed a specific guideline: "User Cost for Rents of Dwellings in the West Balkan Countries", OECD and Statistics Norway, February 2010.

Proper implementation of User Cost Approach requires a large set of different data sources useful for each component that has to be integrated in the calculations. Where there were imputations rather than measurements, these were generally based on standardized assumptions to ensure comparability of results with other countries.

SOURCES

Expenditure on maintenance and repair of owner-occupied dwellings: Household budget survey 2009 (HBS). The questionnaire includes a set of questions related to the dwelling stock, expenditures on routine maintenance and repair of main and secondary dwellings, etc that have been used as one of the main data sources for the estimation of intermediate consumption. In HBS, two COICOP classes are taken: (i) Class: 04.3.1 - Materials for the maintenance and repair of the dwelling; (ii) Class: 04.3.1 Services for the maintenance and repair of the dwelling. The following basic



information is classified according to twelve (12) prefectures:

- Total ordinary maintenance and repair of main dwellings,
- Total ordinary maintenance and repair of secondary dwellings.

The last HBS data were for year 2009 and revised with the new weights of population from Census of Population and Dwellings 2011. The total costs for maintenance and repair of owner-occupied dwellings for year 2011 are obtained by extrapolating the estimation of year 2009 with the value index of intermediate consumption 2011/2009 of small enterprises that operate in construction activities. The result of this item in total output of housing services was analyzed considering the fact that these expenditures may considerably vary by regions. In the neighboring countries this share fluctuates around 10-15 percent.

Net insurance premiums paid by owners: Albanian Financial Supervisory Authority (Annual Report). The data for gross insurance premiums paid on dwellings and claims paid to owners are taken from AMF, in order to calculate insurance services as part of total intermediate consumption, according to the method set up by the OECD. The current calculations include premium supplements, which are the investment income on technical reserves (the share of premium supplements to gross premium earned is obtained from the output estimates from production approach).

The basis of data were new INSTAT calculations of insurance output, in which premium supplements were included, but reinsurance output was excluded specifically for imputed rent calculations. Since there were no separate data on house itself and on goods, the share was applied (proportion to the values of house and value of house goods). The imports of insurance services for dwelling are not phenomena in Albania.

FISIM: Intermediate consumption includes Financial Intermediation Services Indirectly Measured (FISIM) in accordance with Council Regulation (EC) No 448/98 (1). It was based on new FISIM calculations implemented by INSTAT. This includes intermediate consumption of households in their capacity as owners of dwellings in relation to dwelling loans.

UCA	Estimating expenditure on owner - occupied dwelling services	2011
Item No.	Description of item	
UC [01]	Expenditure on maintenance and repair of [000]	4,520
UC [02]	Gross insurance premiums paid by [000]	1,134
UC [03]	Insurance claims paid to owners (minus)	231
	Premium Supplements	78
	FISIM on mortgages	4,283
UC [04]	Net insurance premiums paid by owners. (UC02) - (UC03)+ Premium Supplements + FISIM	5,266
UC [05]	Total intermediate consumption. (UC01)+(UC04)	9,785

Other taxes on production: Ministry of Finance (MoF). Data on the value of property tax by type of tax and classified by prefectures are available separately since this category consists of two type taxes: taxes paid by owners on the value of owner occupied dwelling (tax levied on dwelling) and taxes paid by owners on the value of owner occupied dwelling associated land (tax levied on land). Moreover, data are provided on subsidies for owner occupiers (e.g., when government assistance regarding mortgage payments, etc) which are considered as negative taxes in UC (06) heading.

METHODOLOGICAL ADJUSTMENTS

The analytical process during theoretical and practical application of this method helped to highlight the strengths of the available information and on the other hand stressed some complex problems. In order to continue the estimations, it was necessary to make the following assumptions, with the approval and recommendations of experts too:

1. **The average service life of dwellings (L) – 70 years**, was used as an average of the age of demolished dwellings both for urban and rural areas. For average service life for dwelling (L) experts' assessment and data from neighboring countries were considered. In European countries, service life varies between 50-90 years. The number of years that dwellings of different types, in different areas are expected to remain in use from the year of construction until they are demolished needs to be determined by Census. Since it effectively determines the depreciation rate of 1.6 / (average service life), it must be considered as an important assumption.
2. The recommended **(D)-“declining balance factor” (1.6)** was used in the calculation consumption of fixed capital. “Declining balance rate” is usually assumed to lie between 1 and 3 but for dwellings in Europe, a value of 1.6 seems to provide a plausible pattern of consumption of fixed capital (CFC).
3. Net operating surplus is imputed using the opportunity cost principle; i.e., the net operating surplus is imputed on the basis of what owner occupiers could have earned on alternative investments is estimated by applying the assumed nominal rate of return to the value of the net stock of dwellings and associated land. The recommended **standard annual rate of return of 2.5 per cent** is used to estimate the net operating surplus. This kind of assumption is done especially for countries that have financial markets that are less developed, not very well established and not widely used. Thus, the estimated rate within the range of 1.5-2.5 is a safe assumption.
4. Since it was agreed to take all the data by prefecture level (also detailed in urban and rural areas), the main difficulty in applying the User Cost method so far has to do with prices of new dwellings and existing ones, and in particular with those of land used exclusively for construction. The reason for this seems to be closely related to the diversity that our country represents. This breakdown is important because dwelling prices depend particularly on location. The market prices of

dwellings for 2011 for rural and urban area by prefecture and type of dwelling are adjusted by:

- a. **Quality adjustments factors** of basic amenities such as: heating system, inside water supply system, toilette, etc based on the available data from 2011 Population Census.
- b. **Using some factor prices** to distinguish urban/rural area, houses/apartments. The price/value of land underlying dwellings was excluded from the value of capital stocks. The price of land was defined as a fixed share of the value of the dwellings located on it by prefectures and type of dwellings based on expert assessment, where it was assumed that land values represent about one-third of the value of the dwelling itself.

Table 2: Factor price on dwelling and land

Prefectures	Factor price
Urban	
House	1.00
Apartment	0.90
Rural	0.50
Land	0.30

Consumption of fixed capital of owner occupied dwellings: The commonest way for estimating the net stock of a capital asset is the perpetual inventory method (PIM). Countries that estimate stock of dwelling by using PIM have already estimates of CFC, others that don't do so (case of Albania) uses alternative method. To calculate consumption of fixed capital, the estimated value of the stock of owner occupied dwellings excludes the value of the land on which the dwellings are situated since there is no consumption of fixed capital for land. It was assumed that the construction costs (excluding the value of the land) of similar dwellings across Albania are likely to be the same.

Information on the dwelling stock for twelve prefectures in Albania (urban/rural), by dividing urban area in two types of dwellings (houses and apartments) has been compiled from Census data. Since Census was conducted in October 2011, we can assume that it produces the mid-year stocks of dwellings, thus no growth adjustments are made to reported data.

Number of owner-occupied dwellings in the middle of current year is based on Census 2011 data and actually there are included conventional dwellings according tenure status of household:

- Owner with legal act of ownership, no mortgage or loan,
- Owner with legal act of ownership, paying mortgage or loan,
- In process of acquiring legal act,
- Occupant (free of rent).

Since the current stock of dwellings looked a little underestimated, it was proposed to split up the part of non-response according area and type of dwelling. To make the

new number of dwelling the floor areas correspond, shares are used.

Furthermore, with the information available it was possible to calculate the gross capital stock of dwellings in Albania, including the value of land, at the beginning of 2011 in 2011 average prices by multiplying each type of dwelling with its estimated market price in 2011. In order to calculate the net capital stock of dwellings excluding land in 2011, at 2011 average prices, it is necessary to remove cumulative depreciation from gross capital stock. Total depreciation for any given dwelling will differ depending on its age. Calculations for (A)- average age of dwelling are based on Census 2011 data, stratified by the year of construction, prefecture, type of dwellings (detached house, semi-detached house, row (or terraced) house, apartment building).

The net capital stock of all dwellings, excluding land, in Albania at the end of 2011 is estimated as the value of all net capital stock of dwelling excluding land built in 2011 (GFCF) plus the value of the net capital stock excluding land at the beginning of 2011 minus any depreciation that occurs during 2011.

SUMMARY OF MAJOR FINDINGS

Table 3: Expenditure on owner occupied dwellings services by the User Cost Approach

Year 2011			
Item No.	Item description	Value in 000/lekë	Structure in %
UC (05)	IC	9,785,474	0.13
UC (08)	Taxes	3,072,051	0.04
UC (09)	CFC	24,576,405	0.32
UC (14)	NOS	38,400,633	0.51
UC (15) = (UC 05) + (UC 08) + (UC 09) + (UC 14)	Expenditure on owner-occupied dwelling services	75,834,563	1

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The share of imputed rent in GDP for the benchmark estimate for year 2011 is 5.8%.

Using User Cost Approach (UCA) contributes to the compliance of Albanian GDP methodology with international standards and improves the reliability of our figures for international comparisons.

I recommend for the future to improve available data sources and to develop additional data sources for more reliable estimates.

I recommend further investigation on construction prices and land shares.

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TECHNICAL DEVELOPMENT CHALLENGES IN THE MARITIME TRANSPORT INDUSTRY

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ABSTRACT

The challenges brought by the Fourth Industrial Revolution are at the center of development and organization in managing the value chain process involved in the manufacturing industry, which is fundamentally changing the concept of the enterprise, as cyber-production systems are destroying the boundaries between the real and the virtual world.

In Albania, the concept of Industry 4.0, or the fourth industrial revolution is mostly unknown or known very little, though in ever-expanding global economies and more specifically in the new generation of entrepreneurs is becoming a necessity.

The Adriatic and Ionian societies and economies are also affected by this transformation, which affects production, relationships between companies and the development of human capital. To face this, focusing on shipyard and nautical logistic supply chain, the search intends to develop an Industry 4.0 model to increase the competitiveness of shipyards.

The results are based on Adriatic and Ionian region companies, human capital developers and public administrations. The companies involved share the same challenges for the shipping sector as they face the same transformations and their manufacturing systems must be more integrated.

KEY WORDS:

Fourth Industrial Revolution, Marine Industry, nautical logistic supply chain, Cyber Production Systems.

INTRODUCTION

Since 2015 Albania government has started to include research and innovation policies as part of National Economic Reform Program- NERP, as it was reflected in the latest Decision of Council of Ministers Nr. 52 dated 27.01.2016, On the approval of National Economic Reform Program –NERP 2016-2018 (Council of Ministers of Albania, 2016).

Its objective is to promote and support the social inclusion and sustainable employment program for young people by enhancing their active involvement both in the ICT entrepreneurship, as well as in creative, innovative and competitive actions through capacity building, partnership development and growth of entrepreneurial activity, start-ups and SMEs. The Innovation HUB intends to change the actual situation by creating an incubator with the goal to enable the innovation community to develop market accepted ideas that have scalable commercial potential by fostering collaboration among the SMEs and ICT innovative people and by introducing business and financing expertise to through training, coaching (ITU, 2018), (OECD, 2004).

The digitalization of the economy is gradually being developed (UN, 2006). Major advances have been the establishment of online platforms for business registration, licensing, tax filing, e-banking, e-commerce, e-signature, mobile payment of bills, and issuance of civil registry-related certificates. Broadband coverage and users have increased (DPT, 2019) (AKEP, 2018).

The capacity for technological absorption, research, development and innovation remains low. The Education Ministry's budget for research and development remains very modest. Some State aid was granted in 2016 for research and innovation. Substantial efforts to strengthen the link between business and academic and research institutions are needed. Upgrading the economy from low-technology, labor-intensive and low-cost production areas require more research and innovation. This is particularly the case in sectors like agriculture & food, energy, and sustainable tourism which are crucial for Albania's economic development. Statistical data on research and development needs to be improved (Council of Ministers of Albania, 2016).

A growth in labor productivity can be achieved if Albanian economies increase the level of technology use and invest more in human resources quality. Low labor cost and informality have turned into a boomerang for the Albanian economy. Many companies pay low wages and this is the reason why they don't invest in technology, which would increase productivity and reduce labor costs.

METHODOLOGY

In the methodological aspect, it is considered that these new advanced technologies are mostly unknown in the economic literature, especially in the Albanian business literature. Consequently, the work has started with a theoretical presentation of concepts and then continued with the definition of the possibility of using advanced technologies related to Industry 4.0 (Schwab, 2019).

The study is accompanied and completed by a field survey of Albanian companies that are judged to be able to use these technologies, Advanced Manufacturing Solutions, Augmented Reality, Cloud, Additive Manufacturing, Big Data and Analytics, and Cyber-security. This was accomplished through specific visits to these companies and the evaluation was done through a methodology designed by the Polytechnic University of Bari. The main goal of this paper is to make technological development trends known to Albanian business and to evaluate the potential of their use in the medium to the long term.

ACTUAL SITUATION IN ALBANIA

The challenges of Industry 4.0 for manufacturing industry include investment, skills, technology and security. Manufacturing service plant is often a long-term investment. Production facilities are not easily or cheaply replaced and manufacturers seek to keep factories and machines operating for as long as economically and technically possible to maximize return on investment – typically 20 years in some cases.

Building Industry 4.0 into a new plant adds proportionally little to costs and can show a swift return on the investment. Adding Industry 4.0 capabilities to an existing production facility could be a large investment which needs careful analysis to determine whether it will give a worthwhile pay-back over the remaining operational life of the plant. The challenges of adding Industry 4.0 to an existing plant should not be underestimated (Elaïess, 2018). Much will depend on the level of automation and network infrastructure that already exists.

Industry 4.0 and smart manufacturing service depends entirely on the data exchange between the plant and the business level systems for production analysis and preventative maintenance and the like. Many manufacturing service plants that are operative for many years and in the past did not focus too much on the requirements of automation and data gathering. What is encouraging however is that the technology to deliver against the requirements of Industry 4.0 exists today. Also a planning and a structured approach, can be applied to any manufacturing field (Porter, 2001).

Introducing Industry 4.0 into either new or existing plant may require new skills from the workforce that merge current manufacturing and IT specialists. Increasing levels of automation and autonomous decision-making that are at the heart of Industry 4.0 will reduce the need for some existing production skills. However, specifying, installing and maintaining the Industry 4.0 hardware and software will require a different skill-set with a much higher requirement for IT expertise. Manufacturers are in need to recruit and/or train appropriate personnel and/or find suitable outsourced suppliers. With both investment and training, manufacturers must look to the future and predict what new technologies may come to market in the years ahead and how these can be integrated into Industry 4.0 systems being installed today (PWC, 2016).

Cyber-physical systems are integrations of computation, networking and physical processes. In other words, the convergences of business systems with the physical

plant control systems and machines. It is also about measuring actual performance against an “ideal model” with a range of new initiatives. Ensuring sufficient performance is also a key requirement which early adopters of Industry 4.0 need to consider. Manufacturers need to consider the current levels of manufacturing plant automation and network architecture that exists within the plant today. Adopting the principles of Industry 4.0 and smart manufacturing requires high levels of automation and network infrastructure so the road to digitalization can require high levels of investment.

‘Vertical’ networking of production systems, logistics, procurement and other industrial and business processes – extending, perhaps, into marketing and after-sales support.

‘Horizontal’ networking of systems, linking multiple participants in the production process (both individuals and organizations) including designers, manufacturers, suppliers, warehousing, logistics, customers – and ultimately, perhaps, consumers.

Integrated engineering in which all the horizontally linked participants in the production process share common data, facilitating development of new designs, production systems and business models.

Acceleration of new technology adoption throughout the design, production and supply process.

The second key component of Industry 4.0 alongside the IIoT is the development of cyber-physical systems. These bring together mechanical and software base analytical elements to create what was formerly called a ‘mechatronic’ system. However, cyber-physical systems go way beyond the coming together of mechanical and control system components as previously defined as a mechatronic system (ISO, 2018).

Industrial networks have been compromised by the sort of threats that have seen high-profile breaches of commercial systems – threats such as unauthorized access and operation. These can come either from within an organization or from an external source and can be either malicious or accidental.

The problems of hacking from within a company are as much a personnel security issue as a general network security issue. Security considerations need to consider both deliberate acts of sabotage and the possibility of personnel making a mistake. One benefit of Industry 4.0 that is already being exploited is the ability to monitor and control production plants and other equipment from a remote location. However, current monitoring processes typically use standard web browsers, which open the system up to the possibility of abuse of the network by third parties. The risks of poor security networks extend beyond purely economic ones.

Hackers taking control of the management systems for industrial plants could cause significant damage while themselves being safely located on the far side of the world.

However, Albanian government has to introduce policy initiatives to expand the economy’s manufacturing capabilities. The initiative includes creating a positive and welcoming environment for technological evolution.

ANALYSIS

Fourth industrial revolution' challenges organization and management of the manufacturing industry's entire value chain as well as Adriatic and Ionian area societies and economies, in particular Blue Economy, the transport industry and nautical logistic supply chain.

Main objective is to design a shared strategy to innovate companies approach to training through a Smart Learning Model enhancing shipyard competitiveness in Albania.

Specific objectives of a big development project might be:

- definition of a Technological Map of the Transport industry and Nautical Logistic supply chain through inclusive road mapping and foresight activity on technology and related competences;
- designing of a knowledge, competence and skills training/learning hub involving Universities and training organization and companies;

Implementation and validation of Smart Learning Model and Strategy through local pilot actions, encompassing effective industrial education and training for innovation and enhancing the University-Industry cooperation.

This analysis has brought to further observations for the results and discussion in following section.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Fostering the East-West Axis interregional joint collaboration and activities aims on sharing and designing strategies, models and tools to facilitate a smart industrial shift towards Industry 4.0 and enhance employability within the shipbuilding industry and related service sectors as logistics at regional level.

Development in the covered economic areas, leads to mutual policy learning on industrial strategies and the possibilities offered by a blueprint process, especially for PPs, tackling the weakness in industrial transformation governance and policy at transnational countries level with interrelated growth trajectories.

Innovative Education and Training Model and operational strategy and diagnostic tools, should be replicable for the growth potential fields of the Adriatic and Ionian area.

Implementing tailored actions for raising competences/skills (up-skilling and re-skilling of professional profiles), in the form of activities will be implemented through Adriatic and Ionian area, fostering the uptake and diffusion of green and smart innovation and circular knowledge management.

Introducing Industry 4.0 into either new or existing plants and facilities may require new skills from the workforce that merge current manufacturing and IT specialties. Increasing levels of automation and autonomous decision-making that are at the heart of Industry 4.0 will reduce the need for some existing production skills.

The benefits which Industry 4.0 can deliver for industry – and thus ultimately for consumers – include lower costs, faster production, better resource efficiency, higher

quality control and greater product and component traceability. The two key enabling technologies that will allow Industry 4.0 to deliver these benefits are the Industrial Internet of Things (IIoT) and cyber-physical systems.

The higher education community will have to start an imperative conversation and debate about how to reshape the education system into an adaptable, flexible and relevant social environment, an environment that allows the entire community to pursue lifelong learning and gain the necessary skills and competencies to survive and contribute to a progressive society across different industrial revolutions.

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Management and Philosophy in Albanian higher education

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ABSTRACT

The philosophy of education is a branch of philosophy concerned with education; it is a basis of any significant contribution to educational policy and practice. Moreover, due to its links with globalized capitalism, it provides ideas and ideals that must be included in any viable educational reform. According to social justice theory, every member of society must be able to obtain a certain minimum level of education regardless of any discriminatory criteria. While the concept of social justice is usually regarded simply as equality, its application is, in fact, one of the major problems in the contemporary theory of education. Any educational system must adopt an inclusive approach and address a range of social issues. The contemporary educational system is directly linked to the market: it enters the market of educational services through its educational programs and the labor market through its graduates. As a subject of market relations, any educational reform must include innovative management and strategic marketing. Furthermore, the educational institutions must be at peak efficiency regarding their competition; for that reason, strategic plans and external governing councils are a necessity.

KEY WORDS:

Pedagogical anthropology, Education, Philosophy, Management, Paradigm, Standards.

INTRODUCTION

The analysis of the philosophy of education is a crucial theoretic basis for the research of higher education in Albania. According to W. Harris (2007), the main reasons for the formation of the philosophy of education, as a special research field of philosophy, are the isolation of education in the autonomous sphere of society, and the diversification of educational institutions. Moreover, philosophy of education is also associated with a contradiction in the interpretation of goals and ideals of education, which is recorded as the multiparadigmality of pedagogical knowledge and the new requirements for the education system associated with the transition from an industrial to a post-industrial informational society (Harris W. , 2007). The basic delimitation within the philosophy of education passes between empirical-analytical and humanitarian directions, and reflects alternative approaches to the subject of education, which is an individual. Indeed, the empirical-analytical tradition in the philosophy of education uses the concepts and methods of behaviorism, Gestalt psychology, psychoanalysis, as well as the cybernetic approach to the human psyche.

The actual analytical philosophy of education emerged in the early 1960s in the USA and England (Harris W. , 2007). The representatives of this scientific flow are I. Scheffler, R. S. Piter, E. Macmillan, D. Soltis, and others (Harris W. , 2007). The main goal of the philosophy of education is seen in the logical analysis of language used in the practice of education. The content of education is subjected to the criteria of scientific verification. At the same time, the analytical philosophy of education criticizes ideological indoctrination inherent in the systems of Anglo-American education, and shows that the modern school, reformed in accordance with D. Dewey's philosophy, inspires students with ideological doctrines without analyzing the correctness of their initial premises, and is irrelevant to the requirements of modern society (Harris W. , 2007). In the late 1970s, analytical philosophy of education implemented transition from the principles of logical positivism to the principles of the philosophy of linguistic analysis, to the analysis of everyday language, primarily to the philosophy of the late L. Wittgenstein, emphasizing the role of language games and semantics in education.

John Dewey (2004), one of the pioneers in the field, defined philosophy of education as the general theory of education. There are two major tasks of philosophy that are directly linked to their educational equivalents: criticizing existing values; and interpreting the results of special sciences in regard to their future social impact. For that reason, the reconstruction of philosophy, education, and social ideas alike are mutually inclusive: the educational reforms happen due to major social changes, which are, in turn, connected to the development of science, industry, and democracy. The contemporary philosophy of education is, however, is not only a philosophical outlook regarding education. Instead of being an elaboration of "purely philosophical themes," it is considered a process in which "educational practitioners or reformers develop thoughtfully, and to varying degrees, systematic or coherent justifications for their educational practices and commitments" (Burbules, 2000). Therefore, it is extremely important for educational policy and practice alike.



In the late 1960s, a new direction was formed in the philosophy of education, which is a critical-rationalist one. Accepting the basic principles of K. Popper's critical rationalism, this trend seeks to build experimental and scientific pedagogy distanced from values and metaphysics, criticizes naive empiricism, emphasizing that the experience is not self-sufficient, loaded with theoretical content, and its range is determined by theoretical positions (Rowbottom, 2011). Representatives of this direction in the analytical philosophy of education are V. Brzezinka, G. Zdarzil, F. Kube, and R. Lochner (Rowbottom, 2011). Critical-rationalist philosophy of education is characterized by the interpretation of pedagogy as a practical sociology and a turn to social pedagogy. In addition, it includes the opposition of social engineering to holism. In this connection, there is also the criticism of the long-term planning, design in pedagogical practice, the criticism of the totalitarian approach in education, pedagogical thinking and upholding the principles of open society and democratic institutions in management of the education system. Pedagogical theory and practice in critical-rationalist philosophy are focused on the upbringing of critical-checking intelligence, and on the formation of critical abilities of a person. This direction in 1970-80s, having entered into a controversy with the representatives of humanitarian directions in the philosophy of education, modified a number of its provisions, in particular, perceiving some ideas of pedagogical anthropology. Thus, the analytical philosophy of education focuses on a critical analysis of the language of pedagogy, on the identification of the structure of pedagogical knowledge, on the status of theoretical knowledge in pedagogy, the relationship of value propositions and statements about facts, and on the interpretation of the relationship between descriptive and normative pedagogy. In this tradition, philosophy of education is identified with metatheory, or with a critical-rationalist analysis of growth of pedagogical knowledge from posing problems to the promotion of theories.

The origins of humanitarian trends in the philosophy of education are the systems of German idealism of the early 19th century, including F. Schleiermacher and Hegel, the philosophy of life from the works of such philosophers as V. Dilthey and G. Simmel, existentialism and many variants of philosophical anthropology. For humanitarian directions, philosophy of education is characterized by emphasizing the specificity of the methods of pedagogy as a science of the spirit, and its humanitarian orientation. Moreover, humanitarian directions in the philosophy of education are focused on the interpretation of education as a system of meaningful actions and interactions of participants in the pedagogical relationship, and highlighting the method of understanding, interpreting the meaning of the actions of participants in the educational process (O'Connor, 2017). Within the humanitarian philosophy of education, there are several directions.

The first one is the hermeneutic historicism of H. Nol, in the center of which lies the concepts of everyday life and world of a person (O'Connor, 2017). This direction defends the idea that in any life moment and action, there is an educational moment. Additionally, the problem of the philosophy of education is interpreted as a comprehension of all spiritual objectification of a person forming certain integrity, as an analysis of specifics of the pedagogical relationship, which is the initial cell of

pedagogical action imbued with responsibility and love. The second direction is the structural hermeneutics of E. Veniger and V. Flitner, which, based on the autonomy of education in modern society, considers pedagogy and philosophy of education as a critical interpretation of pedagogical actions and relationships within the pedagogical process (O'Connor, 2017). It also analyzes the structure of the theory, revealing its different levels, emphasizes the significance of hermeneutics in pedagogical theory and practice, it also puts forward the program of the autonomy of education.

The third one is pedagogical anthropology, which is presented in various versions: from naturalistic oriented to phenomenological and others (O'Connor, 2017). For naturalistic oriented, pedagogical anthropology is a private integrative science, which combines the achievements and methods of all human sciences, such as theories of evolution, ecology, ethology, psychology, and others. Phenomenological options see in pedagogical anthropology a certain way of consideration, an approach, a methodology, which does not end in the pedagogical theory. Using the method of phenomenological reduction on the material of autobiographical and biographical sources, the authors seek to construct anthropology of childhood and youth. In recent years, the core of pedagogical anthropology has become the "image of a human," which is built on the basis of human biological insufficiency, its openness, and formation in the process of upbringing and education. Such image of a human has an understanding of people as integrity, where the spiritual-spiritual is inextricably linked with the physical. The difference in the concepts of pedagogical anthropology is largely due to the orientation toward a certain kind of conception of philosophical anthropology of such representatives as A. Gehlen, M. Scheler, E. Mounier, M. Heidegger, G. Marcel, and others.

The existential-dialogic philosophy of education is represented primarily by M. Buber, who has stated the meaning and grounds for pedagogical relationship in interpersonal relations. Representatives of this trend, for which the fundamental principle of upbringing and education was a dialogue, were A. Petzelt, K. Schaller, who characterized education as a symmetric communication between a teacher and the pupils; K. Mellenhauer, who referred to the communication theory of Y. Habermas and K. Apel, and defined education as a form of communicative action. In the 1970-80s, the critical-emancipatory direction in the philosophy of education became popular, which, under the influence of the critical theory of the Frankfurt school society, developed a radical program of de-secularization of society (O'Connor, 2017). It means the liquidation of schools and universities as a social institution. Its representatives, including A. Illich and P. Freire, saw the source of all social issues in school and universities. Since it is a model for all social institutions, which promotes the conformism, it is based on discipline, the repayment of any creative potential of the child, on the pedagogy of repression and manipulation. In fact, this direction in the philosophy of education is a variant of anti-pedagogy, which, without recognizing the modern institutions of education, reduces all communication with children to an empathic life together. It completely excludes any requirements for the pedagogical process and the content of education, any norms and regulations in teaching and education. The postmodern philosophy of education, which opposes the dictatorship

of theories for the pluralism of pedagogical practices, preaches the cult of individual self-expression in small groups, and largely coincides with the critical-emancipatory direction in the philosophy of education. Among the representatives of this direction are D. Lentsen, V. Fisher, K. Wünsche, G. Gieseke, S. Aronovitz, and W. Doll (O'Connor, 2017).

In its essence, the philosophy of education can be defined as a branch of philosophy concerned with virtually every aspect of education. As such, it overlaps several philosophical branches, such as epistemology, ethics, logic, and metaphysics (Senchuk, 1995, p. 670). According to Senchuk (1995), the most recent research in this field explores major educational objectives, such as moral values and both creative and critical thinking, linking philosophy to “the actual conduct of education” (p. 671). For that reason, philosophy of education is considered a major part of the professional educational mainstream.

SOCIAL JUSTICE THEORY

In any society, educational activities and education system are connected to the demands based on values recognized in this society (Vincent, 2003). In the countries of Western civilization, the majority of people believe that equality of opportunity in education should be a fundamental human right. This view is based on the notion that education is not one of a number of consumer goods, but a process, which is of a fundamental importance for the lives of those who receive it, and for the lives of their children. Consequently, it raises the requirements of equality of rights to receive education (Vincent, 2003). If the acquisition of education is possible only through the individual purchase of educational services, access to education will be entirely determined by the family incomes, which are distributed unevenly.

The distribution of opportunities to receive education in accordance with the distribution of income levels is regarded in many countries as socially unfair. Accordingly, there are also views on the need to ensure socially equitable access to education (Vincent, 2003); (Rowbottom, 2011). In modern Western culture, the rule of equitable access to education means that every citizen who wants and is able to get some education, should not face such discriminatory criteria as an income level, race, nationality, gender, or religion (Banks, 2012). Since the resources of society are limited, the requirements of social justice are presented as the requirements that every member of society is able to obtain a certain minimum level of education, in particular primary or secondary.

Vincent has written that some people can get higher education, but no one can be prevented from reaching the level of education recognized as socially necessary (Vincent, 2003). In applying to obtaining higher levels of education, the requirements of social justice are to ensure equality in admission to the appropriate educational institutions for all social groups and strata, regardless of the material situation of people, their nationality, gender, and place of residence. Citizens should be able to get higher education on a competitive basis, where the criteria should be the level of individual abilities and the level of mastering knowledge, and not the ability to pay a

higher price or membership in a particular social group. Indeed, implementation of these principles is impossible without the state regulation of educational activities.

In studies of educational policy, social justice theory draws attention to the production and reproduction of inequalities. While the meaning of the term may vary according to different social theories and their definitions, Zajda, Majhanovich, and Rust (2006) state that most of its conceptions refer to an “egalitarian society that is based on the principles of equality and solidarity, that understands and values human rights, and that recognizes the dignity of every human being.” However, instead of simply regarding social justice as a theoretical framework, it is crucial for any educational reform to apply it in practice.

The concept of social justice in the context of education is understood as equality, which means that all students should be given equal rights and opportunities. Moreover, it can be considered as the task of educators to impart to students a desire for harmony in a multi-cultural society. Carol Vincent states that social justice as a concept is already so fuzzy and politically tattered that it has lost particular meaning at all (Vincent, 2003). Despite the fact that many experts try to outline the contours of social justice, the concept of this phenomenon still remains only in the stage of sensory-empirical sensations. Additionally, these feelings are reduced to an abstract level of perception of each individual participant in the education system, such as personal landmarks, and determined by the infinity of different concepts, which is the main problem. Therefore, the topic of social justice becomes relevant in a fundamental, theoretical way, as well as in relation to real life and education. That is why the concept of social justice in the educational system of Albania may differ slightly from social justice in the education of other countries.

The practical application of social justice is regarded as one of the major problems in the contemporary theory of education. According to Bogotch (2000), social justice must be achieved through “critique, example, and practice” (p. 1). Advocating for “the pragmatic necessity of having multiple social purposes,” which allows individuals and institutions alike to strive for “different notions of social reform and justice,” the author claims that it is necessary for a society as a whole to create both structural and cultural opportunities for the emergence of educational leadership (p. 9–10). Griffiths (2003) employs a similar approach, defining social justice as a dynamic state of affairs, which involves different structural groupings (from small groups to the society as a whole), and depends on “both ‘recognition’ and ‘redistribution,’” indicating diversity as a valuable resource instead of a problem (p. 55). As such, social justice must be included into both educational theory and practice on every level, from educational institutions to government policies and academic research.

EDUCATIONAL GOVERNANCE THEORY

Governance is a framework, which includes common concepts relating to structure and process of education. For any country, including Albania, one of the crucial issues is developing a high-quality, innovative, efficient, and equitable education system; for that reason, modern educational governance requires “engaging diverse actors and



stakeholders across multiple levels” (Burns, Köster, & Fuster, 2016, p. 3). According to Burns, Köster, and Fuster (2016), three themes are essential for successful governance: accountability, which focuses holding different actors at multiple levels responsible for their actions; capacity building, which addresses needs and dynamics of implementation on multiple levels (individual, institutional, and system); and strategic thinking, which requires developing a long-term vision and a set of common goals of an educational system (p. 3). A successful analytical framework must combine all three themes into one functional ecosystem.

Governance structures vary between national contexts; for that reason, the approach to the management of internal relations must be developed according to the contemporary settings of the specific country’s educational system. Glatter, Mulford, and Shuttleworth (2003) establish four models of governance: “competitive market (CM), school empowerment (SE), local empowerment (LE), and quality control (QC). Regarded as ideal types, those models include different forms of school autonomy, modes of accountability, forms and functions of intermediate authority, and school leadership.

In Europe, many higher education institutions are influenced by their respective state governments. McDaniel (1996) argues that it is “generally accepted that government has a legitimate interest in exercising influence on higher education systems” regardless of the existing respect for academic freedom (p.140). Nevertheless, while institutional autonomy may be extremely limited or even non-existent, most publicly-funded higher education systems are more reputable than private institutions (Ferlie, Musselin, & Andressani, 2009, p. 1). However, the existing global integration brings a series of issues regarding the development of higher education policy on a national level. Enders (2004) draws attention to two major “blind spots.” According to him, the reforms focus mainly on policy effects, macro-level policy making, and meso-level organizational adaptation, while the input side of policy formation and micro-level dynamics and effects in the academic work often get neglected. It is clear that an increasingly internationalizing environment requires a new model of governing, which must be based on cooperation in mixed networks by both state and non-state actors.

MANAGEMENT IN HIGHER EDUCATION

The development of a new conceptual model which would improve the overall standards of higher education in Albania must also consider the role of management in higher education. In that regard, the higher educational institutions of Albania need to make changes in educational approaches to increase the opportunity for cooperating with and adopting the experience of foreign higher education institutions. Such a reform must be executed in connection with the ongoing processes of globalization, integration, and Albania’s accession to the Bologna process (Hatakenaka & Thompson, 2006).

One of the declared goals of the Bologna process is to ensure the improvement of the quality of education. The main objectives of The European Network for Quality

Assurance in Higher Education are: 1) the dissemination of new ideas and best practices in the field of quality assurance among members of the organization and stakeholders; 2) preparation of a Memorandum of Quality Assurance and Transparency Instruments for the Bologna Process Coordination Group (BFUG); 3) conducting expert reviews of the activities of member agencies, cooperation with foreign (non-European) organizations and associations (ENQA, 2015). ENQA works in close cooperation with the European Union of Students, the European Association of Universities, the European Association of Institutions of Higher Professional Education, Network of information centers ENIC-NARIC, association Business Europe, International Educational Organization Education International, and European Commission. In order to increase transparency and efficiency of quality assurance procedures The Association has started the formation of a European register of quality assurance agencies, which includes 26 agencies that have undergone an external examination of activities. ENQA to help universities and national education authorities, a document was prepared that includes a list of recommended standards and guidance for their application in the implementation of the evaluation of quality of education within the framework of the European Higher Education Area. The standards are presented in three parts and concern internal quality assessment of higher education institutions, external quality assessment of higher education and quality assurance agencies (ENQA, 2015). Based on the above standards, the main procedures are systematized and recommendations for quality assurance. For successful scientific and educational activities of universities, partnership and interaction with industry, society as a whole, and other educational structures become necessary (Hatakenaka & Thompson, 2006).

The market power of educational institutions in recent years is justified by the criterion of the effectiveness of the activity of universities, based on the assessment of the quality of education. Moreover, universities strengthen their market power, recognized effective, and inefficient educational institutions disband. The market power of consumers is conditioned by the freedom of choice of an educational institution, but the threat of invasion of new participants is associated with the massivization of higher education, which can lead to the emergence of new non-state commercial universities (Purnendu, 2013). In addition, the threat of the emergence of substitute services exists, but its significance is not so huge. As a substitute service, educational courses, trainings, seminars, and educational master classes become the part of the educational sphere. It is explained by the attractiveness of the industry. However, the requirement of employers for applicants for a diploma of higher education reduces the likelihood of replacing higher education with educational courses (Purnendu, 2013). Indeed, schools and universities pay great attention to social and political education. According to the Constitution of Albania, adopted in 1998, the independence of educational institutions and the freedom of scientific and educational activities are guaranteed by law. Therefore, to limit anyone in obtaining higher education is possible only by the criteria of the person’s abilities and talents (Balili, 2013).

Moreover, higher education in Albania has been oriented towards the development

of institutional governance in higher education by providing technical assistance for the development and implementation of the Higher Education Strategy for 2013–2017. Additionally, the key reforms in higher education financing and standards for higher education institutions have been used to introduce an initiative to determine the rankings of higher education programs. All universities in Albania now have strategic plans and external governing councils.

Within Albania, any direct comparison between the university sphere and the business world would have been unimaginable up until a few decades ago. Many higher education institutions have implemented business models from successful companies and have thus found ways to improve financial management and to efficiently manage human resources. Over the last decade, the vocabulary of marketing, particularly concepts such as market research, market segmentation, and strategic planning, has been applied to the field of education. Marketing in higher education has extended its scope to include new dimensions, such as attracting financial investment and enhancing the institution's image, again with the ultimate aim of attracting new students (Wu & Naidoo, 2016). Knowledge in this area, and of implementing marketing plans in the non-profit sector, poses challenges for strategic operations in many higher education institutions, especially in Albania.

Wu and Naidoo (2016) have stated that fierce competition has become the dynamic of the last decades in all spheres of life, and the market for educational services has not been an exception. The level of competition in this industry depends on such factors as the market share of the university, the market power of consumers, as well as the threat of new entrants. The branch of educational services develops dynamically. Therefore, it is necessary for higher educational institutions to build a competent marketing policy in the conditions of strong competition (Wu & Naidoo, 2016). Of a particular importance are marketing communications, communication tools, and communication channels. It is crucial due to the need for dialogue with consumers of educational services. However, the dialogue does not take place only on the initiative of the entrants, and the university should conduct active information activities throughout the year in order to warm up the interest of the potential students. However, before choosing one or another method of marketing activity, before choosing marketing tools and forming communication channels, it is necessary to assess the level of competitiveness of a higher education institution. In addition, universities also should inform the individualized educational trajectory of each student from the moment of enrollment to placement in the specialty.

This aspect of the higher education system in Albania is still in its early stages of development. Albanian researchers are hindered by serious deficiencies in methodological training and by their isolation from international debates on the production and development of knowledge. They also face obstacles due to the lack of management cooperation and their lack of integration within the infrastructure of scientific research in the country, as well as an unwillingness of institutions to facilitate such cooperation. However, the development trend is considered a positive one. There are some similar existing private institutes or NGOs with a clear profile of the competencies required in their field of research, particularly in the field of

economic and social analysis.

Lower standards in higher education, particularly in terms of scientific research, are due to the prioritization of quantity over quality in education and the limited focus on scientific research. Such problems require a mutual and widespread mobilization of resources, as well as careful identification of the necessary protocols building research capacities, in order to respond to various market needs. Addressing capacity development in research across Albania must take into account the major differences in terms of population size and quality of life in communities throughout the country. Furthermore, discrepancies in terms of financial resources available should be taken into account, and funds in education and scientific research should be allocated and implemented according to such specifications. The main objectives of increasing research capacities include facilitating learning and knowledge exchange experiences in the region, coordinating research and scientific policies in the region, and intervening in particular cases.

EDUCATION SYSTEM IN ALBANIA

The education system in the Republic of Albania is under the jurisdiction of the Albanian Parliament. The education system is based on the Albanian Constitution, which states that the formation of Albanian citizens is a national priority (Higher Education in the Republic of Albania, 2015). The Constitution of the Republic of Albania states that everyone has the right to education. Moreover, 9-year school education is compulsory in Albania. Therefore, children must study at school until the age of 16. Indeed, members of national minorities have the opportunity to teach and learn the education program in their own language, to study their history and culture through school curricula, which is one of the main achievements and pluses of education in Albania (Higher Education in the Republic of Albania, 2015).

Reforms in the educational system that took place in Albania in 1992–1999 included some innovations in curriculum, new solutions in the field of foreign language learning, school management, the evaluation of teachers' work, and others were introduced and defined (Vickers, 2011). With regard to post-secondary and university education, the application of new laws led to the creation of several local universities in the main cities of Albania. By adopting the law on the school after graduating from high school in Albania, the segment of non-university higher education was regulated (Rexhepi, 2013).

The general principles and objectives of education in Albania are based on international standards. Thus, they include equal rights to education for all citizens who receive the secondary and vocational education. The second standard of education is the creation of conditions for the full development of the individual, and the provision of educational opportunities that must meet modern requirements of the youth development. Moreover, educational programs in Albania are focused on the promotion and modernization of educational content in accordance with modern social requirements, including scientific achievements and information technologies in teaching (Rexhepi, 2013). Educational systems should also have a development path

in common with the social, labor, and production spheres in Albania. Despite state problems, the country's leadership focuses on providing conditions for continuing education and also improving the quality and effectiveness of education (Balili, 2013).

The development of Albania, which includes economic, technological, scientific, and other reforms, requires the further adaptation of education to social needs and the establishment and development of educational policies. The state government regulates and provides the goals and guidelines for the development of economy, science, and technology, as well as the conditions for the realization of citizens' rights and common interests in the field of education, the development of the educational sphere is an integral part.

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OUR WAY TOWARDS THE INTEGRATION OF DIGITAL TECHNOLOGY

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ABSTRACT

Information and communication technologies (ICT) are stirring the worldwide economic advancement for more than three decades. The new technologies and their implementation in manufacturing, services, as well as the public sector, have provided changes of the economic structure and – hopefully – increase of productivity. The factors driving the use of ICT come from the demand side, for products and services the companies and consumers require, as well as from the supply side, with solutions and models applicable to a rising number of users.

The extent of using the information and communication technologies in Albanian environment is in the focus of this paper. The main objective is, firstly to highlight the assessment of digital technology integration in Albanian economy, particularly in businesses. Another objective is to analyze major reasons that brought changes during the last years. Further on, the chances for Albanian businesses to take advantage of the economic and social benefits from ICT should be considered.

The research work has combined the "desk study" with on-site survey in order to evidence the achievements, shortcomings and opportunities for a higher level of integration of digital technology in Albanian organizations.

KEY WORDS:

business digitization, integration of digital technology, e-commerce, internet use, SME-s.



1. INTRODUCTION

Information and communication technologies (ICT) have been since the 1990s at the center of economic changes and getting the most of attention from the international organizations like UN, OECD, EU and others. ICT has become a core technology driving Science Technology and Innovation in economies worldwide. Such awareness is closely related to the important role the ICT sector has played and is expected to bring onward in coming years.

For a consistent approach during the realization of this study, we have been based on OECD definition of ICT-producing industries, as stated in 2002:

“The principles are the following: for manufacturing industries, the products of an industry must be intended to fulfil the function of information processing and communication including transmission and display, or must use electronic processing to detect, measure and/or record physical phenomena or control a physical process.

For services industries, the products must be intended to enable the function of information processing and communication by electronic means.” (OECD, 2002).

In simpler wording, it encompasses all devices, components, applications and systems that allow people and organizations to network and interact in the digital world, such as mobile networks, Internet, satellite communications, as well as the more traditional landline communications, radio and television broadcast.

In general terms, the sector has the potential to provide high quality communication for everyone, despite differences in age, gender, location, language spoken or other physical features. According to a recent study from International Telecommunication Union, it is highly expected to contribute to economic growth and facilitate business operations, although the speed of change can vary between countries and time periods. ICT is changing both the process of knowledge creation as well as its diffusion, and it is affecting the global competitiveness (ITU, 2016).

OBJECTIVES AND RESEARCH METHOD.

The scope of this study involves the use of digital technologies in the Albanian environment, mainly in the business sector. The main objectives are:

- reviewing and highlighting the involvement of ICT in Albanian companies, then
- assessment of changes that have occurred in the country over the years in this sector, using standard indicators and finally
- discussion of some development trends that could affect the future expansion of the market.

The research method is a combination of desk and field study. The paper initially presents an introduction to the features and development of ICT based on the literature review, which is mainly of a research nature at the international organizations level.

The role of the definition and measurement of DT integration indicators is then evidenced, as a driving force for the further development of this integration. This part too is carried out by desk-study, in the form of a comparative observation.

In the end, recent questionnaire results from INSTAT and our surveys in Albanian

companies are presented. Results are derived on the basis of standard questionnaires and processed according to Eurostat's methodology, for comparability purposes (INSTAT, 2018). The empirical analysis of results aims to highlight trends and opportunities for DT integration in organizations level, as well as in country level.

Despite the tremendous role of ICT in the lives of every individual, the paper is focused on the company / organization level, which is one of its limitations.

Another limitation of this work is the relatively small number of companies visited and interviewed in order to identify obstacles and opportunities for wider ICT involvement in businesses.

2. DIFFUSION OF DIGITAL TECHNOLOGY IN ECONOMY - THEORETICAL CONSIDERATIONS

New technologies and their implementation in productive activities and public sector have brought to outstanding changes in the economic structure of countries. As evidenced by analysts from London School of Economics and Political Science, there are three milestones: The launch of 'desktop' personal computing in 1982 introduced a large section of the public to regular ICT usage in both their working and personal lives. This was followed up by at least two further major ICT diffusion events - the emergence of the commercial internet in the mid-1990s and the rise of mobile computing devices in the late 2000s (LSE, 2018).

2.1. What brings the spread of ICT

The diffusion of ICT in different countries and regions has been analyzed in order to obtain positive effects from it, as well as to forecast – as much as possible – the role it can play in macro and micro level of economic activities. It is well accepted that ICT innovation in recent decades has created tremendous value in the global economy (OECD, 2002), (LSE, 2018). This innovation has been driven, at least at the moments of presenting new inventions, **by the supply of creative and ingenious solutions**. We do refer mainly to the above-mentioned milestones that did engage whole manufacturing and service- provider companies into offering more and more products of ICT to the public sector, other industries and individuals worldwide.

From the other side, it has been **the consumer and business demand for novel and effective products and services**, which has further encouraged the development and innovation in ICT sector, making it a very expansive one for several decades. In a global perspective, researchers point out that the speed of growth is slowing though, with most of the developed world approaching saturation (LSE, 2018), (GSMA, 2018). The recent forecasts do provide optimistic prognosis, mentioning that more significant growth opportunity will lie in mobile internet – a market that will add 1.75 billion new users over the next eight years, reaching a milestone of 5 billion mobile internet users in 2025 (GSMA, 2018), (OECD, 2017). Although the focus of such forecasts is sometimes the future of mobile industry, it still tremendously highlights the impact of this industry in the whole economic activities. As GSMA report articulates it, “mobile internet adoption is indivisible from the developments in the wider digital ecosystem,

as mobile internet users are the addressable market for e-commerce, the emerging 'fintech' industry and a range of digitally delivered services and content", (GSMA, 2018).

ICT is granted the role of a generator of ideas. The LSE study concludes that ICT technologies generate on average substantially larger knowledge spillovers than those generated by other technology areas and this holds even when ICT is compared to other frontier fields such as biotech and clean energy (LSE, 2018). New ICT solutions can be generated and/ or applied in the private and public sectors in a country through stimulation of innovation processes. It is generally considered as a major component in facilitating a country's efforts towards creating a thriving and knowledge-based economy.

From the global point of view, as the international organizations deal with it, "this (in turn) ensures that all countries have the opportunity to enjoy the economic and social benefits of ICTs. More specifically, countries will be able to steer ICTs for development solutions, using innovative ICTs to address social and economic problems faced by the world" (ITU, 2016). Our research work modestly intends to view Albania in this emplacement.

The role of ICT in a macro perspective is closely related to the cost of investment in the sector. This one and other factors affecting the diffusion of ICT are considered during the years in detailed analysis (OECD, 2018), but they go beyond the scope of this work. However, it is common knowledge that companies in countries with higher levels of income and productivity typically are more inclined to invest in such technologies than countries at lower levels of income, where Albania is included. This statement became a driver for our following review and investigation.

2.2. Impacts of ICT at the company level

While handling the role of ICT from the company's perspective, the focus might be - on the ICT-production side, - on those sectors of the economy that are intensive users of ICT, most of which belong to the services sector, (e.g. industries such as finance, business services and distribution, although the range of activities is growing rapidly), or on both production and consumption/ users side. The choice of last option permits the provision of a broader understanding for the ICT impacts, particularly in the Albanian framework.

From an economic point of view, the decision of a company to adopt ICT depends on the trade-off between costs and benefits that may derive from the technology' use. There are different factors that companies might consider before such decision, including amongst others: high costs of technology itself, lack of know-how or relevant skills for effective use of ICT, insufficient security and slow or unstable communications.

Studies with company-level data often find the strongest evidence for economic impacts of ICT. Porter and Heppelmann suggest that "the role of ICT in helping firms gain market share can be examined in combination with the role of organizational change" (Porter, Heppelmann, 2017). Management experience reveals significant interactions between ICT use and complementary organizational variables in the

companies. As Boudreau underlines in his research work "the complementary factors having significant influence are: human capital, a firm's experience in innovation, its use of advanced business practices and the intensity of organizational restructuring" (Boudreau, 2015).

There is one more specific issue we want to point out before going into country-level discussion of digital technology' integration. We strongly give credit to the statement by Burning Glass Technologies (2015) that effective use of ICTs in life and for work requires adequate skills. "IT staff" ranks second among the top ten jobs that employers have difficulties filling, notably in services. Meanwhile, as evidenced for several countries (OECD, 2017), (UNESCO, 2018), generic ICT skills are insufficient among many workers using ICTs every day, as are ICT foundational skills, such as problem solving and communication, which are increasingly necessary to adapt to changing jobs. These "pros and cons" are necessarily mixed in topics below that are focused in the country situation.

3. TRACKING THE ICT SECTOR IN COUNTRY

The integration of information and communication technology has influenced the evolution of the digital market in Albania, a market made up of products and services as defined by the OECD (2002), given at the opening of this paper. The development of this market is mainly noted through the expansion of goods, including the digital infrastructure, and the progress of the market' subjects. The subsequent short preview both in country and in company level precedes main discussion on DT spreading in Albania.

3.1. The national dimension

The digital market in Albania has gone through a rapid development of all its elements during the last decade. Its growth rates are higher than the average GDP growth rate of the country, which is a premise for a major role in economic development and an increasing impact on the economic and social life of the country. The development of digital infrastructure in the mid-2000s has made it possible to rapidly change the ability of the population to gain access to digital technology, although ITU Country review Albania emphasizes there is still room for improvement (ITU, 2016).

Technology and innovation did receive greater attention in this period, as endorsed by 2009-2015 National Strategy for Science, Technology and Innovation (STI), as well as subsequently by "Digital Agenda 2015-2020". This last one considers the Information and Communication Technologies (ICT) as a core enabler to Albania's development (Ministry of Innovation and Public Administration, Albania 2014).

Regarding the use of technologies, after year 2007 in Albania consideration was given to the possibility of internet connection, as well as to the ability of the population to utilize the instruments and products available from this digital infrastructure. Consequently, indicators for assessment of Internet connectivity were complemented with indicators of the use of other products offered by ICT, provided by many sectors

such as trade, banking, education, public administration, etc. (e-commerce, e-banking, e-learning).

According to the data from AKEP (2018), the geographical coverage of internet access has increased by 67% for the period 2007-2017. An increase was observed in the use of the Internet by private entities, which was 87% higher in 2016 compared to 2007. The same trend is noticed regarding the use of public/ national platforms, starting with the tax administration and afterwards followed by a number of other institutions (e-Albania). From 2010, all processing operations between tax administration and large businesses became digitalized, by degrees during a three-year period; the same process was done for the small businesses as well, from 2016 and on (DPT- General Tax Directorate).

3.2. Growth of digital market subjects

Another indicator of the fast growth of the digital market is the increase of digital suppliers (companies that produce and / or sell services, infrastructure or goods of the digital market) and entities using digital products / services.

According to the data generated by public institutions, processed and published by interested parties (AITA, 2016), (Telekom Albania, 2017), the situation of ICT sector development in Albania by the end of 2017 is presented by a quantitative and qualitative data preview. There are over 200 IT companies operating within the country, the majority of which are small and medium-sized companies. Albanian ICT companies specialize in software design and development, system integration and hardware distribution. There are over 8000 IT professionals, with 10 universities teaching IT-regulated subjects and approximately 1700 IT graduates each year (for the last 3 years, 2015-2017) (INSTAT). The increasing quality of national IT education strongly supports the sector's future growth. Approximately 80% of ICT companies work with international companies in domestic market, which contributes to the knowledge spillover effect (Telekom Albania, 2017).

The amount of digital technology' integration in the Albanian economy, particularly in business activities, is the subject of the hereinafter discussion.

4. CONSIDERATIONS ABOUT THE MEASUREMENT OF DIGITAL TECHNOLOGY INTEGRATION

Over the past years, much progress has been made in developing statistics on the use of various ICT technologies in the economy (OECD, 2002, 2017), (ITU, 2017). In addition, many countries have developed databases that provide detailed and comprehensive data on the performance of individual firms (EC, 2017), (EC, 2018). The correlation between use of ICT in the companies and their performance indicators might be observed due to the analysis of above mentioned combined information.

4.1. MANY FACETS, DIFFERENT INDICATORS

The involvement of digital technologies in all sectors of activity and in all countries, especially those developed and developing ones, has fostered the efforts of many

organisms to determine indicators and to measure ICT. The ICT Development Index (IDI) is an index published by the United Nations International Telecommunication Union, based on internationally agreed information and communication technologies (ICT) indicators (ITU, 2017). This makes it a valuable tool for benchmarking the most important indicators for measuring the information society. The IDI is a standard tool that governments, operators, development agencies, researchers and others can use to measure the digital divide and compare ICT performance within and across countries. The ICT Development Index is based on 11 ICT indicators, grouped in three clusters: access, use and skills.

This indicator shows an improvement for Albania, raising from a value of 4,9 in 2016 to a value of 5.14 on 2017 (Figure 1). Nevertheless, in both last years the country remains ranked at the 89-th place, in a list of 176 countries evaluated, where the index value varies from 8,98 (for the first place) to 0.96 (for the last ranked country) (ITU, 2017).

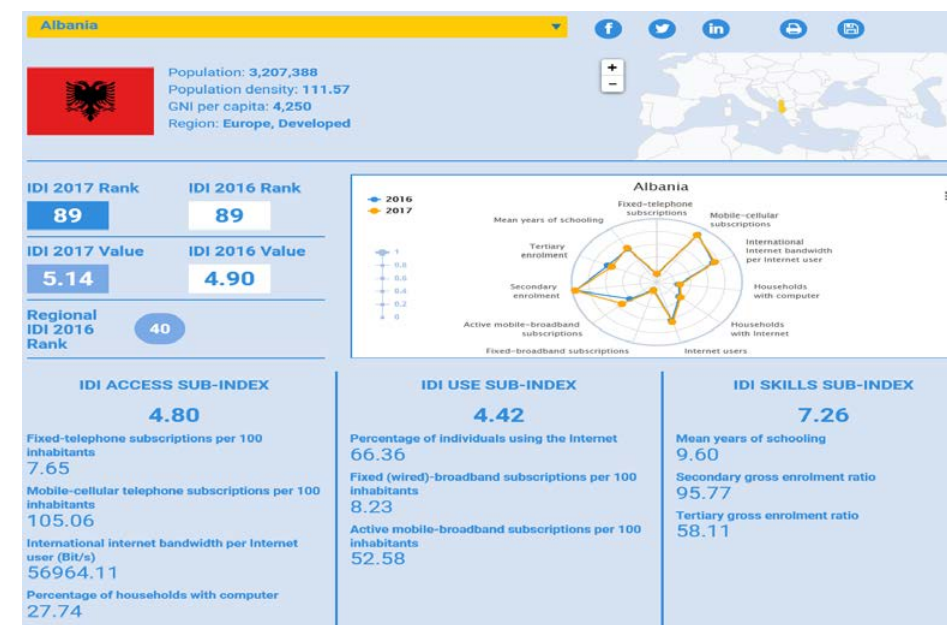


Figure 1 - ICT Development Index (IDI) Albania, 2017

Source - ITU

In the continental landscape, the European Commission deals with the integration of DT in the framework of the Digital Single Market (DSM). The Digital Economy and Society Index (DESI) Report aims to help EU countries identify areas requiring priority investments and action in order to create a truly Digital Single Market (EC, 2017).

The Digital Intensity Index (DII) measures the availability at firm level of 12 different digital technologies, trying to make yearly measuring and analysis (Figure 2).

European businesses are increasingly adopting digital technologies, such as the use of a business software for electronic information sharing (from 26% in 2013 to 34% of enterprises in 2017), sending electronic invoices (from 10% in 2013 to 18% of enterprises in 2016) or using social media to engage with customers and partners (from 15% in 2013 to 21% of enterprises in 2017), as reported by EC (DESI report 2017).

Key indicators tracking digitisation processes	Year	% of EU28 enterprises		Variation 2017-2015 (pp)	
		Large	SMEs	Large	SMEs
Having a web site or homepage	2017	94%	76%	0	2
Website has some interactive functionalities	2017	74%	58%	2	3
Use any social media	2017	72%	47%	9	8
>50% of the persons employed use computers & Internet	2017	50%	40%	3	2
Fastest broadband connection is at least 30 Mb/s	2017	69%	37%	15	12
Have ERP software package to share information	2017	76%	33%	Not comparable with 2015	
Use Customer Relationship Management (CRM)	2017	62%	32%	0	1
>20% of workers with portable devices for business use	2017	38%	32%	7	5
Employ ICT specialist		75%	18%	-3	-1
Selling online (at least 1% of turnover)	2017	39%	17%	1	1
Share electronically supply chain management data	2017	47%	17%	-1	1
Exploit B2C eCommerce	2017	9%	7%	1	1

Figure 2 – Key indicators tracking digitization processes.

Source: European Commission services based on Eurostat data

Given the above illustrated course, the EU standardized methodology enables evaluation of different features and aspects related to ICT use. The current approach for assessing the Integration of Digital Technology takes in consideration two dimensions (a) 'business digitization' and (b) 'e-commerce'.

'Business digitization' has five indicators (as % of firms using): electronic information sharing, Radio Frequency Identification (RFID), social media, e Invoices and cloud solutions.

E-commerce has three indicators: the percentage of small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) selling online, e-commerce turnover as a percentage of total turnover of SMEs; and the percentage of SMEs selling online cross-border.

EU 28	Value 2018	Value 2017
4a1 Electronic Information Sharing	34%	NA
% enterprises	2017	2015
4a2 RFID	4.2%	3.9%
% enterprises	2017	2014
4a3 Social Media	21%	20%
% enterprises	2017	2016
4a4 eInvoices	NA	17.7%
% enterprises	2017	2016
4a5 Cloud	NA	13.5%
% enterprises	2017	2016
4b1 SMEs Selling Online	17.2%	17.2%
% SMEs	2017	2016
4b2 E-commerce Turnover	10.3%	9.4%
% SME turnover	2017	2016
4b3 Selling Online Cross-border	8.4%	7.5%
% SMEs	2017	2015

	Enterprise with e-sales (turnover >1%) (%)			Turnover from e-commerce (%)		
	2010	2014	2017	2010	2014	2017
All enterprises	13.3%	15.2%	17.8%	13.9%	14.8%	18.3%
Large (250+)	31.3%	35.3%	39.3%	19.1%	20.2%	25.7%
Medium (50-249)	19.8%	22.0%	25.5%	11.3%	11.1%	13.0%
Small (10-49)	11.6%	13.4%	15.8%	4.9%	5.8%	7.4%

Figure 3 – Measuring the integration of DT in EU countries

Source: European Commission services based on Eurostat data

4.2. ICT indices in Albanian business environment

The European methodology for analyzing data related to integration of digital technology has been lately adopted by the Albanian public Institution of Statistics (INSTAT). The first official report was released in 2015, based on the survey of year 2014 in the company' level. As a first step, it provided partial indicators regarding the phenomenon. However, the survey was repeated yearly since then, enabling broader overview and analysis, at least in 2018 (INSTAT, 2018). As officially announced by INSTAT, the survey was based on the Eurostat methodology, consequently providing us with data and results comparable to those displayed for EU countries (referred in fig.2 and fig.3). The sample was made of 1558 companies of different sizes and economic activities, acc. NACE Rev.2 (INSTAT, 2018).

Our analysis is built both on the data collected by above survey and on their further processing, to bring most important and significative indices related to the level of DT integration in Albanian companies. The interviews in the companies with top managers have permitted to deepen the analysis and draw some conclusions.

There are measured four indicators, amongst the key indicators fixed to track the digitization processes (ref. figure 2), providing the following view according to the economic activities in 2017 (fig. 4).

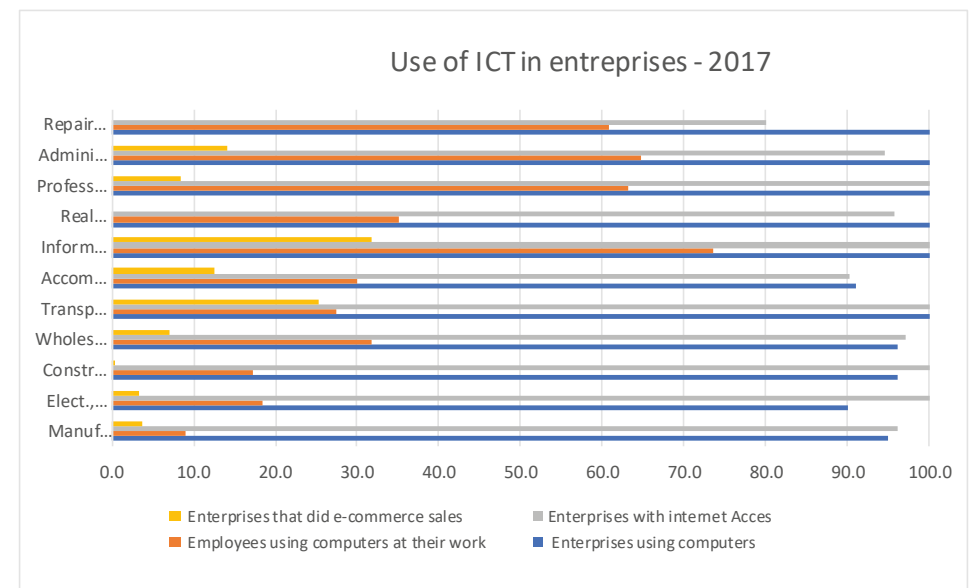


Figure 4. Use of ICT in companies according economic activity, year 2017

Source: INSTAT, processed by authors

Enterprises that used the computer for work purposes, during 2017, represent 96.0 % of economic enterprises, from 95.6 % in 2016. The increasing trend is more valuable than the amount itself in a yearly period. Moreover, the figure is quite close to the maximum (100%). The percentage of enterprises with internet access is 96.9 % of total enterprises, while in the EU member states this indicator is 97.0%.

During 2017, the percentage of enterprises that have employed an ICT Specialist is 22.4 %, from 21.9 % in 2016. Again, it is the trend counting more than the amount, as it encourages advances in the other indices of digital technology integration. This outcome has been derived from the interviews in the companies, when asked about the role of ICT specialists, their skills and competencies. However, the lack of qualified ICT graduates, higher cost of these professionals (although missing qualification) and the long period of payback for ICT investments are the main factors refraining surveyed Albanian companies from a broader integration of digital technologies.

Findings from EU survey (DESI 2017) are applicable in a great extent in our country situation as well. The adoption of digital technologies varies strongly with company size. Large enterprises have a scale advantage and more capacity to employ at least some IT/ICT specialists.

However, small and medium sized companies offer a good experience regarding employees using computers at their work and in e-sales respectively.



Figure 5. Some key indicators of DT integration according to company size in two last years

Source: INSTAT, processed by authors

The INSTAT survey for 2017 reveals that share of employees using the computer for work purposes account for 28.1 % of the total enterprise employees, from 28.0% in 2016. The lowest share of employees using the computer is in the manufacturing activities with 8.9 % and construction activity with 17.2 %. As can be expected and as the EU countries' experience shows, computers are used to a greater extent by

employees of enterprises that perform in information and communication sector by 73.6 %, administrative and support services by 64.7 % and employees in professional, scientific and technical activities by 63.3 %. They are the most digitized sectors of the economy, however the average indicator for all the economic activities is only 28.1%. The sectors following the first group and tend to become more digitized are real estate activities, wholesale trade and accommodation. This is in tune with findings from EU survey, that points out "other sectors such as accommodation, travel agencies, cultural industries (publishing, film & television) and the wholesale trade are also highly digitized (DESI 2017). This is explained by the strategic challenges these types of activities face in the local, regional and/ or global market. Businesses in the accommodation and food services sector need to have well-developed websites and social media to remain competitive.

The Albanian companies have been increasingly using social media (Facebook, LinkedIn, Twitter, YouTube, etc.). The report shows that social media was used by 46.8% of enterprises using computers with internet access, from 38.9 % in 2016. The comparison in a continental level reveals a very similar situation. According to DESI 2017 "SMEs are relatively active on social media (44 %) and the usage of mobile internet to allow employees to exploit business application is also becoming more common". The main intentions of such use in 79.6 % of enterprises during 2017 were to improve the image of the enterprise or the product market (e.g. for advertising, marketing of a new product, etc.). Another intention of using social media, from 20% of enterprises, was to share opinions, ideas or knowledge within the enterprise (INSTAT, 2018).

The main factor that has encouraged the use of social media, much more than other indicators of DT integration, is its low cost, compared to approaches of DT use like electronic information sharing (ERP systems), e-Invoices, e-commerce sales, etc. Another reason revealed during the interviews is the ease of using social media, that comes from its user-friendly configuration (design) and usage experience for individual needs. Consequently, this is an indicator with high growth potential and a positive impact to the competitiveness of the companies, especially those of type B2C.

The dimension of e-commerce has a modest position in the survey done both from the national organization and the study authors. One of three indicators (ref. Fig. 3) is calculated, showing that only 7.7 % of enterprises have sold products / services via their website or dedicated applications in 2017, from 7.1 % in the previous year. Generally, electronic commerce is carried out by enterprises operating in the Information and communication activities by 31.8 %, transport and storage activities by 25.2 % and administrative and support service activities by 14.1 %. Figures are low for the other economic sectors, as well as compared to 17.8% of EU survey for 2017. The main reasons are the same with those announced by EU survey "SMEs (10-249 employees) that do not sell on the web give as their main reason that their products and services are not suitable. This might be reflected by the second most common obstacle: that the cost of investing in web sales is too high compared to the benefits" (DESI 2016).

Despite the late initiation of DT integration assessment in the Albanian environment, the above theoretic review, survey results and analysis permit drawing of several conclusions that follow.



5. CONCLUSIONS

ICT has emerged over the past decade as a key technology than can transform economic and social activity. It is significantly contributing to economic growth in most countries by bringing higher factor productivity, lower cost of goods and services, newer products and services re-inventing traditional industries, new organizational and/ or business models.

However, achieving benefits from investment in ICT is not straightforward. It typically requires complementary investments and changes in human capital, organizational restructuring and innovation.

The survey of ICT diffusion in the Albanian business environment reveals achievements as well as 'lagging behind' indicators which, in turn, are proper opportunities for advancement in short and medium –term. It brings to the main findings that:

- the digital technologies are spreading with varying speed in Albanian businesses, according to their size and sector of activity;
- the measuring of all recommended indicators is still difficult, due to low levels and missing information;
- it is not yet possible to provide aggregate indexes for the integration of DT in Albanian business;
- the human capital/ qualified workforce is amongst the main drivers to bring forward the introduction of new technologies, increase the use of existing DT in all economic activities and push the education of more employees with IT skills and competencies.

Research work, higher education system and public policies might contribute to the awareness of companies and their capabilities for a better use of information and communication technologies, similarly to countries in a regional and global level.

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Impact of Tourism on GDP of Albania

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ABSTRACT

Tourism is an important economic sector in Albania, by contributing 1 billion euros to Albania's GDP. Albania offers a great potential for tourism development. The main benefits of tourism are ascertained in the creation of new jobs and the increase of the income. For many regions, tourism is the most important source of income. The ability of a country's economy to benefit from tourism depends on the availability of the necessary investments. Albania has the potential to develop coastal tourism and other alternative forms of it. Albania is also an attractive country for the foreign investors.

Taking in consideration the importance of tourism in the economy of our country, this case study makes an attempt to analyse how the tourism and its main indicators affect GDP. Some of the indicators that we have analysed, are the total costs of the foreign tourist in Albania, their days of stay and the number of employees in the tourism industry.

KEY WORDS:

tourism, GDP, tourist, employees, costs, stay

INTRODUCTION

Tourism has been contributing to Albania's economy in every way lately. The contribution of tourism can be identified in terms of generation of income, increase of the employment rate, infrastructure development, exchange of cultures and attitudes etc. The tourism causes many reactions to a country's economy and other sectors of the economy such as food industry and local services. Its development leads to the improvement of infrastructure, such as building highways and enabling the connection between cities.

The improvement of tourism is seen as a basic instrument in economic progress and reducing poverty, as it is a vital part of every country's economy, serving to build the economic welfare of a country (1).

Most people think of tourism in terms of jobs, incomes, impacts and taxes. The range of impacts of tourism is wider and includes economy, services, taxes, environment, attitudes etc.

Tourism is a major economic activity, leading to Albania's economic development. Considering the revenues from taxes, parking, tickets for entering different buildings, it has increased more than 25 times, comparing to the past years.

According to the WTTC Report¹ "Travel and Tourism Economic Impact 2018, Albania", it is stated that the direct contribution of Travel and Tourism to GDP was ALL 134,1 bn (USD 1.124,1 mn), 8,5% of total GDP in 2017. The total of Travel and Tourism to GDP was ALL 414,2 bn (USD 3.471,9 mn), 26,2% of GDP in 2017. In 2017, Travel and Tourism directly supported 93.500 jobs (7,7% of total employment), while the total contribution to employment, including jobs indirectly supported by the industry was 24,1% of total employment (291,500 jobs). The direct contribution of Travel and Tourism to GDP in 2017 was ALL 134,1 bn (8,5% of GDP) (2).

There are many economic indicators related to tourism that contribute to Albania's GDP. The aim of our study is to determine the contribution of tourism to the GDP of Albania by using World Tourism Database for Albania. There is a correlation between variables such as the number of foreign citizens, the total amount of money these tourists decide to spend during their vacations in Albania and the impact they have on GDP, in terms of total costs and the rate of employment. The model chosen to determine such influence is a multiple linear regression model, while the method used for its estimation is the Least Square Method.

DISCUSSION OF THE ECONOMIC HYPOTHESIS, WHAT IS EXPECTED TO EVALUATE THE MODEL

We decided to tackle the topic in the direction of the impact that tourism indicators have on changing the GDP rate by using World Tourism Database for Albania. The most important indicator of tourism is the number of foreign citizens who have come in Albania in the period 2004-2015. Another important indicator is the total amount of money these tourists decide to spend during their vacations in Albania. Also,

¹ WTTC: Travel and Tourism Economic Impact 2018, Albania



assuming that the tourists' stay in our country (the other variable) gives us a more general picture of how far the development of tourism varies, we decided to include it in the model. From the model's assessment (the issue discussed below) we clearly see the importance of this variable.

So selecting variables is based on this point. They have taken the indicators of tourism and it seems how much influence they have on GDP in the model we have created (2). The method used for model estimation is the Least Square Method for evaluating regression parameters.

Initially, we studied the stationarity of the series we included in the study. We evaluated if the model we created is appropriate or not through the Ramsey-Reset test and then continuing with some of the problems the model shows, thus reducing the importance or efficiency of explaining the link between concrete variables. Some of the problems that arise are heteroscedasticity, multicollinearity and autocorrelation. Some of the tests used to detect these problems are, Durbin Watson, Glejser Test, BPG Test, Breusch-Godfrey Serial Correlation LM Test, etc. We have also studied the model's viability with the Chow test. A more detailed explanation of these statistical tests is presented below.

The equation of the multiple line regression that we evaluated is:

- $GDP = f(x1_entries, x2_stay_days, x3_emplyees, x4_total_costs)$
- $GDP_t = 5089.152 - 0.74 * X1_t - 3.27 * X2_t - 31.29 * X3_t + 3.83 * X4_t + u_t$

According to the equation, increasing with 1 unit the value of total costs (while all other variables remain constant) the value of GDP increases with 3.83 units.

STATIONARITY

Time series may be stationary or not (in this case we turn it to stationary by first and second differences).

The most commonly used are methods are Augmented Dickey-Fuller (ADF), that will be used in this article, Phillips-Perron (PP), Kwiatkowski, et. al. (KPSS).

Series are called stationary if the average and serial variance does not depend on time. If series do not satisfy the condition of time independence of the two above mentioned indicators, it is called non-stationary. A prediction for non-stationary time series means that the forecasts are time-dependent with a forecast variance that will increase by the time. Before modeling time series, we examine whether they are stationary or not. This makes it possible to build reliable forecasts for long-term periods. In this case, the series is not stationary, but we turn it to a stationary series by doing the second differences.

AUTOCORRELATION, MULTICOLLINEARITY AND HETEROSKEDASTICITY

To test if the model suffers or not from autocorrelation we use the BG test. An auxiliary model is built to show the dependence of model's residuals depending to other variables and residuals with time lags up to AR (p).

In the evaluated model it is seen that the residual variable (RESID (-1)) is not

statistically significant ($t_v = -0.45 > t_k = -2 \times H_0$) and consequently it is assumed that the model does not suffer from autocorrelation.

The typical problem of multiple regression models is Multicollinearity, which means complete linear dependence between some or all independent variables. Based on the model we first estimated that the model was important while most of the coefficients were irreversible. This makes us suspect early in the existence of multicollinearity. Another way to figure out if we have multicollinearity in the model is to look at the correlation between the variables. For values of the coefficient of correlation greater than 0.8 it is suspected of multicollinearity.

The estimated model shows that the value of R square is at 94.28% and the constructed model is statistically significant (evaluated in multiple regression, R2). Meanwhile, it is seen that 3 of the partial variables are statistically non-important. In these conditions we may doubt the presence of multicollinearity of the model. Even from the correlation table we see that there is a high correlation between independent variables. So, the problem of multicollinearity is clearly evident.

With the elimination of variables x_1, x_2, x_3 we see that the problem is improved.

The regression model may result in different problems that come from insufficient valuations. There are some residual diagnostic statistics that are interpreted together with the regression model to confirm the validity of the model. One of the most common problem is heteroskedasticity. Heteroskedasticity implies that the variance of residuals is not constant during the observations. It is known that there are some statistical procedures to detect, test, and eliminate heteroskedasticity. The one we have used is the Glejser Test. The White test is used when the number of observations is large. We do not have a large number of observations so we decided to test the accuracy of the Geldster test. This test suggests that after obtaining the results from the regression estimation, an auxiliary regression should be constructed where as a dependent variable is the absolute value of residuals to independent variables. The equation for this test is:

$$|u| = 199.62 - 0.05X_1 + 0.74 X_2 - 36.89 X_3 + 0.58 X_4$$

Referring to the table of results, $F_v = 1.8 < F_c$. The hypothesis H_0 does not fall down, which means that Glejser's model is not important. From this we come to the conclusion that our original model does not suffer from heteroskedasticity.

STABILITY OF THE MODEL

The Chow test of stability starts with the recursive test of residuals because it helps to uncover possible breakpoints. The following figure shows the residuals chart and their confidence interval. We see that they remain within this interval, so there are no breakpoints for our model and we can assume that the model is stable. We received 2010 as a stationary point since our databases shows that the variables until 2010 have an increase and after 2010 we have a decrease in these values. $H_0: SKG = SKG_1 + SKG_2$ (the model is stable) H_a : different (the model is not stable). From the table we read that $F_v = 1.43 < F_k$, so H_0 stands. Therefore the model is stable.



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A Descriptive Study of Behavioral and Emotional Problems of Minorities

STAYING IN REZIDENCIAL HOMES

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ABSTRACT

Living in institutions may be a distressing environment which could affect the mental health of minors living there. Children and adolescents who live without parents and those who are vulnerable are the most affected do develop emotional and behavioral problems than others because they are deprived of the love and care from family. There is a lack of empirical studies that focus on the psychological health of these children. The intention of this research was to describe behavioral difficulties, emotional problems and coping strategies of kids living in institutions. A case study approach was applied focusing on residential social care institution in the city of Saranda.

"The Children House" is a residential social care institution for children of biological orphans, social orphans and other vulnerable children. Participants of the study were 15 children from 10 years old to 16 years. A qualitative approach was implemented to investigate the personal experience of kids external and internal difficulties. The data were triangulated by using different methods such as semi-structured interviews of children, behavioral observation in institution and focus group with institutional staff.

Qualitative data were analyzed using the phenomenological interpretative analysis (IPA) based on research questions. The present study shows that institutionalized children are vulnerable to emotional and behavioral distress. The reasons of emotional problems that they were experienced include discrimination, rejection, physical and psychological violence, feelings of inferiority, love deprivation, fear of abandonment, insecurity for the future. Children manifest non-adaptive and protective behaviors against others. They used as coping skills dreaming for the future and also the maladapted internalizing and extroverting behaviors.

THE KEY WORDS:

Children, Residential Institution, Emotional Problems, Coping Strategies, Behavioral Problems



1.1 Presentation of the research problem

Children who grow up without their mother, father or one of their parents as primary is a caregiver common phenomenon. There is evidence that most children living in institutions suffer from many psychological and physical symptoms (Ruiz-Casares et al., 2009); (Escueta et al., 2014). Based on these studies, the reasons for the psychological and physical problems of institutionalized children are the loss of parents (Atwine et al., 2005). Other researcher claim that the quality of life of children who remain orphans after the loss of parents and relational difficulties with community (Taddesse et al., 2014). Since both factors contribute to psychosocial problems, the environment where children will live after leaving the biological family plays an important role in the mental health of children.

Parental loss is the most fundamental loss that can be experienced in childhood. Children are biologically programmed to associate with to satisfy their basic needs, both physical and emotional needs (Lin et al., 2004). Fairbairn in 1946 also placed great emphasis on the experience of first relationships with caretakers, saying that libido activity is essentially and largely the quest for the object to take pleasure. This development consists of an evolutionary dependence and the child will thus be a reflection of the relationship between the internal objects (Fairbairn, 1946).

Loss of primary carers through abandonment has also been noted to have negative potential in the feelings that children experience with regard to emotional and psychological well-being. As in a parent's death situation and abandonment, separates children from their primary guardian. This insight is illustrated by the findings that parental death is the most absolute form of physical separation is less psychologically problematic for children than parental divorce (Fearon, Bakermans-Kranenburg, Ijzendoorn, Lapsley, and Roisman, 2010).

Globally, one in every five children suffers from a mental disorder and two out of five who seek mental health services do not take them. It is estimated that over 7 million orphans have been institutionalized all over the world (sosusa.org). In Albania, as in other developing countries, non-governmental organizations claim that there are more orphaned children in Albania than those who are recognized as such by law. According to the law, only 1 465 orphans from 0-25 years old have the status of orphans. Albania has 28 such residential centers, administered by religious centers or private initiatives. From these 11 are state centers, including orphans houses for 0-3 years old, 3-6 years old and 6-15. But their real number is much greater.

A residential care institution, also called the 'Home of Children', is an institution established by the government (public) or non-governmental (private) agencies to provide care, protection and support for the welfare of the child. Institutionalized children are an increasing population and it is urgent that their short-term and long-term psychological needs be met (Abehe, 2005). These children's homes are set to help children whose parents or no longer live or are unsuitable and lose the parental right to children (Akay, Miral & Baykara, 2006; MacLean, 2003).

The "Rezidencial Home" in Saranda is a legal institution that carries out non-profit activity. Placement of children is done by the Social State Service, by the County Council and by the City Council decide all criteria for being a residential client of the institution (Skinner et al., 2006). The Child's House has its official seal and is named "The School Children's Home 6 -18 years old" for welfare, health and social care for children. The institution provides all the necessary measures for the normal growth of the child.

1.8 The importance of the study

Firstly the study demand to evaluate the experiences of institutionalized children to understand the emotional and behavioral problems of children living in the "Home of the Child" in Saranda. Also, the findings of the study will present a real picture of the true experience of everyday life of institutionalized children in Albanian environment. As a result, authorities, policy, schools, the family, governmental and non-governmental organizations can work together for vulnerable children.

Secondly, it is important to be mentioned about the psychological well-being of institutionalized children in the field of Albanian research. The whole society would gain more knowledge to help children living in orphanage in Saranda. The reason for selecting this research is that in previous research, the primary needs of children were not elaborated.

Thirdly, the findings of this study will provide an important direction for conducting further research in the areas of psychological well-being and mental health of children living in Albania and other residential institutions. The knowledge about behavioral problems and emotions in children living in the Saranda Children's Home will provide the necessary guidance for identity information and adult socialization and prepare for life outside of this home.

1.9 Purpose of the study

The main purpose of the study is to explore behavioral and emotional problems at children living in a residential social care institution in the city of Saranda.

1.9.1 Specific Objectives

- To explore the experiences of children living in the institution using the qualitative method.
- To elaborate the emotional problems experienced by children living in the institution
- Identify the behavioral problems that children face in the residential institution.
- Describe ways of coping with children for their emotional and behavioral problems.

1.9.2 Research Questions

1. How do children live in residential social care institutions?
2. What are the emotional difficulties faced by children in care institutions?
3. What are the behavioral problems that children experience in residential centers?

4. What are the ways of coping with children for the emotional and behavioral problems that institutionalized children can show?

1.10 Operational Definitions

To clarify the terms, the definitions used in this study are based on Alternative Child Care 2006 and UN Guidelines for Alternatives 2010.

Child means any human being under the age of 18.

In the group of orphan children or children outside parental care are children 0-14 years old and young people (children) 14 to 18 years old who do not live with their parents are involved: death of both parents; removal from parental custody or abandonment; temporary or permanent disability of the parents to care; voluntary placement of care by administrative structures (social services); removal of parental right (based on a final court decision). (People's Advocate, 2015) (UNICEF, 2006).

Biological orphans are children whose parents do not live and who do not have other relatives to care for them. Social orphans are children born out of wedlock, who under certain circumstances can not grow up by their mothers; Abandoned Children - When a parent refuse child care, thus interrupting parent-child relationships in an irreversible and conscientious manner (children are abandoned in maternity by families in a moral or economic crisis or by parents fleeing to places others); children who are temporarily absent from parents (their parents are in hospital, prison or seriously ill); children from families without income or insufficient income; children from families in crisis as well as children whose parents have emigrated or want to emigrate (UNICEF, 2014).

Residential social care institutions are structures that care for children outside parental care. Living in them is organized in the way of living in groups, where a paid staff cares for the children and not on the basis of family life. These structures can be community-based and accommodate children outside parental care from the surrounding community, or may be national residential institutions that cater to children from more than one community (People's Advocate, 2015).

Behavioral problems include actions that are easily apparent from the fact that children can react negatively to external situations and stimuli. An example is behavioral disorder. Emotional problems include internal responses, internalization of problems, such as isolation, anxiety, symptoms depressive.

CHAPTER II: REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1 Introduction

This chapter presents an overview of the theories that explain the basic behavior and emotional problems of children living in the Child's Home. It gives a brief overview of the experience of children placed in institutions in Albania and in the city of Saranda in particular. While initial studies focused on residential care in the developed Western countries, there is an ever-growing research on the care institution in developing countries.

Next, we will look at the long-term effects of residential care for the mentality of

thinking by researching Evans (2006) on emotional development, Robertson and Simons (2000) claim that an orphan is a terrible place to raise a child. Emond (2009); UNICEF (2014), Barnett (2008) and other researchers claiming the development of positive mental health of children as a result of staying in institutional custody. The operational definitions of terms are also discussed in this chapter.

2.2.1 Bowlby's Approach Theory

Bowlby, 1907 - 1990 (quoted in McLeod, 2007), worked as a psychiatrist at the Children's Instruction at the London Clinic where he dealt with emotionally disturbed children. From his experiences he emphasized the importance of the relationship of the child to their mother in terms of tire, emotional and cognitive ties. His experiences specifically indicated the early partition of infants with their mother and later the problems that children would show.

Bowlby (1969/1982) proposed that infants, like adults, need to establish attachment to primary custodians. The appendix system serves to raise the baby to the survival of the genes because the baby wants to preserve the proximity of the guardian under threats. Children are dependent on parents for survival at the beginning of life.

2.2.2 Wincott's Attachment Theory

When they are in the departments of child services they may panic when they hear a crash. When this happens, we look around the symbolic "mother figure" that can be a woman who will take responsibility for them. Difficulty is the duty of a professional guardian to create a maternal enabling environment at a time when child development has already been damaged by parental deprivation and inconsistent parenting (Wincott, 1952).

For Winnicott this center is secured by unconscious processes within "a common mother who loves her child" (Winnicott, 1952): a "good mother" who learns better about how to take care of her baby. However, the good mother continues to provide an environment that facilitates the healthy maturation processes of her child. She achieves this by being the person who actively takes care of the child's maintenance, treatment and overall management. The good mother provides physical care and meets the baby's need for warmth and emotional love.

2.2.3 The theory of social learning

The theory of social learning by Bandura (1977) states that behavior is taught by the environment through the process of dissolving others. Bandura believes people are the processors of information, adding that social learning can not happen unless they are cognitive processes at work. This theory appreciates the importance of the fact that children can learn aggressiveness from parents and guardians who are aggressive. Children pay attention to these people (models) and code their behaviors accordingly. At a later time, they are likely to imitate the behavior they have observed. Children can do this regardless of whether the behavior is appropriate or not, but there are a number of processes that encourage a child to reproduce the behavior his community considers appropriate to his sex (Bandura, 1977).

2.3 The emotional problems of institutionalized children

This study aimed to address both behavioral and emotional problems of these children and focus on self-reporting of children instead of reports from others to see a deeper perspective of their experiences.

2.4.1 Depression

Depression is a common mental disorder characterized by a 2-week-long presence with a noticeable change in behavior that manifests itself in depression or irritability for the most part of the day; almost every day to experience loss of interest in all school activities and those that previously enjoyed pleasure; including other symptom groups such as: the desire to die or the suicide attempts or attempts; decrease or increase in appetite or weight loss; insomnia or excessive sleep; an agitation or a retardation of psychomotry; fatigue or loss of energy; feeling impervious; a sense of exaggerated guilt; concentration reduction or declination (Hendrie, 2001).

2.4.2 Anxiety

According to Huberty (2004) anxiety is an overwhelming fear for a real or imagined situation. Anxiety is a normal developmental pattern that appears differently as a child and grows more with age growth. Signs of anxiety disorders are similar to children and adolescents, although children may show more signs of irritability and dissatisfaction. The emergence of anxiety disorders varies from about 2% to 15% of children and occurs somewhat more often to females (Huberty, 2004).

BEHAVIORAL PROBLEMS

2.5.1 Behavior Disorder

Behavioral Disorder refers to a form of childhood psychopathology that includes a repetition and a pattern of behavior that violates the fundamental rights of others (eg, aggression against humans and animals, property destruction, theft) or norms or social rules suitable for the age being violated (American Association of Psychiatry, 2000). Behavioral Disorder (CD) is the psychiatric disorder of the most common children and one of the most common reasons for referrals to specialized services in the United Kingdom (Scourfield et al., 2004). In the United States, the behavioral problem is considered one of the most diagnosed disorders in children (Halgin & Whitebourne, 2007). In fact, 10% to 15% of children referred to psychiatric clinics are diagnosed with a behavioral disorder (Nicholi, 1999).

2.6 Experiences of children in orphanages

2.6.1 Negative effects of institutional care for child development

Children live in orphanages due to various reasons such as the loss of a parent or both parents and neglect or abandonment by parents who are alive but are unable to provide their basic needs. Freidman (2000) acknowledges that institutionalization has a profound negative impact on a child's life. Santrock (2004) further stated that institutionalization affects children in development, emotionally and psychologically.

Therefore, unconditional love is an essential element for the care provider. In addition, institutions should be short-term transit centers where children's needs can be assessed before relocation (Santrock, 2004).

2.6. 2 Positive effects of staying in orphanage

According to Clark (2005), children are not considered as passive objects in the research process or in society in general but as social actors. The emphasis is on exploring the lives of children, their interests, priorities and concerns from their point of view. Through interviews and surveys of children in a study conducted by Clark (2005), it was clear that these children did not consider their lives as negative as others perceived despite their deprivations. Therefore, when interventions for these primary children were suggested, it was to recognize and take into account their children's experiences. Thus, an important concept to consider from this study is to assess children's experiences from their point of view. The above studies highlighted the psychological problems children face living in the "Child's Home". On the other hand, some studies also revealed positive effects of living in an institution (Clark, 2005).

CHAPTER III: METHODOLOGY

3.0 Design of the study

The purpose of the study is to identify the emotional and behavioral problems of children living in the residential social care institution in Saranda. Qualitative methods have been used to answer research questions. Qualitative data are important to exploring the meaning the kids have about their daily experience. Qualitative research was used to assess the problems of children by looking at them from their personal perspective rather than by guardians, educators, teachers, or peers.

Yin (2003) argues that the case study that is used in this study is when the seeker wants to explore in detail on a topic. Variety can not be isolated The randomization allows to uncover complex conditions, the context that occurs phenomena. The current study has taken into consideration the residential institution in the city of Saranda. This institution was first selected for access reasons. The "Home of the Child" allowed the permission and approval by the authorities to apply the research methods, while ensuring full confidentiality. Second, the exploration of an institution gives an opportunity to first know the experience and interpretation of children living in this dormitory for which no previous studies have been conducted.

A mixed method (triangulation) was used to carry out this study involving the use of three scientific methods to answer the same question. Triangulation was used in data acquisition because it is a process involving the individual in depth using semi-structured interview for children, focus group discussion staff staff and free observation of participants by the scholar (Flick, 2004a). Therefore, suggested that triangulation can produce knowledge at different levels, meaning that they go beyond knowledge gained from a single method and contribute to the promotion of quality in research (Flick, 2004b). During the field study, focus group discussion (FGD) was

combined to look at the staff perspective and provide in-depth knowledge about the problems of children with observation. In this way it was possible to see the same phenomenon from different angles.

The observation method to get insight into the behaviors of respondents by giving us new insights and also the general state of living in the orphanage, which supported the information gained from the focus group discussion. This research will answer some research questions. The first research question is about identifying emotional problems in institutionalized children. Second, the next question to be answered is: What are the behavioral difficulties? And the third question is about exploring the coping ways that children use.

3.1 Participants and phenomenological study procedure

The participants of this research were fifteen (15) children, nine (9) girls and six (6) boys living in the care facility in Saranda. Their age was from ten (10) to sixteen (16) years. Two (2) children aged fifteen (15), three (3) fourteen (14) years old, three (3) ten-year-olds, four (4) eleven-year-olds, two (2) sixteen-year-olds and one (1) child twelve (12) years old.

All children are from the first to the ninth grade. The children come from the cities of Tirana, Elbasan, Korça, Vlora, Përmeti Saranda. According to Creswell et al. (2002), 5 to 10 children should attend a phenomenological study. The data from the participants will suffice to reflect full results on the emotional and behavioral problems of institutionalized children. The children were selected at the residential social care institution "Children Home". The permission to continue with this study was first by the Social Service and the Orphanage Authority in Saranda. After the respective authorities have given their consent, they continued to obtain permission from the participants. All the children were first contacted by the center psychology and asked if they wanted to be part of the study.

Subsequently, he was informed informed about the nature and aims of the study and issues that would be addressed in a comprehensible way for all participants. The method for collecting data through semi-structured interview included two strategies. First, the socio-demographic data of children, the behavioral and emotional problems of children in the institution through information gathered through face-to-face interviews with children. The interview guide has been used as a tool for structuring interviews. Each child moved to a quiet place to ensure the privacy and privacy of the data collection process. Each interview session lasted about 20 minutes to 45 minutes. All interviews took the normal course of an ordinary conversation that participants, especially younger children, felt more comfortable with the situation. After that, the participants were thanked for their contribution and participation.

3.2 Collection of phenomenological data

In order to collect qualitative study data, a semi-structured interview was developed (see Appendix) on the behavioral and emotional problems of institutionalized children in the orphanage of Saranda. This interview was drafted based on the revised Child Abuse Examination Rate (RCMAS, Reynolds & Richmond, 1978), Children's Depression

Inventory (CDI, Kovacs, 1985), Child Behavior Control List (CBCL; Achenbach & Edelbrock, 1983), Kidcope (Pereda, 2009), Scheme Questionnaire (Young, 2003).

This interview is made up of three main parts. The first part focuses on the positive and negative experiences the children have in the institution. The second part focuses on behavioral and emotional problems being illustrated by concrete events from their daily life. In the third part, the interview shows the reactions and strategies that children use to cope with emotional and behavioral problems.

A brief guide to the interview was designed to ask the children who lived in orphanage almost the same questions. The reason for using the semi-structured interview guide is to ensure that each interview is presented exactly with the same fixed questions for all participants. The semi-structured interview made it possible to judge further for the questions that arose. Using interviews will lead to a more thorough research (Rosengren, & Arvidson, 2002). The guide was too short with few questions such as; What makes you happy or sad? How do you react when someone offends you? Tell me how you feel about where you are currently living.

Prior to collecting data to accomplish the research goals, pilot interviews were conducted to see if the interview was structured appropriately and whether questions were about behavioral and emotional problems. The interviews were conducted using non-directional style and semi-open questions by the interviewer. Questions are clearly formulated, focused on the subject matter. In this way, the participants have the opportunity to share their experience of the experiences they have in the environment where they live in detail.

3.3 Qualitative data analysis

Data analysis was conducted based on the phenomenological interpretative approach. Qualitative analysis methods require the material to be transcribed literally or roughly literally, so it was used to capture notes during the interview, focus group, and behavioral observation. Subsequently, data was plotted in the Qualitative Analysis Package Weft QDA . Interview transcripts are analyzed one after the other, each interview has been riddled several times and organized and explored in detail to identify relevant codes.

Then, based on the codes, the categories were organized according to the phenomenological approach. Each category has also been examined in relation to the other categories and integrated to determine the main themes. The qualitative data for this study were analyzed by coding, categorizing and labeling the topics and key issues that emerged from the data of the three methods of used. Then he makes some checks in the data analysis to ensure the validity of the findings. The subjects and categories for this study are: Emotional problems (discrimination, rejection, feeling of inferiority (hate for the future, non adaptive behaviors). In the phenomenological study, there can be no lack of interpretation as well, advances understanding of the problems in question.

3.4 Validity and reliability

In conducting qualitative research, Patton (2001) asserts that validity and

reliability are the two main factors to be taken into account when compiling the study, analyzing and interpreting the results. Smith and Dunworth (2003) also suggested that it is necessary to review the validity and credibility of the quality research with the exact criteria that fit it. The validity of qualitative research refers to the integrity and implementation of the methods that have been selected and that the findings reflect accurate data.

Reliability, describes sustainability within analytical procedures (Long & Johnson, 2000). In this regard, the purpose of validation control is to assure the credibility of produced topics. Therefore, to ensure the credibility of quality research, two main aspects must be addressed: the value of truth and sustainability. This study has used the following strategies to ensure the authenticity of data (Patton, 2001).

To ensure the value of the truth, it is important to have a personal perspective that interferes with the examiner's issues. Personal characteristics such as beliefs, prejudices, expectations may influence the course of assessment during the interview, but also during the interpretation of the data. For these reasons, emphasis should be put on the self-reflection of the researcher after each procedure and method he has performed. In this way, the misinterpretations resulting from the individual perceptions of the researcher and the subjectivity of what is observed can be avoided (Clifford, 1990).

Consistency, on the other hand, relates to credibility involving transparency and clear description of the research process, through method development, and reporting findings (Long & Johnson, 2000). Recording interviews using records serves to review the data, to control the topics, and to preserve the real experiences of the orphan participants until reaching a consensus.

3.4 Ethical issues of the study

The ethical principles governing the safety of human subjects are taken into consideration in this study. The research ethic is based on the extent to which the applicant is morally responsible for its participants (Kitchin & Tate, 2000, p. 35). Key ethical issues here include anonymity, confidentiality, and information for the entire procedure.

According to the guidance on ethical approaches to collecting information from the Institutional Principles for Children and Adolescents in Schenk et al. (2005) notes that research on children raises ethical issues due to the nature of subjects that may be extremely sensitive and has likely to affect the emotional and mental health of children.

CHAPTER IV: RESULTS OF THE STUDY

Key themes are related to experiences, emotional problems, behavioral problems and coping strategies. Children's experiences in the institution also include positive factors (environmental conditions and social support) and negative factors such as limiting freedom to choose. Under the themes of emotional problems included: discrimination, rejection, physical / emotional / verbal violence, feeling

of inferiority, deprivation of love, fear of abandonment, uncertainty for the future. Behavioral problems included subthemes in the following mismanaged behavior and overcrowding. The coping strategies included hope for the future and misadaptive behaviors.

4.1 Experiences in the Institution

The experiences of institutionalized children are different. For some there are benefits and they can benefit from collective living in this home and for others there is dissatisfaction.

4.1.1 Positive factors

Care for institutionalized children is provided by residential institutions staff. Institutional care provides care and supervision for those children who are deprived of their family life and provide them with financial support. Moreover, it offers medical care, education, opportunities for school-aged children in mainstream government schools. The dormitory in question provides an emotional support from its employees who have direct contact with children.

4.1.1.1 Environmental conditions

Children reported that they felt good in the environment they lived because the environmental conditions were positive and enabled them to meet basic needs such as quality food, sleeping, clean environment and safe accommodation.

A 16-year-old boy who lived for 4 years at the "Baby House" claims:

"I feel good that there are good conditions, the food is very good, the environment is clean and our rooms are regular have a closet and 2 beds."

Interview11 [2868-2900]

4.1.1.2 Social support

It is seen that children feel supported by staff members. Most children report that their guardians and teachers in the dormitory environment have a positive relationship with them even though they have been reminded of the mistakes in order to improve them.

"Teachers and caregivers behave properly, when I make mistakes they accuse me."

Interview 1, boy 14 years old [2237-2374]

4.1.2 Negative factors

Many experiences in orphanage are detrimental; the damage is greater in the early years and dramatically increases with the length of stay in an institution.

4.2.1 Lack of the opportunity to choose

Living in the "Child's Home" residential facility, children face everyday issues that affect them directly but do not have the ability to make decisions about them. The first day

they go to the institution they do not know where to go, the social service separates them strongly from parents, brothers and sisters, and does not explain where they are going. For them it is an unknown place, they do not even get the right answer to where they will go.

They have no expectation because they do not get a preliminary explanation of where they will go, what this environment serves, who will be there, how long it will be, what is the reason for leaving the family. All of these factors have an effect on the children's difficulties in refocusing, which is emphasized by the director.

"The second moment is how to integrate into school, dormitory, outside the institution."

Interview with the director [161-377]

4.3 Emotional problems

4.3.1 Discrimination

Emotional problems like sadness, annoyance, said that some of the other children and the classroom were stigmatizing because of their orphan status associated with maltreatment by their friends. Some sources of emotional problems that institutionalized children derive from mixing them with non-institutionalized children. Being with non-institutional children can help orphaned children relate to others and receive support and encouragement but it seems to be a source of discrimination and discouragement.

«When I hear anyone in the classroom talking badly about me, says boarder I get bored very much.»

Interview 7, a 10-year-old girl [5448-5531]

4.2.3 Physical / verbal / emotional violence

The study found that most children experienced verbal abuse, severely offending physical and emotional abuse by peers, older adults, and adults as their teachers. Previous traumatic events such as child-assisted violence appear through emotions repressed as anger against the parent or a relative coming to the surface in the environment where they live currently. This is also stated by the employees of the institution for children.

"They come from families with social problems and one of the problems is physical and emotional violence. They saw one of the parents who practiced to the other parent or exercised them."

Interview 4, Educator 2 [394-580]

4.2.4 Feeling of Inferiority

In depth the participants' views reflected that most of them experienced inferiority feelings against others expressed in different forms. Older children experience superior feeling by exerting pressure on younger children. While younger children feel inferior and weaker to them and have no control over their lives and the ways they find to hide these inferiority feelings are emotional submission and inhibition.

"This is where the" undefined Law of the Jungle "works, where the strongest and the smallest dominate, undergoes their work, obey the commands of others, wash their athletes, cleanse the room. Women are subject to boys. "

Interview 2, Psychology [871-1086]

4.2.5 Deprivation of love from affiliated figures

Children express their mother's need and try to move them to other affiliated figures as guardians, educators who care for them. It is apparent that children living in the Saranda dormitory are judged to be unloved and the educator assumes protective positions, claiming otherwise that the deprivation of love in the early stages of development is a joke that justifies their behavior. The desire to have apathy and attachment to a guardian indicates the need for the love of the primary attachment.

"My mother tells me that our mother has left us. I do not speak badly about their parents, we try to put as little as possible, but not your parents. "

Interview 4, Educator 2 [1320-1392]

4.2.6 Fear of Abandonment

Lack of love and care by primary attachment figures can cause fear in children that generalizes to other accompanying figures during their development. The fear of losing a loved one is persistent and takes the form of anxiety and anxiety. When dear people are ill, children fear that they will die even if the health condition does not pose a risk.

"I'm afraid that my friends or relatives will die."

Interview 10 [4845-4913]

4.2.7 Uncertainty about the future

Part of the children believe that their future will be uncertain and obscure. They often feel that no one can help and express their lack of purpose in life. This insecurity has the basics in their family environments where they have grown up. Some children did not have a flat, some begged on the street.

"They have uncertainty for the future and the younger ones and teenagers who will be leaving for a while, especially those children who came from the road and who lived on the old buses together ten"

Interview 2, Psychology [1147-1311]

4.3 Behavioral Problems

4.3.1 Impaired behaviors

In the current survey, most children reported behavior-related issues. These behaviors appear in different ways as aggressive reactions. They want to look stronger to be in the spotlight and sometimes want to look good kids who do not make mistake and want to leave a good impression and most of them are often overworked to defend. They engage in maladaptive behaviors such as early smoking and alcohol

consumation, which has started since the period they were in their family environment and continued in the dormitory settings in secret.

«I've been trying nine years ago in Tirana and here I've been drinking for two years secretly.»

Interview 11 [4532-4608]

4.3.2 Protection

Children often feel threatened by other children and adult figures. A behavioral behavior feature was about survival. "The Child's House" is a place for children of different backgrounds and with various problems. Therefore, the likelihood of diverse behaviors that will be portrayed as a means of surviving the complexity of problems becomes important. The work of others can be seen as a form of bullying by the child who also avenges, thus showing this same act of harassment.

According to a 14-year-old: "When I pushed a friend and I pushed hard"

Interview 1 [3601-3647]

4.4 Facing Strategies

4.4.1 Hope for the future

Some of them appreciate the education and continuation of a profession as a chance for success that will change the future. This strategy helps them cope with the emotional wounds they may experience during their orphan stay and previous trauma.

"I feel good I will go to art school, jump and I will not live on the street again."

Interview 5 [7364-7413]

4.4.2 Adaptive behavior

Children use different strategies to tolerate, reduce or minimize psychosocial issues that need to be addressed daily. The most common problem among children living in institutional care was the inadequate way to manage the emotional state in charge. These inadequate behaviors are internalizing and outsourcing.

4.4.2.1 Internalising Behaviors

The internalizing behaviors that children experience are crying, avoiding and staying alone or isolating. Some children are isolated by preferring to stay alone for hours and may burst into tears.

«When I'm offended, I'm sorry adults go to the room I cry all day and I never go out that day out of the room.»

Interview 10 [3160-3220]

4.4.2.2 External Behaviors

While external behaviors are aggression, displacement. A girl reports that shouting

is a normal behavior to keep calm and protect the rights.

"I get sick when I'm offended by a friend or when the older girls awaken us from sleep. Nothing screams, just yells until they leave. "

Interview 3 [3691-3809]

CHAPTER VIII: RECOMMENDATIONS

The child is not a passive observer in the face of ongoing events but an active participant. The residential institution should make efforts to use programs to involve children more in decision-making related to day-to-day routines, to have the choice of their outfits, to be able to be informed about the unexpected changes that affect them directly.

Given the existence of emotional and behavioral problems in children living in orphanages, the psychologist and social worker of the center can contribute by observing, interpreting, and recording everyday behavior to be in direct contact with the problems. Understanding the emotional problems of children living in orphanages is a need for the love of affluent figures and it is imperative for the institution to help relaunch and restore relationships and promote effective relationships with families. This would help the children strengthen their coping skills, and at the same time the uncertainty about the future outside the institution would fade.

Also, there is a priority to work with children to minimize negative feelings by being often subject to stigma, rejection and violence. They should help children recognize themselves and understand their positive qualities to recognize their resources besides the negative ones. This technique will help to minimize feelings of inferiority in children. Also of great importance is the learning of adaptive management skills that may be more effective and more necessary. Caregivers, educators can help children by using self-regulating emotion strategies that they can apply in regaining misadaptive behaviors and minimizing the aggressive expression of violence.

An important issue is that children of different age groups live in a common environment and constitute an indicator of many emotional and behavioral problems of children. As a consequence, a reception criterion for a target group that is older than 6-18 years old should be established at the residential social care institution in Saranda.

In the future, scientific research needs to be deepened to identify emotional and behavioral problems in other institutions of Albania in order to see the differences between them and the favorable factors that can be applied even further. Further studies may consider limitations in this study and be improved in other research.

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Mass Displacement of the Population- Issues and Solutions

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ABSTRACT

For several years, millions of people around the world are forced to flee their homes to escape conflicts, violence, violations of human rights, persecution and natural disasters, and seek refuge within or outside their country's borders.

The issue of millions of displaced people around the world who during years have taken over and continues to take one of the hardest decisions of their lives, the removal, is still very complex today and represents great challenges.

The influx of the displaced and the real difficulties faced with their management have caused a series of reactions from the governments of the countries where mostly are directed the refugees who have been forced to flee their country in search of a better and safer life.

There have been during these years of refugee crisis, clash of different attitudes and stances. Despite the measures undertaken in the international level and the many efforts made to discourage displacement of people, there have also been unforeseen consequences.

The refugee crisis in Europe and generally the displacement of people all over the world is becoming one of the key issues of the century, which requires a solution. Therefore attention should focus on establishing the fundamental and effective objectives of global migration policy.

KEY WORDS:

Displacement of the population, refugees, emigrants, emigration policies.

ENTRY

Since 2014, the “European Refugee Crisis” has been at the center of public attention and has become a priority of the political agendas of many states. The issue of millions of displaced people around the world continues to be very complex and poses major challenges to opportunities for systematization of these persons as well as the prevention of this phenomenon in the future.

In this world crisis of displacement of people that has lasted for many years, Syria has been the focal point that has caused the crisis, creating about one third of the total population of refugees in the world, due to the Civil War.¹ Most of the displaced, almost 3.5 million mostly Syrian refugees have been welcomed by Turkey, but a large number has also faced Lebanon and Jordan.²

The huge influx of displaced people across neighboring states has caused realistic humanitarian, economic and political problems in these host countries. These problems have been caused not only by the large influx of displaced persons but also by the fact that we are dealing with host countries of refugees in a very weak region.

Massive displacement of people who have been trying to pass through the main transit routes have caused social risks and implications because a number of displaced persons have fallen victim to exploitation, abuse, human trafficking, imprisonment and rape. People who have faced trauma and exploitation have long-term consequences and therefore seek diversified assistance.³

Causes of the displacement of millions of people around the world are more or less the same and relate mainly to⁴: Insecurity to live in a country due to armed conflicts, the inability of governments to provide economic opportunities and meet basic needs of population, natural disasters and the inability to manage their consequences.

Since such causes continue to exist, it is clear that many people will continue to leave their home countries and turn to Europe to find rescue opportunities. Despite the difficulties they encounter during their relocation and settling in another country, they again leave because they are in despair. It is about people in emergency conditions that are ready to face the serious problems that carry the displacement, sometimes the risk of life because the situation created in their country has lost every hope and has nothing to lose.⁵

Forced resettlement has caused unprecedented pressure on the European

continent. The number of displaced people in Europe is at its highest peaks since World War II. Most of the displaced people, more than 40 million, have sought refuge within their own countries.

Nowadays, not only refugees but also internally displaced people around the world are mainly located in cities and not in camps. This causes problems for cities especially when the number of displaced persons increases. Despite some advantages that urban areas create, there are many displaced who end up feeling alone and isolated, losing the support networks we enjoy all of us, namely the community, their relatives and their friends.⁶

Today, in general, political forces of the countries where displaced people are seeking refuge, express the concern that achieving a large number of displaced people, predominantly from Muslim majority countries, will increase the potential for terrorism and create a burden on their economies.⁷

INTERNATIONAL REACTION ON DISPLACEMENT OF THE POPULATIONS

The massive movements of displaced persons from their main producing countries which the last years have been Syria and Afghanistan, toward European countries such as Austria, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Italy and Sweden have caused various social and security problems that did not exist on the European continent since wars in the former Yugoslavia.⁸

The influx of displaced people who escape from violence, persecution and poverty has also led to a series of reactions from European governments. To cope with this unusual situation, EU member states have taken unilateral ad-hoc measures involving a variety of actions. Barriers were built at the Serbian-Hungarian border. One by one, the countries along the main roads that get asylum seekers to Western Europe, Hungary, Slovenia, Austria and Macedonia closed their borders.⁹

The lack of a European consensus for a unified response to the ongoing influx of refugees and unilateral open door policies adopted by Sweden and Germany triggered numerous debates of political, social and financial character.¹⁰

In terms of this situation created in Europe, EU political leaders, while agreed on the need to ensure “fundamental European values”, failed to reach an agreement on

1 Brookings Now, Problems and solutions to the international migrant crisis, Chris McKenna and Brennan Hoban Monday, December 18, 2017. <https://www.brookings.edu/blog/brookings-now/2017/12/18/problems-and-solutions-to-the-international-migrant-crisis/pg1>

2 Forced displacement: refugees, asylum-seekers and internally displaced people (IDPs), European Commission, European Civil Protection and Humanitarian Aid Operation https://reliefweb.int/sites/reliefweb.int/files/resources/Forced_Displacement_en.pdf_pg1

3 Frontline, The “Human Cost” of The EU’s Response to the Refugee Crisis, by Priyanka Boghani Digital Reporter, January 23, 2018. <https://www.pbs.org/wgbh/frontline/article/the-human-cost-of-the-eus-response-to-the-refugee-crisis/pg4>

4 Michel Maitta, “The European Refugee Crisis: forecasting for 2018”, Humanitarian Alternatives, n° 3, November 2016, p. 98-109, ISBN of the article (PDF) : 978-2-37704-141-1 <http://alternatives-humanitaires.org/en/2016/11/22/the-european-refugee-crisis-forecasting-for-2018/pg2>

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9 Frontline, The “Human Cost” of The EU’s Response to the Refugee Crisis, by Priyanka Boghani Digital Reporter, January 23, 2018. <https://www.pbs.org/wgbh/frontline/article/the-human-cost-of-the-eus-response-to-the-refugee-crisis/pg2>

10 The Global Compact for Refugees bringing mayors to the Table: Why and how, Jessica Brandt and Lucy Earle, January 23, 2018 https://www.brookings.edu/wp-content/uploads/2018/01/fp_20180125_global_compact_refugees-final.pdf_pg5



how they would do this and on what were the European values endangered. Some saw the refugee and immigrant crisis as something that more than anything else related to the issue of national security and demanded that they should not lose control of their borders because this would undermine the sovereignty of states.

It was also argued that the Islamic culture of immigrants is quite different with Western culture. Since Muslims represent the majority of refugees in our time, the feelings of anti-immigration in Europe were expressed by referring to Muslim extremism. Many European countries tended to link the presence of Muslim immigrants to the continent with the jihadist attacks that hit the main European cities, because many believe that Islamic emigration makes their countries most vulnerable to terrorism.

The EU, having no opportunity to eliminate the main causes of refugee flows (for example, to stop civil war in Syria), focused on keeping the immigration under control and made efforts to prevent the influx of displaced persons. Given that most Syrian refugees entered Turkey from Europe, the EU focused its efforts on reaching an agreement with the Turkish government, which was signed on 18 March 2016. So, despite divergences in political priorities and the definition of European values among its member states, the EU succeeded in reaching a consensus on a common policy that would not allow the refugee crisis to become a destructive force for European co-operation through the signing of the Agreement with Turkey.¹¹ Under this Agreement, any immigrant or refugee trying to cross from Turkey to Greece outside the allowed channels would be turned back. For any Syrian brought back to Turkey, the EU would accept a refugee.¹²

The international response to mass displacement of the population has been constant. In 1998, the United Nations adopted a set of standards that provided rights and guarantees for the protection of displaced persons starting from the protection and assistance during the resettlement to reaching long-term solutions, called "Leading Principles on Internal Displacement". These principles have been strongly supported by the EU, which has systematically promoted their inclusion in international and domestic legislation.¹³

Based on the displacements that were happening all over the world with a high record, world leaders gathered in New York for the opening of the United Nations General Assembly in 2016 set the call for a High Level Summit on Refugees and Immigrants in order to improve the response of the International Community to mass movements of people. At this Summit, held on 19 September 2016, member states unanimously adopted the New York Declaration on Refugees and Immigrants, a set of commitments to expand refugee and immigrant protection, which included commitments to protect human rights in movement and sharing of responsibility for

11 Dagi, D. (2018). EU's refugee crisis: from supra-nationalism to nationalism? *Journal of Liberty and International Affairs*, 3(3), 9-19. http://nbn-resolving.de/urn:nbn:de:0168-ssaar-56105-8_pg14

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13 Forced displacement: refugees, asylum-seekers and internally displaced people (IDPs), European Commission, European Civil Protection and Humanitarian Aid Operation, https://reliefweb.int/sites/reliefweb.int/files/resources/Forced_Displacement_en.pdf/pg2

their well-being.¹⁴ The Declaration reaffirmed the importance of the international defense regime and urged states to strengthen and expand the mechanisms of protecting the people on the move. It was required to the United Nations Refugee Agency to implement a Comprehensive Resettlement Framework for Refugees and a Global Agreement on Safe and Legal Immigration.

The Global Refugee Agreement is an opportunity to strengthen the global refugee regime for the coming years, while the Emigration Agreement expresses collective commitments in improving co-operation with international emigration.¹⁵

DIFFICULTIES AND CHALLENGES OF DISPLACED PERSONS

As the refugee crisis continues for years, Europe is still debating how to respond to a huge influx of refugees and immigrants who come to its shores and where a large number die or lose during the journey.

To reach Europe, people have mostly used three transit routes, each dangerous depending on which country the displaced came from.

Eastern Mediterranean: from the Turkish coast to Germany through Greece, Macedonia, Serbia, Croatia, Hungary, Slovenia and Austria.

Western Balkans Road: from the Turkish-Bulgarian or Greek-Turkish border toward Hungary through the Western Balkans

Central Mediterranean: from Libya to Italy or Malta through the sea.

These transit routes have led to complex refugee management and migration flows for the countries through which they have passed. Countries such as Italy, Macedonia, Hungary have faced the management of overcrowded and inadequate reception centers as well as the creation of the networks of the mafia specialized in human trafficking.¹⁶

Apart from the scale of displacement of people today is very high, the nature of the displacement has also changed. Relocation lasts longer in time. People are mainly placed in urban areas and face many difficulties even with xenophobic nationalism. Many states have set up walls and fences in order to hinder the entry of refugees. Many ships transporting refugees through the Mediterranean were drowned.

Since the crisis has begun, the EU has made many efforts to discourage these trips by financing and supporting the countries that have become the main entry points and accelerating the return of people to their countries of origin and by concluding an agreements (such as the agreement with Libya in 2017).¹⁷ These agreements and the

14 The Global Compact for Refugees bringing mayors to the Table: Why and how, Jessica Brandt and Lucy Earle, January 2018 https://www.brookings.edu/wpcontent/uploads/2018/01/jp_20180125_global_compact_refugees-final.pdf/pg6

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closure of borders by some states affected the decline in the number of immigrants and refugees coming to Europe from the sea.

The measures taken have contributed to lowering the number of newcomers in Europe, however humanitarian organizations and human rights groups have pretended that there have also been created unforeseen consequences as a result of the measures taken. For many people seeking to relocate to Europe, the trip has been even more dangerous and has resulted fatal, while other people have remained in places where they face human rights abuses.

In fact, although fewer people are trying to relocate, the risk of death in the Mediterranean has increased because smugglers' networks use hazardous roads and methods using smaller and overcrowded ships. The trips of people who are forced to displace are filled with danger and fear. Some of them are banned by the authorities as soon as they enter in a new country. Many others face discrimination, racism, xenophobia, and the risk of falling victim to human trafficking and exploitation.¹⁸

The displaced crisis is something that has affected the conscience of all mankind. However, despite everything that has happened in these years of forced displacement, nobody has formally honored the victims. No special memory or a minute of silence has been devoted to the victims of today's barbarisms.¹⁹

It is now clear that the process of European integration is an extraordinary achievement in terms of sustainable economic development, social transformation, peace-keeping and cooperation between states. But despite these achievements, the European project has had its difficult moments, failures, disagreements, crises. The crisis of displaced persons in Europe highlighted its weaknesses. This crisis did not only test EU institutions and its rules, but also the political values of the Union.²⁰

CONCLUSIONS

The issue of displaced people requires a solution and in order to reach a solution, different measures need to be taken and different alternatives should be assessed for improving the situation of those desperate people who are forced to leave and face enormous difficulties and hazards.

The rights of displaced persons, whether migrants, refugees or asylum seekers, are protected by international law, regardless of how and why they arrive in a foreign country. They have the same rights as all human beings and, moreover, enjoy the special protection provided for them in various international acts.

Many experts have argued that one of the reasons why difficulties and catastrophic consequences for the displaced people have continued, is that the response of the international community in general and the response of international organizations

18 Refugees, Asylum-Seekers and Migrants, https://www.amnesty.org/en/what-we-do/refugees-asylum-seekers-and-migrants/?utm_source=google&utm_medium=cpc&gclid=EAlalQobChMma3xm6ij3AIVhPhR-Ch290QJGFAAYASAAEgJ-kfD_BwE.pg1

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is more focused on preventing newcomers than creating legal alternatives to reach Europe.²¹

In order that the refugee crisis to be given a solution, first of all, decision-makers, public opinion and all actors who are likely to be involved in this process should make real efforts and should take effective measures to anticipate this phenomenon in the future.²²

In addition to measures to prohibit the phenomenon in the future, in today situation, governments all over the world need to take over the management of the share they receive from a fair division of world responsibility for refugees. If there will be political will, state leaders will be able to protect people from conflict and persecution by systematizing them.

The salvation of life, the protection of displaced persons, the fight against traffickers and the replacement of irregular emigration with the organized one, finding legal and safe ways to settle displaced persons should be the basic objectives of the common policy of states. The path to solving this crisis should be built on these key objectives but also by expanding cooperation with other partners in the main transit countries of the displaced. This cooperation will lead to the interruption of smuggling and traffickers' networks, in combating the root causes of irregular migration, in helping migrants and refugees that remain in the middle of streets.²³

Governments should not force anyone to return to their country if they are at risk of violating human rights. Instead, displaced persons should be offered a safe place to live and employment opportunities, a place where they can live by having access to education and health care. The legal principle of non-refoulement implies that no one should be forced to return to a place where their lives or well-being may be at risk.²⁴

Another good way of managing the influx of displaced people can be the effective involvement of urban leaders in this process. Urban actors have an essential role to play in meeting the needs of displaced people and communities that host the newcomers. They should therefore engage in efforts to find and share best practices and in particular in the process of global improvement of refugee response and national refugee policy.²⁵

In every country there are many opportunities for exchanges between the incomes and the local population, but this requires refugees and locals to demonstrate culture

21 Frontline, The "Human Cost" of The EU's Response to the Refugee Crisis, by Priyanka Boghani Digital Reporter, January 23, 2018. <https://www.pbs.org/wgbh/frontline/article/the-human-cost-of-the-eus-response-to-the-refugee-crisis/pg4>

22 Michel Maietta, "The European Refugee Crisis: forecasting for 2018", *Humanitarian Alternatives*, n° 3, November 2016, p. 98-109. ISBN of the article (PDF) : 978-2-37704-141-1 <http://alternatives-humanitaires.org/en/2016/11/22/the-european-refugee-crisis-forecasting-for-2018/pg4>

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24 Refugees, Asylum-Seekers and Migrants, https://www.amnesty.org/en/what-we-do/refugees-asylum-seekers-andmigrants/?utm_source=google&utm_medium=cpc&gclid=EAlalQobChMma3xm6ij3AIVhPhR-Ch290QJGFAAYASAAEgJ-kfD_BwE.pg2

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and empathy as well as the will to challenge one another's positions.²⁶ Only in this way, the security which for some is considered to have been compromised by the newcomers, can be redefined and what is perceived as a crisis can be understood as an opportunity to create a something "that did not exist before".

The greatest challenge towards the settlement of the displaced people issues is to find long-term solutions to them. Voluntary turning back in their countries is a preferred long-term solution, but is a challenge to be realized due to the lack of political solutions to conflicts that hinder displaced people return to their homes.²⁷

The images that have accompanied and accompany the displaced people crisis have put in question the validity of the laws adopted by states to regulate international co-existence, have tested the morality of today's societies and the application of the principles of humanity in general.²⁸

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Decision-making and emotions: Is age important?

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ABSTRACT

Decision-making is a central activity of the management process. Making good decisions and their effective implementation determine the performance of the organization. The relationship between the organization and the environment is increasingly characterized by a high degree of uncertainty. Uncertainty means that managers do not have enough information and time to anticipate changes and make good decisions. The unpredictable environment increases the degree of complexity and requires the use of intuition in making a choice. In these circumstances the impact of emotions in the decision making process is inevitable.

Emotions are considered as a variable with an important impact on the individual's behavior. It is now accepted and empirically proven that emotions can lead to mistakes, but also help to make good decisions. Emotional-based decision making can be a real strategy, especially for complex situations. Thus, repeated emotions help decision makers to create implicit decision-making strategies, which are indispensable especially for unstructured decisions.

The current research focus on the role of emotions in the decision-making. More specifically, the main purpose is to merge existing results, to generate current findings and to elaborate some explanations of how emotions are correlated to age. From the results obtained we can state that there are no differences between young people and adults about the emotions before, during or after a decision is made. So, there is not a correlation between emotions and age.

KEYWORDS:

decision-making, intuition, emotions, age

1. INTRODUCTION

Stanovich and West (2008) distinguish two systems of thinking. System 1 refers to the intuitive thinking, which is typically fast, automatic, less tedious, implicit and emotional. By contrast, System 2 has to do with the logical thinking, which is slower, conscientious, requires more commitment and is explicit. In many situations, System 1 may be sufficient, in other cases is preferable System 2. The more busy the decision makers are and the more urgent is making a decision, the more preferable is System 1 of thinking. In fact, the practice shows that managers of different organizations use often the intuitive system.

The relationship between the organization and the environment is increasingly characterized by a high degree of uncertainty. Uncertainty means that managers do not have enough information and time to anticipate changes and make good decisions. The unpredictable environment increases the degree of complexity that organizations have to face. In these conditions, the only behavior that can guarantee the survival is high-level exploration and the ability to rapidly develop temporary structures that can exploit any opportunities that may arise. Organizations operating in a dynamic environment face rapid technological changes, products with short life cycles, the entry of powerful new competitors, frequent maneuvers of competitors to consolidate their position, rapid evolution of demand and expectations of customers. Since the degree of complexity and dynamism are high, the information is limited and the speed of making decisions become important. Adding the bounded rationality of managers, the decision-making is based on intuition, which means past experiences and emotions.

Emotions are seen as a variable with an inevitable impact on the individual's behavior. Through them can be understood and predicted how an individual will act. The functioning of the brain is realized on the basis of the interactions between three systems:

- The cognitive system, which recognizes the stimulus and the need to react or make a decision;
- Strategic system, which prepares the way of responding and is responsible for the individual's responses;
- Affective system, which has to do with emotions and mood.

The problems and situations faced by decision makers are different. Their attitudes and behaviors vary widely from one individual to another. Thus, when facing a problem, a decision maker can be optimistic and have confidence in his ability, but someone else may feel underconfident and pessimist. Another individual may show signs of anxiety and feel worry not only during the decision-making process, but also before or after making a decision. Another decision maker for the same situation can be comfortable and sure regarding the choice made.

2. AIM OF THE STUDY AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Decision-making models are many, but the most widespread model which is more closely aligned with reality is the behavioral model. According to this model, the



manager cannot have a complete information as stated in the classic model, but even if he had this information, his skills regarding the information processing are limited. So, this model emphasizes the bounded rationality as an obstacle to make optimal decisions. The decision maker acts under risk and uncertainty conditions. He does not know all the alternatives and cannot list all the consequences. Moreover, the decision made is influenced by how a given situation is perceived and the choice is considered satisfactory. The behavioral model emphasizes the intuitive decision-making. For all the aforementioned conditions, the use of analytical techniques is not possible, so the decision maker is forced to rely on past problems and proven alternatives, taking into account the emotions that accompany a particular situation.

The main goal of the current research is to understand if there are differences in the emotions due to age. The intention is to identify variables and elements and to discover possible relationships between them, so as to be able to define some general reflections about the emotions impact on decision-making. To support the main purpose, the research questions are as follows:

What is the age impact on the positive emotions that accompany decision-making?

Are there important differences between adults and young people regarding the negative emotions in the decision-making?

In consistency with the main goal and the research questions the hypothesis to be tested is formulated as below:

H₁: There is a positive correlation between emotions and age in the decision-making.

3. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Methods and tools

For the current investigation is adopted the quantitative research and for the data collection is used the questionnaire, which is designed to measure the emotional involvement in the decision-making. The model used is PANAS Scale of Watson, Clark and Tellegan (1988). The PANAS Scale includes in total 20 emotions, 10 positive emotions and 10 negative emotions. The questionnaire adopted for the current research includes 10 different emotions (5 positive emotions, 5 negative emotions) that must be evaluated on the Likert scale 1-5. To test the hypothesis of the research is first used the Pearson correlation coefficient and after is calculated the correlation coefficient of Spearman. The analysis is made on equal-interval scales, based on the sum of the scores for all the section of the questionnaire, but also reporting the results for each emotion.

3.2 Participants

The target population refers to the managers of different organizations operating in Albania. Regarding the selected population was considered appropriate to take into analysis, the managers of the tertiary sector as the most important and developed sector of the Albanian economy. Another important sampling criterion is the geographical one. Thus, the research is focused in Tirana and Durrës, as the two

most important cities of Albania with the higher number of organizations. A total of 250 questionnaires were distributed and 187 collected, with a response rate of 74.8 %.

Table 1: The distribution of participants by age

Age ranges	No.
20 - 29	35
30 - 39	52
40 - 49	57
50 - 60	43
Total	187

4. LITERATURE REVIEW

Often the choice is influenced by the emotions. The emotional burden can be important before, during or after a decision is made. Peters et al. (2000) argue that differences in the decision-making process due to age depend on affection and emotions, and they influence the adults more than young decision makers. Emotions are important especially when the decision maker has to assess the outcomes of the alternatives (Mather, 2006). More recently it has been shown that adults are more influenced by affective factors, especially in the information processing phase (Peters, Dieckmann and Weller, 2011).

It has been shown that the decisions of the adults in the financial domain are of lower quality than the financial decisions of young decision makers (Henninger, Madden and Huettel, 2010). On the other hand, Mather, Gorlick and Lighthall (2009) believe that adults perform better than young people and need less time, but the opposite happens when they have to perform and decide under stress. Roalf, Mitchell, Harbaugh and Janowsky (2011) have concluded that as age advances, the decision maker becomes less impulsive, more risk-averse and looks for more sensations. As Carstensen et al. (2000) argue, adults tend to preserve positive emotions over time, while negative emotions are few and short-term. The authors explained this with the fact that adults are more susceptible to time limits. Moreover, during the life cycle the change of objectives and motivations due to time limits directs adults towards positive emotions. So, adults see problems and situations in a positive light compared to young decision makers, which makes them subject to the positivity bias. This bias can improve decision-making by moving towards greater efficiency and creativity, but may also lead to greater risk aversion (Isen, 2001). According to Mather and Johnson (2000), adults are more inclined to remember elements that favor the chosen options instead of the options not chosen.

For complex situations, adult decision-makers demonstrate low concentration and consequently take less risks (Chagnon and McKelvie, 1992). Adults seem more cautious than young people (Lopatto et al., 1998). Caution is one of the most highlighted factors that limits the decision-making performance and can be described



as the hesitation in making decisions that may be bad (Salthouse, 1991). Lauriola and Levin (2001) hypothesized that the differences between adults and young people regarding the risk could be influenced by stress, but no differences were found in this regard between the two categories. This result is contradictory with the conclusions of Mather, Gorlick and Lighthall (2009) according to which stress leads adults to risk aversion, compared to young people in the context of an urgent decision.

The attitude towards risk may also be a consequence of the level of emotions that an individual is looking for (Zuckerman and Kuhlman, 1978). According to this conclusion we might think that because young people are always looking for new experiences and emotions, then they are more likely to risk than adults who become more cautious over time. Undoubtedly, emotions can influence risk behavior (Mather, 2006). But like Carstensen et al. (2000) have concluded, although over time negative emotions such as fear, anger, disgust and sadness decrease in adults, it is not possible to arrive at a general conclusion, because different negative emotions influence risk assumption in different ways. Thus, Lerner, Gonzalez, Small and Fischhoff (2003) believe that fear makes decision makers risk-averse, while anger leads them to risk aversion. Talking about emotions, regret is an important one and occurs when the decision maker realizes that the current situation could be better if he had decided otherwise. In this regard, adults feel more regret than young decision makers and consequently try often to avoid taking a decision or make a less risky choice (Mather, 2006). Contrary to this, Kim, Healy, Goldstein, Hasher and Wiprzycka (2008) have shown that adults may feel less regret because emphasize positivity when they have to interpret the outcomes of their decisions. In this context, it can be said that adults maintain high levels of satisfaction regarding their decisions compared to young people.

5. EMPIRICAL APPROACH

As noted earlier, the relationship age-emotion is complex. Starting from the results of empirical evidences we cannot formulate definitive conclusions. Some findings induce to think about a positive correlation between the two variables, others to a negative correlation. We formulated the hypothesis to be tested as follows:

H₁: There is a positive correlation between emotions and age in the decision-making

Table 2: Correlation coefficient for age-emotion 1

			Age	a. Emotion 1: Interested
Spearman's rho	Age	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	-.003
		Sig. [2-tailed]	.	.961
		N	187	187
	a. Emotion 1: Interested	Correlation Coefficient	-.003	1.000
		Sig. [2-tailed]	.961	.
		N	187	187

As shows the Table 2, there is not a correlation statistically important between age and being interested regarding the decision-making (Sig.= p = 0.961 > 0.05). The correlation coefficient of Spearman is negative, but statistically very weak (r_s = -0.003). So, referring to this emotion there are not differences between adults and young decision makers.

Table 3: Correlation coefficient for age-emotion 2

			Age	b. Emotion 2: Determined
Spearman's rho	Age	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	-.043
		Sig. [2-tailed]	.	.505
		N	187	187
	b. Emotion 2: Determined	Correlation Coefficient	-.043	1.000
		Sig. [2-tailed]	.505	.
		N	187	187

Table 3 indicates that there is not a relationship statistically important between age and the being determined about the decision made (Sig.= p = 0.505 > 0.05). Referring to Spearman's coefficient, this correlation is negative, but statistically very weak (r_s = -0.043).

Table 4: Correlation coefficient for age-emotion 3

			Age	c. Emotion 3: Proud
Spearman's rho	Age	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.073
		Sig. [2-tailed]	.	.251
		N	187	187
	c. Emotion 3: Proud	Correlation Coefficient	.073	1.000
		Sig. [2-tailed]	.251	.
		N	187	187

As in the Table 4 above, the results obtained, indicate an impact statistically insignificant of age on the third emotion: feeling proud (Sig.= p = 0.251 > 0.05). The coefficient of Spearman indicates this relationship as positive, but the correlation is once again very weak (r_s = 0.073).

Table 5: Correlation coefficient for age-emotion 4

			Age	d. Emotion 4: Enthusiastic
Spearman's rho	Age	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	-.008
		Sig. [2-tailed]	.	.902
		N	187	187
	d. Emotion 4: Enthusiastic	Correlation Coefficient	-.008	1.000
		Sig. [2-tailed]	.902	.
		N	187	187

As shows Table 5, the correlation coefficient of Spearman is negative, but the correlation very weak. There are no differences between adult and young decision makers in feeling enthusiastic before, during or after a choice is made (Sig.= p = 0.902 > 0.05, $r_s = -0.008$).

Table 6: Correlation coefficient for age-emotion 5

			Age	e. Emotion 5: Inspired
Spearman's rho	Age	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	-.016
		Sig. [2-tailed]	.	.803
		N	187	187
	e. Emotion 5: Inspired	Correlation Coefficient	-.016	1.000
		Sig. [2-tailed]	.803	.
		N	187	187

As shows Table 6, the correlation coefficient of Spearman is negative, but the correlation very weak. There are no differences between adult and young decision makers in feeling inspired before, during or after a choice is made (Sig.= p = 0.803 > 0.05, $r_s = -0.016$).

Table 7: Correlation coefficient for age-emotion 6

			Age	f. Emotion 6: Irritable
Spearman's rho	Age	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.010
		Sig. [2-tailed]	.	.873
		N	187	187
	f. Emotion 6: Irritable	Correlation Coefficient	.010	1.000
		Sig. [2-tailed]	.873	.
		N	187	187

Referring to Table 7 we note a statistically irrelevant correlation between age and the tendency of being irritable regarding the decision making process. The correlation coefficient of Spearman is positive, but shows that between the two variables there is no correlation (Sig = p = 0.873 > 0.05; $r_s = 0.01$).

Table 8: Correlation coefficient for age-emotion 7

			Age	g. Emotion 7: Distressed
Spearman's rho	Age	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	-.031
		Sig. [2-tailed]	.	.623
		N	187	187
	g. Emotion 7: Distressed	Correlation Coefficient	-.031	1.000
		Sig. [2-tailed]	.623	.
		N	187	187

As shows the Table 8, there is not a correlation statistically important between age and being distressed before, during or after a decision is made (Sig.= p = 0.623 > 0.05). The correlation coefficient of Spearman is negative, but statistically very weak ($r_s = -0.031$). So, referring to this emotion there are not differences between adult and young decision makers.

Table 9: Correlation coefficient for age-emotion 8

			Age	h. Emotion 8: Nervous
Spearman's rho	Age	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.011
		Sig. [2-tailed]	.	.862
		N	187	187
	h. Emotion 8: Nervous	Correlation Coefficient	.011	1.000
		Sig. [2-tailed]	.862	.
		N	187	187

Table 9 indicates that there is not a relationship statistically important between age and the tendency to feel nervous regarding the decision-making (Sig.= p = 0.862 > 0.05). Referring to Spearman's coefficient, this correlation is positive, but statistically very weak ($r_s = 0.011$).

Table 10: Correlation coefficient for age-emotion 9

			Age	i. Emotion 9: Guilty
Spearman's rho	Age	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.099
		Sig. [2-tailed]	.	.120
		N	187	187
	i. Emotion 9: Guilty	Correlation Coefficient	.099	1.000
		Sig. [2-tailed]	.120	.
		N	187	187

As in the Table 8 above, the results obtained, indicate an impact statistically insignificant of the age on the eighth emotion on the questionnaire (Sig.= p = 0.120 > 0.05). The coefficient of Spearman indicates this relationship as positive, but the correlation is once again very weak ($r_s = 0.099$).

Table 11: Correlation coefficient for age-emotion 10

			Age	j. Emotion 10: Ashamed
Spearman's rho	Age	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	-.094
		Sig. [2-tailed]	.	.141
		N	187	187
	j. Emotion 10: Ashamed	Correlation Coefficient	-.094	1.000
		Sig. [2-tailed]	.141	.
		N	187	187



Table 11 indicates that there is not a relationship statistically important between age and the tendency to feel ashamed regarding the decision made (Sig. = $p = 0.141 > 0.05$). Referring to Spearman's coefficient, this correlation is negative, but statistically very weak ($r_s = -0.094$).

6. CONCLUSIONS

The current research was focused on the emotions in the decision-making process, which are considered an important factor that influences the decision effectiveness. More specifically, through this investigation we tried to understand if the presence of emotions before, during or after a choice is made is impacted by age. The basic idea of the study is that a certain level of emotions will always be present, but if it is exaggerated then the consequences on the decision-making process are negative. We must not forget that especially negative emotions causes stress and both positive and negative emotions affect the behavior of the decision maker in the future.

On the basis of an intuitive discussion and the findings of previous investigations, we hypothesized that there is an important positive correlation between emotions and age. From the results obtained it can be concluded that emotions are independent of age. This can be said both for positive emotions and negative emotions. The emotions referring to the decision-making process are largely studied both in management and psychology. However, we think that the correlation between emotions and age requires still contributions.

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TURKEY – CYPRUS – AEGEAN TRINITY, THE CORESTONE OF THE GREEK FOREIGN POLICY

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ABSTRACT:

Turkey - Cyprus - Aegean Trinity constitutes the Greece's existential basin in foreign, domestic and national security. Over this trinity is build the maneuverability space in the long and short run, Greece's development area, defense and power projecting. The nature of this sacred and difficult trinity poses a constant challenge that Greece must face with, because this system constitutes a complex balance and reports with an unequal distribution of power. From the perspective of Greece's foreign, internal, and security policy, the founding elements of the trinity that are indivisible, interdependent and influential to each other are seen as: Turkey, together with the sub-issues, is a priority issue for national security, foreign and domestic policy for Greece. Cyprus, along with the islands of Crete, Corfu, Sicily (during the ancient times), formed the control angles of the Aegean in ancient Greece, and today, therefore who controls Cyprus, projects power in the Middle East and South Anatolia. The Aegean Sea, along with its elements, is existential for trade, defense, transportation and communication. For Greeks, "There is no Greece without Aegean".

KEY WORDS:

Greece foreign policy, security, Aegean, Turkey, Cyprus

INTRODUCTION

Greek-Turkish relations are characterized historically as difficult one and with a lot of territorial contradictions for specific areas in the Aegean Sea regarding the sovereignty of the sea and air space over the islands, as well as the extension of the vital space over these areas. The permanent conflict between the two countries stands over deep and historical couches and with divergence and great inequalities. This relationship has some clashes inherited to the past, territorial claims, the role of religion in this relation and the engagement of third-party actors from both sides in view of potential Greek-Turkish diplomatic or military confrontation.

RELATIONS WITH TURKEY

One of the phenomena that has an impact on bilateral relations is the exchange of populations between Greece and Turkey. This exchange, started mainly during the 1920s, effecting around 2,000,000 people and the number would largely exceed if there are included the expelled Armenian refugees. In Europe and within the borders of the new Greek state, expanded in 1913 with Epirus, Southern Macedonia, Western Thrace, Aegean and Crete islands, the Muslim element was relatively small, about 400,000 people. A well-known Muslim group was the one in Crete that consisted of about 25,000 individuals who spoke Greek and did the same kind of lifestyle as well-known populations, as Orthodox from religion (Blanchard, 2007). In the East were Armenians, whose numbers before the war was estimated at 2,000,000 living in the eastern plateau, excluding 200,000 to 300,000 located in the villages of Sivas, Trebizond, Angora and Adana. Greeks, were located predominantly along the Aegean coasts, accounted between 150,000 and 200,000 in the Trebizond region, smaller groups resided on the southern shores, and a large grouping on the western coast and the plains, perhaps one million and a half in Brusa and in the Rhodes area (Blanchard, 2007).

Article 2 of the Lausanne Treaty exempted the Greeks of Constantinople, which were defined as follows: "All Greeks, who were already stationed before October 30, 1918, within the sub-prefectures of the city of Constantinople, as determined by the law of the year 1912, will be considered as Greek residents of Constantinople" (Coufoudakis, 2008). Thus, the largest number of its most prominent and richer residents will remain in the city. However, Turkish delegates in the commissions raised concerns over the term "established", which by being covetous it restricts the interpretation. Debates ranging the estimated number 50 000 to 100 000 people were opposed in the presence of the Greek delegation and the debate over this the issue became really sharp (Coufoudakis, 2008).

The dispute over the definition of Orthodox residents of Constantinople was presented before the League of Nations, where by November 25, 1924, some 35,000 Greeks had left already Constantinople and to this number should be added another 18,500 people from the rest of European Turkey. During the years 1924-1926,



a large number of refugees arrived in Greece and the figure is estimated to be from 300 000 to 1 500 000 (Blanchard, 2007). From the two countries, Greece obviously had the greatest advantage because it received a much larger number of people can be estimated at about 1 500 000, a figure that could be even greater if we count the Christians who left Constantinople. Greece expelled in exchange only 353,000 Muslims (Blanchard, 2007).

The transfer has populated Greece with at least 1,100,000 people, a significant figure for a country whose population in 1920 was estimated at 5,500,000 (Blanchard, 2007). A sensitive element of the bilateral relationship is the Thracian Muslim residents of Thrace and the Greek Patriarchate Headquarters in Istanbul, who are often labeled as the bridge between the two nations, religions and cultures, and seen as a constructive element in the relations between the two states. State visits include in their agendas, respectively visits of the Greeks in the Patriarchate and the visit of the Turks to Thrace. The fact that the Ecumenical Patriarchate is located in the most important Muslim city of Turkey is seen as an element of positive coexistence between Muslims and Christians. On the other hand, Greece has not been readily open to granting permission to erect a mosque in Athens, which would help ease the relationship between religions. Officially in the Greek Constitution it is said that Greece is the state of all Greeks, leaving the undefined presence of national, ethnic, religious and linguistic minorities unclear. In relations between the two countries, for Ankara, the presence of the Turkish minority in East Thrace, cannot be avoided.

Turkey request from Greece to officially recognize and grant the status to this minority, a burden deriving from the Lausanne Treaty of 1923 and allow them to use the national identity and Turkish language. Moreover, Ankara accuses Athens for not granting the minority status to the Turks of Thrace and this is a violation of the European Convention on the Rights of Minorities and Ankara states that, Athens is the only EU country to openly violate this convention, even by making up an precedence, as the only country that does not collect official statistics for ethnicities living in the country. As the result of the Treaty of Lausanne, this community has conditioned the relations between the two countries, although Greece does not officially recognize it as a minority, every single visits by the Turkish officials to Greece include a visit to Thrace. Greece is justified by the fact that the constitution of the country has determined such a legal conditionality. The fact that this community is almost 130,000 makes Ankara's claim on their status more legitimate.

In 1998 Athens made a statement that angered the Turks of Thrace and Ankara as well, where Simitis stated that "Thrace community is Muslim but not Turkish" (giving it a religious and non-national character). What hampers most the position of the Turks of Thrace was Article 19 of the Greek Law on Greek Nationality, which was in force from 1958 to 1998. A law that did not recognize to the Turks the right to Greek citizenship, when Turks of Thrace traveled outside of Greece for work, visit or education, in return to Greece is was communicated that they had lost the Greek citizenship. Although this law was abolished by the Greek Parliament in 1998, it has a gap because it does not specify the ways of its implementation. As the result of this legal action it is significantly reduced the number of Turks in Thrace (Coufoudakis,

2008). As a counterbalance, the existence of the Greek minority in Istanbul was seen by Athens with much concern, because from the census of 1999, their figure resulted about 3 500. Athens claims that they have been subjected to constant repression by Ankara, which is often expressed by the restrictions imposed by Turkey on the activity of the Greek Patriarchate of Istanbul.

The document on which is conducted the exchange of populations between Greece and Turkey is the Lausanne Treaty, signed on 24 July 1923, which was a landmark for the region because:

- laid the foundations for peace in the region after a decade of war;
- this treaty marked the end of "Megali-Idea";
- resolved many open issues of territorial character;
- forced Turkey to give up claims on territories such as Cyprus;
- contributed to ethnic cohesion in Greece and Turkey through massive exchanges of populations. These exchanges affected more than 1.5 million Greek citizens and half a million Turkish citizens; guaranteed a number of important rights of non-Muslim minorities living in Turkey;
- clearly defined the rights of the Eastern Orthodox Patriarchate of Istanbul;
- sanctioned a clear legal, religious and administrative rights for the Greeks of Imbros and Tenedos, who had been exempted from the provisions of the treaty on the exchange of populations (Coufoudakis, 2008).

Greek researchers argue that later developments arising from the Great Depression, World War II, and later the Cold War forced the Great Powers, for reasons of strategic character, to close their eyes in the face of the threat of ethnic cleansing of the Greek population of Imbros and Tenedos. For the Greek side, the Greek island population is subject to the Lausanne Treaty, which enables them all the rights for which the Greek side seeks to respect the letter and the spirit of the treaty on a constant basis. But Greek scholars highlight the concern for assimilation through the tactics of the 1960s used by the Turkish side on the island population as follows (Coufoudakis, 2008):

- intimidation,
- expulsion,
- confiscation of property and expropriation,
- denial of educational and religious rights,
- denying economic opportunities,
- resolution and demographic change,
- destruction of religious and cultural heritage, including the change of names historic towns and villages.

The above tactics constitute the basis of the violation of the Lausanne Treaty for Greek scholars, even they equate these techniques with those used by the Turkish side in the occupied part of Cyprus since 1974. The minority rights in Turkey will be part of the European perspective agenda especially at the focus of the EU Commission's and the member states. In addition to the problems inherited from the past and Cyprus, there are four other contested primary areas between Greece and Turkey, such as:

- disputes over the extension of territorial waters in the Aegean;
- disputes over the territorial airspace;

- disagreements over continental shelf rights;
- disagreements over the militarization of some Aegean islands from Greece. Since 1974, the military forces of the two countries have been set in full combat readiness in 1987, 1994 and 1996 and have been struggling to avoid the war between Greece and Turkey (Akiman, 2002).

For Athens, although Ankara remained the main focus of its security and foreign policy concerns, Greek security policy vis-à-vis Turkey began to change in the late 1990s due to Greece's new strategic needs and priorities which mainly concerned Turkey's ability to fully integrate into the EU. Greece will use a sophisticated approach to Turkey's EU accession, linking Turkey's progress with Brussels and Greece's bilateral problems with Ankara and Cyprus. This strategy would turn bilateral Greek-Turkish issues into a European affair, but will also Europeanize itself Greece's foreign policy and other related actors (Economides, 2005).

From the economic point of view, this would allow for more intensive cooperation and greater trade exchanges, naturally coupled with political contacts. From a military point of view, Greece will work for a wedge-wing military cooperation within NATO with Turkey as an opportunity to boost mutual trust. With a Turkey's integrated into the European integration system, Greece hopes to alleviate Turkish nationalist elites and make them have a more tolerant attitude towards Greece. The Greek diplomatic engagement with Turkey is seen as a strategy that aims to develop intensive and multi-stakeholder contacts rather than a concrete objective, but which is conducive to intensive communication. The problem lies in the fact that the tactic of engagement does not recognize any positive reaction form when the relations between the two countries worsen, rather than knowing what should not be done in such situations. (Ifanites, 2005)

In Greece's academic and diplomatic circles are thinking that the control strategy may be the best strategy with Turkey (Ifanites, 2005). The goal of this strategy is to avoid Turkey's economic, political and diplomatic strengthening ahead of Greece. This strategy involves the slowing down of Turkey's European integration by bringing consequently the decline of the Turkish influence sphere. The control strategy assumes that allowing Turkey to expand its relationship with Europe will not make it change its behavior, moreover it will encourage Turkish leadership, making an eventual crash with Greece even more possible (Ifanites, 2005).

Finding the Balance or the Need for Sophistication as a strategy for policymaking in Athens means combining the two above strategies: engagement and control. Keeping Turkey engaged in European integration processes in the hope of reforming the aggressive approach, but at the same time controlling Turkish power constitutes the strategy of balanced engagement. In order to succeed in balanced engagement and in the face of a possible Greek-Turkish conflict for Cyprus and the Aegean, Greece will have to operate in four directions:

- It should dig Turkey more and more in deep European integration processes;
- Greece has to guide the stabilization and democratization processes in the Balkan-Mediterranean region as an integrated sub-system;

To engage Turkey in many strong multilateral structures that are designed to

accommodate and satisfy national needs;

A strong Greece economically, politically and above all, with high military capabilities would thus pose a risk in a possible escalation (eg, collision with Turkey in Cyprus) extremely high for Ankara (Ifanites, 2005).

GREECE AND CYPRUS WITH A COMMON DEFENSE AND SECURITY DOCTRINE

Cyprus is the other element of trinity and has always been the dilemma that has prevailed the Greek-Turkish and Turkish-EU relations over the last 40 years. Ottoman Empire ruled Cyprus from 1571 to 1878 when the British took control of the island, which lasted until the signing of the Zurich Treaty when the Republic of Cyprus was founded in July 1960. The British in 1950 refused to deal with the demands and the Greek national Cypriot sentiment for self-determination. As soon as the British began to move towards meeting the Greco-Cypriot demands, the demands of Turkish-Cypriot nationalists reached the point of non-negotiable. Solving the problem was initially seen in the development of a common consciousness of the two nation state, but soon settled disputes between the two ethnicities as a result of the use of Turkish Cypriots from Britain as auxiliary police in British campaigns against General George Grivas and EOKA (the National Organization of Cypriot Fighters). Britain's use of army against the EOKA movement brought a split within the NATO alliance and placed Greece in front of Turkey. Britain's action had and still has today its effects on the Cypriot issue, because unification with Greece or a two-nation solution to an independent island requires the confirmation of both ethnicities, but when both ethnicities were put by the British to face each other, the issue will end up to bloodshed.

The possibility of an independent island immediately placed Ankara on alert, because it considered such an action illegal and a centralized unitary island, part of Greece (as Griva would have liked) would bring a high Greek military presence on the island, which is only 43 miles away from Turkey. The Zurich-London Accord of July 1960 ended the first phase of the Greco-Cypriot battle and demolishes the EOKA movement dream to establish an independent Cyprus under their control. However, they did not succeed in fulfilling their maximal demand for uniting with Greece. The Zurich-London accord was signed by all parties, but it was not the product of a negotiation between the two main parties, Greece and Turkey, as such, this accord was destined to fail. To the failure of this accord were not only interested the two countries, but also the two ethnicities living in Cyprus (Bahcheli, 2000). On the basis of the accord, it was agreed that Cyprus would be an independent and sovereign state, ally with Greece and Turkey, but not a NATO member. The Republic of Cyprus was ordered to give up both forms: (Enosis) union with Greece and (Taksim) separation between Greece and Turkey (Bahcheli, 2000). In accordance with Article I of the Guarantee Treaty, political or economic union with any other State was specifically prohibited. In accordance with paragraphs 1 and 2 of Article 185 of the Constitution of the Republic of Cyprus of 1960, "the territory of the Republic was one and indivisible" and "the integral or partial union of Cyprus with another state or a separatist independence was excluded". Article II of the Guarantee Treaty reiterated the prohibition of point 22

of the Zurich agreement against the unification or division of the island.

But the events on the Greek-Cypriot side sparked the establishment of a Turkish-Cypriot interim administration on 24 December 1967 and the installation on 13 February 1975 of a suspected Cypriot-state federation that resulted in the violation of all signed agreements from Ankara as co-sponsoring. In accordance with Article IV of the Guarantee Treaty, each of the guarantors reserves the right to take unilateral action, if necessary, but only “with the sole purpose: the reinstatement of the status established by the Treaty”. After the military junta in Greece, which followed in Cyprus, it was accompanied by the change of the island’s political leadership from the generals, and the Turks living in the north faced the resistance of the Greek army. The intervention by the Turkish army, which undertook a peacekeeping operation, also led to the physical separation of the island. In the 1974 negotiations between the two countries, among the variants that were presented was a federal Cyprus with a Greek president, vice-president, and a government cabinet consisting of 7/3 advancing the Greeks (Bolickbaz, 2008).

After rejecting the above proposal, in 1974, the northern part of the country declared independence. This independence was recognized only by Turkey and the separation that existed led to deep diplomatic division between the two countries. The division of Cyprus and the solution given to it, is a major challenge for both countries. On one side we have Turkey, with a potential military advantage over Greece, on the other side we have Greece which has diplomatic and political guarantees, and this situation has become the symbol of the island division. Turkey has not called or pressured the other countries she has diplomatic relations to recognize Turkish Cypriot state because it seems that Ankara is not interested for an independent Cyprus. Turkey is interested in having a free hand in Turkish Cypriot state and step by step to build up the idea of legitimating that Cyprus in an integral part of the territory of the Republic of Turkey.

The importance of Cyprus is vital for the entire Eastern Mediterranean and Middle East region. For Turkey, Cyprus and Crete have the same importance as they serve as a static aircraft carrier in the Mediterranean Sea and can be used as a military base to control the Mediterranean and Anatolia (Davutoglu, 2010). The airspace of Cyprus and Crete are an important junction of air routes linking Europe with Asia, the Middle East with the Caucasus, so this position of Cyprus makes Turkey extremely interested for the island (Turkish MFA). Many Western observers agree with the idea that Ankara had a strong cause under international law for its initial deployment of July 20, 1974. The Turkish deployment is conducted in full support of international agreements and articles 2; 1 and 2; 4 of the UN Chart. They made requests for preliminary consultations with interested parties when Turkish Prime Minister Bulent Ecevit flew to London before his troops deployed in Cyprus. If we refer to the right enjoyed by the guarantor powers to intervene individually or collectively to secure the previous status, Turkey’s action was justified because time indicated that the coup d’état of 15 July 1974 was intended to the annexation of Cyprus by Greece in contradiction and with the Zurich-London Accord.

Until 1974, the island passed a difficult period of clashes between the Greeks making up 80% of the island and Turks, which make up 18% of it. The co-governance

of the island was very difficult, in the conditions when Greeks did not accept that Turks, with only 18% of the population they have 30% of government, parliament and 30% of public wealth. The archaic diplomacy of Archbishop Makarios III, who served as the first President of the Republic of Cyprus, was the last example of a remarkable Byzantine tradition, which served as archbishop and president at the same time. Makarios became a symbol of the captivity of this old tradition, as he was unable to separate the church from the state. His greatest dilemma was to serve Greek-Cypriots as religious leaders, and to all Cypriots of the state as secular president.

This titan clash will already open the great challenge of Greece: that of continuous military, political-tactical engagement and the ongoing engagement strategy in the Aegean (Kassimeris, 2008). To respond to the challenges, Greece opens the expansive spending chapter to maintain the status quo in the Aegean and to increase responsive capacities to aggressive and clearly dominant Turkey. Involvement in this vortex, where Greece cannot accept the conditions, will turn Greece quickly into a client country and subject to the US, UK and French war lobby.

For many decades, the island’s situation has remained pending and the process of unification of the island, although there have been some intensive efforts and talks to move towards a lasting settlement, efforts have failed to materialize. The 2017 talks in Switzerland did not produce anything, even though they were led by the UN Secretary General Antonio Guterres, where it became clear that the two main problems remain: the military presence on both sides of the island and the lack of will for a federal state co-led by both parties.

The West has pursued three main lines for the Cypriot issue: the British have been interested in the maritime routes of their empire and having a military base in Cyprus; Greeks and Greco-Cypriots have never wanted their issue to become part of the NATO roundtables because the alliance could go for Ankara as a country with greater military capabilities and contributions to NATO and more recently to the US and Britain weakening the eastern wing of NATO is at a disadvantage and a risk to the alliance. The division of the powers of the alliance between Athens and Ankara has brought as a product the failure to resolve the problem and has often put the alliance itself in a vain and helpless position to solve the problem. Cyprus’s geostrategic significance for the great powers and interests clashing with it has been a constant object of the fate of the island and this has brought the engagement of these powers into the Cypriot issue.

AEGEAN BASIN AND COMPLEX CHALLENGES

The Aegean is the third element of the trinity, which itself is linked to a complexity of issues, such as the delimitation of the Territorial Sea, the delimitation of the Continental Shelf, the Exclusive Economic Zone, the airspace, the civil and military traffic management and militarization of the islands. Often, the Aegean is considered to be the most fragile point of bilateral relations and the test ground where force is demonstrated, the pulse is tested and the strategy is setup on the opponent. For Greeks, “There is no Greece without the Aegean”. The Aegean Islands are divided into six main groups: the Northern Aegean, the Northern Sporades, Cyclades, the Eastern Aegean,

the Dodecanese and the Southern Aegean. These islands occupy an area of nearly 23,000 km², which is about 10% of the total area of the Aegean Sea (Davutoglu, 2010). In 1931, Greece declared the width of its territorial waters to 10 miles, but this step was not well received by the Great Powers, which urged Greece to reduce its 6-mile latitude to its territorial waters and in 1936, Greece decided to keep the limit of 6 miles, a limit that is still in force. Greece's strategic objective is to take the advantage of the extension the current 6-mile Territorial Sea, to 12 miles, as this extension would add to Greece's maritime and air space, the Exclusive Economic Zone and the Continental Shelf, which enables exploitation of underwater assets and natural resources. Currently the Aegean is divided according to these figures: 7.5% belongs to Turkey, Greece owns 43.5%, and 49% is the international sea. The full implementation of the Montego Bay Convention gives Greece the opportunity to use from 43.5% currently to 71.5% of the Aegean, 8.7% of the Aegean for Turkey and 19.2% for international sea (Bahcheli, 1999). This fact is unacceptable in any circumstance by Turkey, which claims that through the implementation of the 12 mile latitude provided by this convention, the Aegean will return to an inland Greek sea.

According to Ankara, full implementation of these criteria of the convention would bring losses to Turkey and will drastically reduce international waters between the two states. Consequently, access to the ports of Istanbul and Izmir would be limited to the maximum. Greece in a way to make the situation legitimate and to increase the possibility of its actions ratified in parliament the new law no. 2321, on June 1, 1995, recognizing the right to extend the Territorial Sea from 6 to 12 miles at a convenient time. On June 7 of that year, the Turkish parliament ratified a resolution that charged the government with the protection of Turkey's territorial waters and air space in the Aegean by any means if it releases that Turkish sovereignty is being compromised. The direct result of this Turkish parliamentary decision is the political stance of the Greek presidency, where no Greek president has been paying official visits to Turkey since 1995, expressing Athens' state protest.

In 1995, Turkey accused Greece of preparing the population of the Aegean Islands, which do not have a clear legal and political status, even in its view; this is in contravention of the Treaty of Peace between Italy and Greece, which clearly defines that they should be demilitarized. Ankara considers these islands and the areas around them as gray zones, without a legal status, but Greece considers it part of its sovereignty. As a response, in January 1996, following an incident involving a Turkish cargo ship, Turkey stated that the island of Kardak (Imia for the Greeks) belongs to Turkey and this brought a strong reaction from Athens. For Ankara is unacceptable that islands, which are only 3.8 miles from its shore to belong to Athens. In a way to address this issue Turkey has stated that this is an issue that will be resolved by negotiation between the two countries because Ankara don't want to send the case on ICJ because the ICJ, will operate under the Convention and as a result it will recognize the sovereign rights to Greece, but Athens has stated that this issue is a non-negotiable. The ICJ ruling is not binding on Turkey, which has chosen to operate on its own through force, dominance and the use of real-politics.

Athens is very clear that unilaterally, through the use of force, it cannot solve

the issue of sovereignty over the Aegean, and it is also clear that Ankara cannot tolerate at any moment to recognize full sovereignty of Greece over the Aegean. The current status quo seems to be the best solution for both countries, although it does not guarantee stability in bilateral relations (Davutoglu, 2010). Sovereignty over the Aegean has brought a scary armed race between the two countries and has made this area highly militarized. Billions of dollars of investment in military technology and the construction of navy and air force infrastructure have dramatically increased the impact on Greece's state budget (Davutoglu, 2010). Greece finds support on international law and in the bilateral framework, such as: the Treaty of 10 February 1947 on peace with Italy, which granted 12 islands on Dodecanese and some rocky islets to Greece, leaving an open territorial fire between the two countries by not defining clearly the list of rocky islets that belongs to Greece (Davutoglu, 2010).

The situation in the Aegean is also influenced by a number of geo-strategic factors, as Turkey lies into the vital space between Greece and Russia, measures the region and the two countries' pulse through the two strategic straits, by displacing the major geopolitical tension on another level. Greece does the same with Turkey through the Aegean Islands, limiting its vital space and maritime strategy (Davutoglu, 2010). But the significant improvement of relations between Turkey and Russia has changed dynamics in the region and beyond, positioning Turkey in alliance with Russia. Turkey's diplomatic strategy, initiated by former Foreign Minister Ahmet Davutoglu, aimed at zero problems with its neighbors, seemed to produce a temporary normality in relations between the two countries, and the Aegean demilitarization projects were the product of this initiative. Any improvement of the climate of relations between Greece and Turkey is assessed by both the two countries and the EU partners, who see the normalization of this relationship as vital for the region and beyond. The Platform, which puts in place the eventual crisis in the Aegean, normalizes relations and consolidates bilateral relations is the Greek-Turkey Strategic Partnership Council, which has held 6 intergovernmental meetings with the participation of prime ministers and ministers from both countries discussing and advanced issues from all areas.

Under the UN Convention on the Law of the Sea (UNCLOS), which was signed in 1982 and entered into force in Greece in 1995, the signatory states have the right to extend their territorial waters up to in 12 miles. Greece, unlike Turkey, is a signatory to the UNCLOS Convention and it considers defining the territorial waters as a sovereign right and claims to expand its territorial waters at a convenient time. Greece does not apply the basic principle of setting its Territorial Sea boundary, but automatically applies the normal line, which is the water's edge to every coast, and its territorial waters go 6 miles from the coast. Turkey has not signed the Convention and Ankara considers this threatening Greek act as *casus belli*. Greece argues that Turkish positioning such as *casus belli* is in contrary to Article 2, paragraph 4 of the UN Charter, under which members can not threaten the territorial integrity of others. Turkey claims that its position stems from Article 300 of UNCLOS, according to which the parties may exercise the rights recognized by UNCLOS, but without abusing their rights. Turkey insists that to carry maritime transport between Turkish ports, it will

need permission from the Greek side if Greece extends its territorial waters up to 12 miles. According to Turkey, the Aegean is a semi-enclosed sea that requires the implementation of special rules. Greece does not consider the Aegean as a half-closed sea, so it makes the twelve-mile limit applicable, according to her (Gursoy, 2009).

Greece supports the thesis of territorial integrity, according to which islands and continental lands form a continuous unit. Turkey, on the other hand, supports drawing a line between continental Greek and Turkish land masses to determine their respective maritime boundaries. The issues of the Continental Shelf and the Territorial Sea are closely linked, while most of the Aegean quarrels have been centered on the Continental Shelf, the Territorial Sea issue is the one the most vital to Turkey. Two issues are irrelevant, as the alleged shelf distance claimed by Greece will automatically increase if it is able to enforce a 12-mile territorial claim. The status quo review, if the two coastal states are to extend their 12-mile territorial waters, will have an impact on the submarine and the Greek continental land of thousands of Greek islands scattered in the Aegean.

On Christmas Day 1995, a Turkish cargo ship lurking in the sand on a rocky island in the northern Dodecanese islands, produced a chain of events that would lead Greece and Turkey on the brink of war. As soon as it fell to the rocks, the Turkish captain of the ship asked for help, and there was soon a Greek ship that, besides providing help, made it clear that he had entered the Greek waters. That was enough to launch a crisis on a small island stretching 3.8 miles from the Turkish coast and 5.3 miles from the Greek coast of the island of Kalimnos. Ankara, in addition to Greek claims for naval space, has also rejected claims on airspace over the Aegean and, for Turkish leadership; Greece abuses the right to hold Flight Information Region (FIR) on the Aegean. According to Turkey, Greece violates the 1944 Chicago Convention on FIR when it requires flight plans for flights of Turkish military and civilian aircraft in the international Aegean space. Also, Turkey has refused to accept the Greek 10-mile claim as the boundary of its airspace in the Aegean, as it does not correspond to the six miles that Greece enjoys as maritime borders.

In strategic terms, the Aegean clash for Greece is a key national security priority because it relies on rivalry with Turkey, Cyprus and the use of marine and air space, as well as maritime affairs. For Turkey, the issue has no military character, but only political, and Turkey sees it as genuine as such and not as a clash of force (Gursoy, 2009). The diplomatic exchange of notes in 1996 between Turkey and Greece, where Turkey was in the dilemma of the island's ownership, was seen as a withdrawal from Turkey, which argued the ambiguity over the island's ownership, derives from the Lausanne Treaty of 1923 and that of Paris in 1947. But the fact that Turkey did not show de facto claims for the island, for Greece the issue was more serious because it could bring into question all other similar Aegean islands and, consequently, the territorial integrity of the country. Greece's Foreign Ministry estimated that the Ministry of Defense should increase surveillance in the area, and during this period in which Turkey waited for diplomatic responses for the note of 16 to 18 January 1996 on the island's ownership, the Mayor of Kalimnos on January 20 went to Imia and raised the Greek flag. A few days after the start of the incident, Prime Minister Chiller in Turkey

ordered the National Security Council meeting on the situation. From this meeting, Turkey reevaluated the position, reiterating the claim that Kardak/Imia is Turkish and that many other Aegean islands are in dispute. To place Greece in weaknesses position, the Turkish army units deployed to northern Cyprus settled along the green line and repositioned for the Aegean battle.

This tactical movement put Greece in a delicate position, because an uninhabited island is now questioning all the Aegean border islands and, above all, the status quo of Cyprus, moving to a new phase of conflict and immediately the Greek-Cypriot Chief of Staff of the Armed Forces called for the establishment of a common defense doctrine with Greece. This proved once again that the Aegean is related with several issues: demilitarization of maritime and air space, Cyprus and national security. For Greece, maintaining sovereignty lies on the basis of relations with Turkey and in this case, the Greek military elite proposed to the leadership not to withdraw from the Turkish pressure, because if the precedent was created, many balances would be shifted and questioned (Hickok, 2008). The crisis broke out a few weeks later, where Simitis and Demirel signed during the NATO Summit on July 9, 1997 the "Peaceful Relationship and Bilateral Co-operation Communiqué" (Guner, S). Achieving advantage on the control over Aegean has a vital military importance, where Greece has an active army of 159,170 people and Turkey 609,700 people. Turkey, in response to the challenges coming from the Aegean, has set up the Aegean-Armada based in Izmir, whose task is to respond to security challenges, including the militarization of the Aegean islands by the Greek side. Turkey has expressed readiness for the decommissioning of this army, only if Greece agrees to abandon the 12-mile claim in the Aegean.

The Flight Information Region (FIR) is another hot spot between the two countries, although it was designated in 1950, based on the ICAO convention of 1944, which charges states with the preservation of their airspace. In 1950, Turkey accepted (FIR - Athens) involving Greek airspace and some areas of international airspace, but FIR - Athens is violated on an average of 10 times a day and the Greek national airspace is violated on an average of 4 times a day by Turkish fighters jets. Under the ICAO Convention, any aircraft flying between the two States must notify the other State of the purpose of flight, the coordinates, the type of aircraft and the nature of cargo. During Greece-Turkey tensions for Cyprus in 1974, Turkey sent Greece a NOTAM (Notice to Air Man), defining the area of responsibility in the Aegean. The issue took enormous proportions, where many countries were involved in solving the situation besides the Global Aviation Authority. During 1974-1980 Aegean was turned into an uncertain sea and had a strong negative impact on tourism on the islands. This forced Ankara to withdraw NOTAM, but Turkish fighter aircraft again entered FIR - Athens, because Ankara argues that "ICAO does not include the fighter jets".

Turkey sees FIR tied to the process of delimiting the Territorial Sea, but between the two countries there is no agreement on delimitation, and Turkey says that often in the Aegean, the Territorial Sea does not correspond to the FIR. The Territorial Sea border of the two countries in the north starts at the point where the land border meet the sea but is not delimited by agreement between the two countries. For Athens this is unacceptable, because it is not possible to remove the line for the FIR definition on the

basis of the landline and maritime borderline. Technically, the FIR defining process is related to the process of delimiting the Territorial Sea between countries that, according to the Montego Bay Convention, UNCLOS clearly stipulates that marine areas consist of 3 basic components: 0-12 miles of Territorial Sea, 12 to 200 miles of Continental Shelf and, above it, the Exclusive Economic Zone (EEZ) is overlapped (Grigoriadis, 2011). Turkey supports the idea that the Aegean shelf is a continuation of Anatolia's Continental Shelf and Turkey should take precedence. According to the UNCLOS Convention, the islands enjoy the territorial sea right, but also their continental shelf or EEA.

Armed Turkish aircraft almost daily engage in passive air combat situations, targeted engagement, and dangerous maneuvers within Greek airspace, which basically consist on challenging the sovereignty, psychological and tactical retention of Greek military resources in the Aegean. Another form is the challenge of blocking international exploration and exploitation of Continental Shelf near Kastelorizos Island, which enables Turkey the Sovran right in the Aegean, is of strategic importance for Greece, since allowing Turks drilling is equivalent to renouncing sovereign rights in the Aegean. This island is a key point in the region because if it is granted the Continental Shelf and the complete EEZ to Turkey, it is denied to Turkey the right to access the Continental and EEA Shelf of the area between Turkey and Turkish Cypriot. The island of Castelorizos, the most extreme and easternmost point of the Greek territories, is located 60 nautical miles west of Rhodes and 1 nautical mile from the Turkish coast. Castelorizos, which was handed over to Greece by the Paris Treaty of 1947, offers Greece a total area of 5.240 square miles (surface sea and submarine), a fact which explains to a large extent Turkey's arguments that islands do not have their Continental Shelf.

CONCLUSIONS:

In conclusion, we can say that: Greece and Turkey share a common land and sea borders, often intertwined with one another. The geographical imperative between two places can serve as a modernizing action, but, why not, as provocative. Intrusion of imperatives makes them vulnerable and an imperative can affect the other. A sincere and practical approach to the status between Turkey and Greece can only be the result of a bilateral structure written in agreement, which will include two basic elements: there must be a gradual and constant redefinition that defines the national interests of each state, which will allow a historical convergence based on the strategy of core interest. This process is possible, given the real power of the two actors, as well as their interaction at one side of the other side. But that means that the actual status of the internal actors has to be maintained at any cost. Second, it is imperative that, at least as long as the process of rapprochement remains fragile and the balance is weak, to move to a "healthy" relationship, transparent, the stabilization of power should remain the main principle of bilateral structure. The strategic environment of Greece and Turkey will be greatly influenced by the evolution of US regional security and defense policies beyond the Persian Gulf, and especially by global campaigns in

the fight against terrorism. The role of Americans in the area is seen as a guarantor for the security of the Aegean region, but above all as a guarantee for Greece.

As long as bilateral issues remain unresolved, the risk of returning bilateral relations status before 1999 remains very high. It will take long to have an encouraging product from this relationship, and above all, it will need to build trust and educate the public opinion about possible changes. In bilateral relations, it is evident that the parties do not see the same eminent threat to each other, where Turkey, from the point of view of importance or specific weight, including historical factors, sees its relationship with Russia as a challenge and always in an evolutionary process. Next in line are the neighbors in the eastern borders: Iran, Iraq and Syria, ending with the Kurdish issue, as regards to the relations with Greece it is a political issue. For Greece, relations with Turkey have the character of national security and to respond to challenges, the domestic political system in Greece has taken decisions that improve the security and defense policies of the country. At the focus of these decisions has been the review of defense strategy doctrine, which includes: restructuring, modernization of the Armed Forces and military diplomacy. In the defense doctrine, the solution to the strategic dilemma faced by Greece was the adoption of a flexible answer, which is basically the creation of specific solutions in crisis management cases. With regard to armaments, the doctrine has focused on increasing defense spending and from 1996-2000 Greece spent \$ 15 billion, and from 2000 to 2005 spent \$ 20 billion.

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Albania's monetary policy and the basic indicators that effect the economic growth

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ABSTRACT:

Macroeconomic policies aim to stabilize the economy by achieving their goal of price stability, full employment and economic growth. Price stability is the responsibility of macroeconomic policies that are developed to maintain a low inflation rate, contribute to the solidity of the domestic product and maintain an exchange rate that can be predictable.

The purpose of this paper is to analyze Albania's monetary policy by highlighting the main indicators that can be used as a measurement of the efficiency of this policy in the economic development.

The literature review shows that there are many attitudes regarding the factors that need to be taken into consideration when analyzing monetary policies, including the elements of fiscal policies. In the Albanian economy, the prices and the level of inflation are the most important aspects. The Bank of Albania uses the inflation targeting regime, considering that the main indicator of inflationary pressures in the economy is the deviation of inflation forecasted in the medium term by its target level. In numerical terms, the bank intends to maintain its annual growth in consumer prices at the level of 3%.

According to the latest reports published by the Bank of Albania in 2019, monetary policy continues to contribute positively to a financial environment with a low interest rate and an annual inflation rate of 2%. Although the inflation rate hit the lowest value of 1.8 % in 2018, a balanced rate was achieved through the reduction of interest rates and risk premiums in financial markets and, more recently, through the tightening of the exchange rate. These monetary conditions are appropriate to support the growth of domestic demand and the strengthening of inflationary pressures.

KEY WORDS:

Macroeconomics, Monetary policy, Inflation, Prices, Economic development
JEL classification: E01, E2, O11



INTRODUCTION

Banks and their activity are one of the main pillars on which the modern country stability relies on. During the last three decades, Albanian's economy has undergone different and major changes. Considering the political changes at the beginning of the '90s, the lack of experience of the Albanian market in the international area, not having a structured bank system, the impact of the global crisis in a new private economy –and more- have played a significant role of how the economy has taken its current state. It is important to analyze the role and effectiveness of the central bank in this situation as it is directly connected to the monetary policy. In order to have a stable bank system and reliable monetary policy, the inflation rates should remain low and balanced. A key test to determine if a central bank has undertaken the right monetary policies is the level of trust its citizens have put on their investments or savings, and as a result, on interest rates. The objective of this paper is to analyze the Albania's monetary policy by highlighting the main indicators that can be used as a measurement of the efficiency of this policy in the economic development. There is a major agreement of the role of economic policy: stable prices, employment growth, and economic growth. To achieve these goals, several instruments are used, and mainly in this paper, the focus will be Monetary Policy. It is essential to understand its role, how can it contribute effectively in economic growth, and how should it be conducted to provide the desired effects.

METHODOLOGY

This paper makes an analysis of the monetary policy through literature review and through statistical analysis on data in Albania. The analysis is conducted responding to the “why” and “how” the bank of Albania has used certain monetary policy. To discuss the effect of monetary policy in economic growth, the inflation rate has been used to represent the monetary policy and the the GDP rate to measure the economic growth. The analysis is based on data from 2011-2018.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The monetary policy is broadly used as a mean to control the money supply by the national banks. Its effect in financial markets affects the macroeconomy environment in a state (Gust and López-Salido, 2014). For decades the debate over the influence of monetary policy on economic growth has raised discussing whether the monetary policy can stimulate or stabilize the general state of the economy in a country. There is an agreement between the analysts that the monetary policy can actually influence the inflation rate but regarding the effect on real economic activities there are three ideologies:

1. The Keynesian point of view says that the monetary policy effects the inflation, the investments, the production, the level of employment and the real income. The lack of stability comes from different factors and from various norms of deci-

sion-makers. Despite divergences, all Keynesian economists agree on the effect of monetary policy in the economy at least in the short run. The disturbances of the demand are the one that causes economic fluctuations and they believe that the demand can be managed by the monetary policy (de Long and Summers 1988).

2. The second ideology agrees with the effect of the monetary policy in the short run but the lags and magnitudes cannot be measured, while in the long run affects only the nominal variables.
3. The third ideology includes classical economics that has a focus on the full employment equilibrium. Classical economists think that the economy can only be shocked by unexpected monetary policy shocks and not by the agents that take decisions regarding monetary politics (Lucas 1972).

Monetary policies in modern literature, emphasizes the role that the central banks play in maintaining price stability and financial stability (Stein et al., 2011). Studies of monetary policies have evolved with the desire to bring monetary economics closer to central bank activities. A central bank operating in a modern banking system typically has several different tools at its disposal for affecting private economic and financial behavior. In general, these include the ability to determine what reserves banks and other depository institutions must hold in relation to their deposits, to vary the supply of such reserves by buying and selling (government) securities for the central bank's own account, to lend reserves directly to banks, to set minimum conditions for particular kinds of credit transactions, and to regulate a variety of aspects of ordinary banking and other financial activities. As Friedman emphasized, between these several devices, the buying, and selling of securities, or open market operations, is typically the primary focus of the monetary policy (B. M. Friedman, 1988). Open market operations are basically a trading activity, and the instrument used by a central bank to buy or sell securities may be by price or quantity. This way, buying and selling to the traders in the market with a specific price, the central bank allows 'the market' to determine the price and respective quantity of that reserve to be held.

The supporters of Keynesianism suggested that an economy doesn't operate in its full potential, and so, internal instruments should be used by countries to keep the employment rates high at certain times. In this context, effective monetary and fiscal policies should be undertaken to help the economy being close to their full potential. As mentioned also by Woodford (2002), in summary, some tools to implement monetary policies may include:

- Tweaking interest rates, which impacts the liquidity of money in an economy;
- Reserve requirements, which indicate banks to maintain a higher or lower amount of their deposits as reserves and the rest available for loans;
- Open Market Operations, also mentioned earlier in this study, involves buying and selling of government securities, like bonds or foreign currencies, in the open market (Woodford, 2002).

Finding balance in a dynamic global market is not an easy task. As also mentioned by Friedman about the early theory of Monetary Policy of Keynes, the latter offered an explanation for the presumed impotence of monetary policy to stem the depression, and if liquidity preference is absolute or nearly so -as Keynes believed likely in times

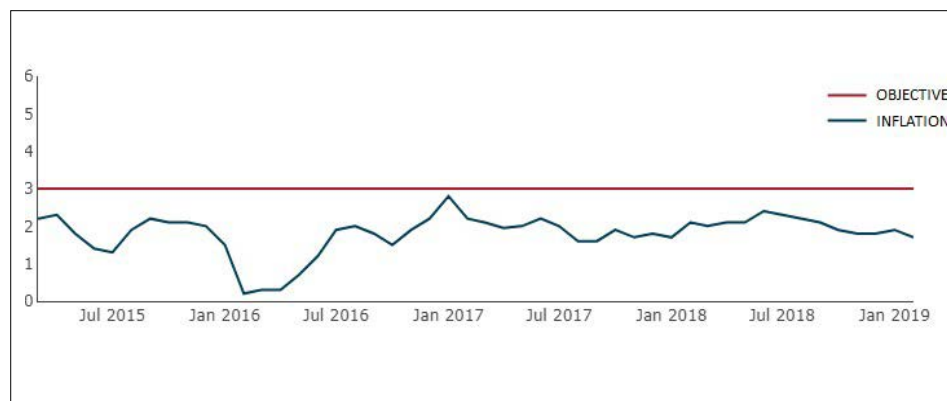
of high unemployment-interest rates cannot be lowered by monetary measures. If investment and consumption are little affected by interest rate, then even lower interest rates, if they could be achieved, would do little good (M. Friedman, 1968).

Finally, considering the dynamics of globalization and the impact of the international market in today's economy, countries find it more difficult to implement long-term successful monetary policies. They can contribute to offsetting major disturbances in the economic system and help hold in check independent secular exhilaration by a slower rate of monetary growth than would be desirable otherwise. But, in general, it is agreed that monetary policies are mostly used to smooth short term impacts, and forecast future policies to be undertaken only when a clear danger or opportunity arises.

MONETARY POLICY IN ALBANIA

According to Law 8269/1997 "On the Bank of Albania", as amended, the Bank of Albania's main monetary policy objective is to achieve and maintain price stability. (Constitution of the Republic of Albania, 1997)

With price stability, the Bank of Albania will understand the maintenance of consumer price inflation at 3.0 percent in the medium term. Monetary policy, maintaining at certain levels inflation fluctuations, improves the distribution of resources efficiently and thus increasing the overall welfare of the economy. Also, a low level and stable inflation rate, helps the banking system development and increases the financial system's sustainability.



1 The objective and real inflation. Source: Bank of Albania

In this way, this price stability gives a direct contribution to the long-term economic growth of the country. A number of unforeseen factors, outside the influence of monetary policy, affect inflation, so it is constantly fluctuating from the target. However, the monetary policy aims that the inflation rate of consumer prices in the albanian economy in average terms and for long periods of time to be 3.0%.

An inflation is in line with the development stage of the Albanian economy, as a small economy, and a low inflation rate helps preserve positive real interest rates and

maintain the stability of the banking system. The inflation target indicates the goal of controlling price increases at a level close to that of the European Central Bank, which has an inflation target below level 2. The objective level enables achieving real convergence and nominal value of the albanian economy with the economies of the European Union in the medium term.

BANK OF ALBANIA MONETARY POLICY INSTRUMENT

Up to the end of the year 2000, the Bank of Albania was conducting a direct instrument policy through two administrative decisions:

- (1) setting limits to the growth of outstanding credit of commercial banks; and
- (2) Setting an obligation for the banks that had the state as an owner as well as the banks where the state had a share of capital to keep the minimum level of interest rates set by the Bank of Albania for time deposits in Lek currency.

As the financial market was not responding any more to these constraints, Bank of Albania changed the course of action and decided to implement the monetary policy through the use of the market instruments. (Bank of Albania)

The implementation of monetary policy is realized through a series of indirect monetary instruments as following:

- Open Market Operations

Open Market Operations are classified into three other subcategories depending on the purpose of their use: the main market, regulatory and structural operation.

According to the Bank of Albania, repurchase and reverse repurchase agreements are used as the main and regulatory operation, while outright sales are used only in structural operations. Repurchase agreements aim to reduce the liquidity in the banking system whereby the Bank of Albania sells securities with the right to repurchase it. Reverse Repurchase Agreements are open market operations aiming the temporary increase of liquidity in the banking system.

The Bank of Albania repurchases (reverse) agreements with a maturity of seven days as the main instrument for implementing monetary policy. This instrument aims at short-term liquidity management of the banking system, with the intention to stabilize the market interest rates. Determining the interest rate of these one-week maturity instruments determines the monetary policy position.

Meanwhile, as regulatory market operations (market fluctuations) are used Repurchase and reverse repurchase agreements with maturities of one day, one month and three months.

The Bank of Albania classifies as open market structural operations outright sales that have a permanent effect on the money market.

- Standing facilities

Permanent facilities are instruments that help the banks overcome temporary liquidity problems by investing excess liquidity through a one-day deposit or borrowing through a one day loan. These instruments are realized exclusively and always with the initiative of the banks to supply and take in overnight liquidity by the Bank of Albania.

- Minimum Reverse requirement

The obligatory reserve represents the funds that the banks have to hold in the Bank of Albania in Lek and other currencies. For a long time the minimum reverse has been 10 per cent while starting from 24 July 2018, reserve rates have escalated by increasing the reserve requirement rate in foreign currency. The required reserve ratio in LEK currency is 7.5 per cent for liabilities with a maturity not longer than 12 months and 5.0 percent for liabilities with an initial term of more than 12 months to 2 years. The required reserve rate in foreign currency is 12.5 percent for foreign currency liabilities when these account for less than 50 percent of the total and 20 per cent for the portion of foreign currency liabilities over 50% of the total.

The realization of the monetary policy aims:

- *“Effectively sizing the liquidity deficit of the banking system;*
- *Forecasting the liquidity needs of the banking system;*
- *Executing the open market operations.”* (Bank of Albania)

FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE MONETARY POLICY EFFECTIVENESS IN ALBANIA

Below are listed a number of factors that affect the effectiveness of monetary policy and orientate its actions:

1. The high level of use of the EUR currency

The high level of euro use in the economy directly affects the reduction of the monetary policy effectiveness. As economic entities are more sensitive to exchange rate fluctuations, the free exchange rate does not act as a stabilizing element. Fiscal policies are also affected by the potential rise in the cost of debt in the foreign currency. The effects extend to the exposure of the financial system and to the central bank, which is affected by the maintenance of a high level of foreign exchange reserves. In order to increase the use of the domestic currency, a Memorandum of Cooperation was drafted, whereby the Bank of Albania, the Ministry of Finance and the Financial Supervisory Authority have to undertake all appropriate actions during the “de-euroization” process.

Some of the actions taken are:

- a. Differentiation and increase of the reserve requirement rate for foreign currencies liabilities. The increase of the reserve rate in foreign currency makes the deposit more expensive for banks. Thus, to offset the additional costs, banks must lower the interest payable for savings in the euro or to increase the interest rates on loans in that currency so that this products will become less attractive.
- b. The increase in the minimum regulatory requirement for the value of liquid assets in foreign currency. In particular, liquid assets in foreign currency will be required to be not less than 20% of short-term liabilities in foreign currency (was 15%), while for liquid assets in lek currency, the ratio level will be maintained at 15%;
- c. Informing the borrowers regarding the risks associated with foreign currency borrowing. The banks are required to propose to the borrower an alternative credit in Lek currency.

The aim of the “de- euroization package” is to increase the use of the national currency and generate a gradual and harmonic reduction of foreign currency use in the economy.

2. Time of monetary policy transmission

The chosen monetary policy is always oriented from the future by predicting the expected inflation. Due to the reaction of financial markets, which is not always immediate, or the expectations of the main economic actors against interest rates and liquidity in the economy, the monetary policy transmission mechanism can go from one to three years. Thus, the effects of the policy monetary developments appear in the economy with delay. For this reason, the central bank analyzes information and forecasts in order to orient the monetary policy.

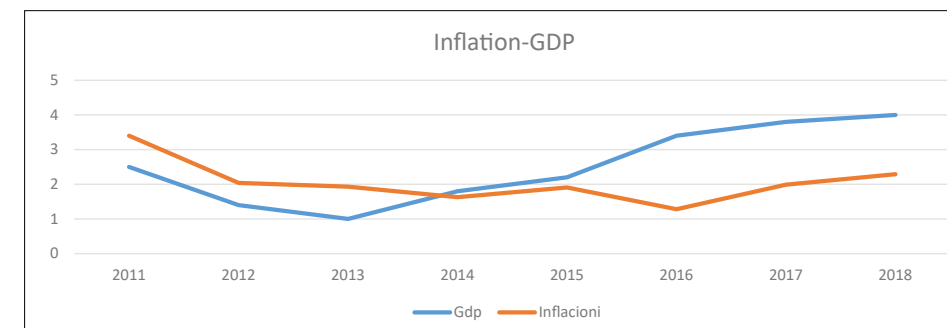
3. Development in the external sector

3. High level of non-performing loans- trends in lending

The banking sector is following a very cautious policy regarding lending based on the problems faced in particular sectors of the economy and the dictating policies of the parent banks.

CONNECTION BETWEEN INFLATION AND GDP

The data for the statistical analysis were taken from the bank of Albania and INSTAT and they show the inflation rate and the GDP in Albania for the period 2011-2018.



2 Inflation trend and GDP trend. Data Source : The Bank of Albania

In the data a simple analysis was conducted taking in consideration only this two factors to see the relation between the inflation and GDP with the aim to check if there is a positive or negative relation between them.

The statistical analysis resulted in the following simple regression :

$$GDP = 0.04285 * INFLATION + 2.424.$$

This model shows a positive relationship between the two variables that can be seen even on the graphic. When the inflation rate is going down, the GDP is also down and the same happens even when we have an increasing level of inflation. This model

although, does not show the proper level of growth in the economy for a certain growth in the inflation level because there are also other factors that should be taken into consideration.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the literature review showed that there are many points of views regarding the effect of monetary policy in the economic growth of a country. There are many factors that influence the Bank of Albania to use certain monetary policy.

The inflation target of 3% indicates the goal of controlling price increases at a level close to that of the European Central Bank, which has an inflation target below level 2. The objective level enables achieving real convergence and a nominal value of the Albanian economy with other countries economies within the European Union in the medium term. The implementation of monetary policy is realized through a series of indirect monetary instruments such as the open market operations, permanent facilitations and obligatory reserves. The monetary policy in Albania is influenced by the use of the EUR currency at a high level and the time of monetary policy transmission.

Regarding the relation between the monetary policy, represented by the inflation rate and the economic growth, measured by the GDP, there is a connection between these two factors.

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ALBANIA AND BRITAIN AGAINST EACH OTHER IN 1985-1990

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ABSTRACT

After the 80'Albania is regarded as a self isolated country for its foreign policy. Its international affairs were limited to a restricted number of western countries, mainly Italy and France whereas with the other countries there were only occasional diplomatic relations. Moreover, the bilateral relationships it had with a very few countries consisted mostly in the cultural approach due to the constitution of 1967.

Yet, after Enver Hoxha's death, Albanian communist leader, a new wind blew starting significant changes not only concerning foreign affairs but also the internal ones. A fact, worth mentioning as a proof of these changes, was the beginning of talks between Albania and Britain in 1985 over an amount of gold, internationally acknowledged as Albanian's but blocked because of the involvement of Albania in the Corfu Channel incident in 1946. These talks were politically, diplomatically and economically important, not mentioning they are a milestone in the Albanian history. The Gold case, which had kept the two nations apart without any diplomatic interaction, also, served as a turning point in their relations. The talks lasted for 10 years from 1985 to 1992, but the case was finally solved in 1996.

My presentation will highlight :

1. What was the atmosphere of these talks?
2. How willing was Albania to solve the case?
3. Why did this case take so long to be solved?

These and other facts will be analyzed in my work. This will lead to the unveil of some truths about this case, truths which are important for Albania of those years.

KEY WORDS:

bilateral talks, diplomatic meetings, Gold case, bilateral relations, Corfu Channel incident.



The establishment of diplomatic relations between the Albania and Great Britain was not reached after World War II. At the time, when efforts were being made between the parties for this process, an event at Corfu Channel froze further action. This event is related to the incident that occurred on October 22, 1946, where two British destroyers Saummar and Volage were sailing to the international waters of Corfu when encountered mines. As a result of this incident, 44 British sailors were dead and many were injured¹. The matter was firstly brought the parties to the UN Security Council and then at the International Hague Tribunal, whose trial lasted for two years between February 1947 and April 1949². After the accusations and defense made by the parties in the process, the court ruled in favor of the United Kingdom by declaring the Albanian government guilty. The latter considered the decision as unfair and refused to recognize it. Even the court overcame its powers by determining the amount that the Albanian government had to pay to Great Britain, which amounted to 843,947 thousand pounds, for the damage caused to the British ships. After this event there was no contact between the two states.³

Although contacts were missing, Great Britain tried and managed to find an entry gate towards which it intended to receive what it thought was entitled to, the amount set by the International Hague Tribunal. The international mechanism used by the Great Britain for this purpose was the Tripartite Committee for the Restoration of Monetary Gold (hereinafter TCG), created on 27 September 1946, members which included the United States of America, Great Britain and France.⁴ This commission had several tasks which consisted in identifying, collecting and recovering the amount of gold found in Germany and third countries, states of which it was unfairly taken during the second world war. One of the matters dealt with, by this committee was the issue of Albanian monetary gold, robbed by German invaders during World War II. In this way, the gold issue had surpassed the scope of bilateral talks and had become a subject of scrutiny in international organizations⁵. Great Britain, as one of the parties of this commission, decided to block Albanian gold by conditioning its return with the payment that the International Criminal Court had ordered to the Albanian state.

And thus it happened, even though the Tripartite Gold Committee recognized the Albanian ownership of gold at 1574, 35 kg, it was blocked at the Bank of London by the Washington Accords of 25 April 1951. It provided "if the international arbitrator, appointed to decide the relevance of gold, would agree with the decision of the 1948 Tripartite Gold Monetary Commission, according to which gold belonged to Albania as its property, yet it would not be granted to Albania ... but England. (!) It would be used as a partial reward for damages caused in the incident that took place in the Corfu Channel in October 1946 ..."⁶

A l t h o u g h

1 Paskal Milo, "The Hidden Truths of Corfu Channel Incident", Tirana, Toena, 2010, pg 141

2 Artur Meçollari, "The Incident of Corfu channel, Sided Justice", Vlore, Triptik, 2009, pg. 29-36

3 Ksenofon Krisafi, "In search of gold: history of Albanian gold abducted during World War II", Dita2000, Tirana, 2009, pg. 214-215, 218, 224

4 Also in that book. Pg74-75

5 Ksenophon Krisafi, "Post-war Diplomacy", Tirana, Dita 2000, 2009, p.149

6 Ksenofon Krisafi, "In search of gold: history of Albanian gold abducted during World War II", Dita2000, Tirana, 2009, f122

the events had such a course, without much time having passed from the Hague International Tribunal's decision, both sides started making compromising efforts in the hope that an acceptable solution would be found for each. In this situation 1950 the Albanian-English talks began in Paris which continued almost throughout the year, but no success. After this failed attempt the issue was covered in dust and it was forgotten. This is shown by the fact that even in the early 1980s Albanian-British relations had remained pawn to the harsh Cold War climate, the prejudice, the deep and mutual mistrust that was created after the Second World War between the two countries.⁷

A positive signal for a possible return to the case matter and its treatment appeared in 1984. The Albanian government responded positively to the initiative offered by Anglo-Americans on April 20, 1984, which through the French (since they themselves did not have diplomatic contacts with the Albania), proposed a compromise, formulated in a 7-point document. The elements of this proposal were:⁸

The Tripartite Commitment for Gold would assing to the Albanian government about 1,574 kilograms of gold that before was 'identified to be given to'.

In the submission of gold, Albania would fill out the standard documents of receipt and renonciation for the Triple Gold Committee (which were filled by all gold recipients held by the Tripartite Gold Committee.)

III. At the same time, but separately from the delivery of gold, Albania would pay or would find a way to pay (for example, through a third party) to the US government a minimum amount (\$ 1.9 million) in respect of claims for expropriation of unpaid US wealth.

IV. At the same time, separately from the delivery of gold, Albania would pay or would find a way to pay the British government a minimum amount (the equivalent of US \$ 1.9 million) in respect of the unpaid remuneration set by the International Court in favor of Great Britain.

V. At the same time as receiving its minimum amount, the US government would confirm to Albania, unilaterally in writing, that this payment would constitute a complete and definitive solution to US claims on expropriation.

VI. At the same time as receiving its minimum amount, the american government would confirm to Albania unilaterally, that this payment would constitute a complete and definitive solution to its financial claims towards the Albanian government.

VII. It is not necessary for Albania to sign any document recognizing the validity of American or British claims or of its participation in resolving such claims.⁹

This document was considered acceptable and a strong basis for talks. The talks began in Paris during 1985 in three rounds: The first meeting was held in Paris on (15-20 March 1985)¹⁰, at the end of which no compromise was reached and the talks would

7 *History of the Albanian People*, Vol.4, Academy of Sciences, Toena, Tirana, 2009, p.335

8 MFA Archive, Monetary Fund, File 1161, Year 1985, "The Information, Anglo-American Message 12 February 1985", p.25

9 Proposal by French Ambassador to Tirana, Marcel Martin, handed over to Deputy Minister of Foreign Affairs Sokrat Plaka on April 20, 1984 in the MFA Archive, Monetary Gold Fund, 1984 File,

10 Minutes to the meetings held in Paris between the delegation of People's Republic of Albania and the British delegation on the issue of Albanian gold 15-20 March 1985, the MFA archive, the Monetary Gold Fund, the 1985 dossier, p.1,11, 20



remain still due to the death of communist leader Enver Hoxha. After a few months, the second meeting (6-7 June 1985)¹¹ was held again in Paris. The third meeting for this round of talks was held in Paris on (23-26 July 1985)¹². Thus it began the marathon of Anglo-Albanian talks that would have to go miles to reach the finish. During the talks, both parties elaborated their views and were close to achieving a compromise, but the obstacle was created at the number three and four (IV) of the 7-point document, which it concerned to the payment by the Albanian part of an amount of 1.9 million \$ for the liquidation of any English and American claims. The Albanian government withdrew, thinking that something like that would be interpreted as implementing the Hague International Court ruling, though it would not be written in this form. It would be considered a symbolic sum paid for English and American claims¹³. At the last moment the Albanian part surprised, refused and the talks stopped at that point. It is unclear and difficult to assert with certainty whether the Albanian government's sudden decision and the turnaround of negotiations was influenced by the fact that the successor of the Albanian communist leader, Ramiz Alia was afraid of a quick solution to the problem and that this event would be referred to as a great step of the Albanian state towards the west.

I emphasize this because it was a delicate matter at the time. Enver Hoxha had just died and his student Ramiz Alia had sworn allegiance. While on the international arena, many questions were raised about what would happen in Albanian foreign policy. Or this action of the Albanian government was influenced by the fact that, as the witness of the time asserts also present in the Anglo-Albanian talks, in the capacity of the President of the Legal Bureau, of foreign affairs ministry Ksenophon Krisafi. In his book "In search of gold," he claims *In his book "In search of gold," he claims that "solution was required but no constructive cooperation was offered, it was desired that the gold would return to Albania and that relations with the United Kingdom would be restored and developed, but the spirit of omissions would be anathematised"*.¹⁴ The fact is that the talks are again pawn of political conjurations. It was obvious that the content of the problem was not just financial but mostly political.

In the following years contacts between the two countries were sporadic. UN General Assembly meetings in New York turned into a "nest" of discussion about the issue between the parties, more specifically during 1987 and in January, February, June 1988¹⁵. In these meetings it was obvious that both parties found it difficult to find a common point to resume the talks and to agree for the financial claim, the critical point of discussion between them. What the Albanian party tried to exclude and not

include in the talks was the American financial claim to which said, it could solve in negotiations with the US government and didn't understand why this claim should be combined with the issue of gold.¹⁶

Only in 1990 when the foundations of communism were shaken by the reforms of Mikhail Gorbachev (Perestroika and Glasnosti), when democratic revolutions began in Eastern Europe. A new wind was blowing in the world and the Cold War balances were questioned. The question of monetary gold became again part of the discussion rounds between the parties.¹⁷ On the initiative of the English government, resettlement meetings took place on the level of deputy Minister which were held on 5-6 November 1990 in Rome and 18-19 December 1990 in Geneva.¹⁸ These meetings were held in a positive spirit, with some progress in the talks. The issue still remained unsolved, the Albanian part disagreed with the fact that the English claim had increased from \$ 1.9 million in 1985 to \$ 2.8 million in 1990. The British explained that interest rates increased from 1985 to 1990, claimed that the sooner the issue would be settled less would be paid and vice versa. The issue was not solved, the years were passing, the interests were growing! Discussions and attempts for an agreement between the parties failed again. Although it seemed that a step forward had been taken because the parties in the conflict had drafted a project memo to show how they anticipated the solution of the problem. The item that conditioned the talks and forced them to go in a vicious circle of impunity was again, English financial claim¹⁹. The talks did not go further when it was found that the solution was far to be reached. The next meeting was held in 1991, the situation was different, in Albania the formation of political parties was allowed, the campaign for the first pluralistic elections was taking place and a number of important changes in the field of human rights had taken place. Likewise, foreign policy was freed from ideological cords.²⁰

In such circumstances it was found that the main issue between the Albanian and British government was the establishment of diplomatic relations. First it was agreed to establish diplomatic relations and then to discuss the problems that accompanied their development. As it was, on 29 May 1991, diplomatic relations were established between the two states.²¹

This was an important and special moment between the parties but that was not really enjoyed because of the still unsolved monetary gold issue. It was decided that the parties would meet and talk about solving this inherited decade-long stalemate. The parties met to solve the case on 7 June 1991 in Geneva and on 23 July 1991 in Tirana.

16 Gold Problem, UN meetings and Talks, MFA Archive, File 1169, Year 1987, p. 92-95, and Information on Monetary Problem with England. Talks made with England's representative to the United Nations in November 1987, February 1988 and June 1988 (oral talks), File 1374, Year 1987, pp. 93-94

17 R.J.Crampton, "Eastern Europe in the twentieth Century-and after, second edition, London and New York, Routledge, 1997, 403

18 History of the Albanian People, ... cited work p.341

19 Minutes to the meetings held in Rome between the delegation of Albania and the British delegation on the issue of Albanian gold 5-6 November 1990, Archive of MFA, Albanian Monetary Fund Fund, File 1358, Year 1990 and Minutes to the Talks held between the delegation of Albania and the British delegation on the issue of Albanian gold 18-19 December 1990, Archive of MFA, Albanian Monetary Gold Fund, File 1358, Year 1990.

20 The "Voice of the People" newspaper, Words of Comrade Ramiz Alia, No. 93, 1990, fl-2

21 AFAM, File 64, 1991, "Activities with England during 1991", Tirana, 26.12.1991, p.17

11 Minutes to the meetings held in Paris between the delegation of People's Republic of Albania and the British delegation on the issue of Albanian gold, Second Round 6-7 June 1985, MFA Archive, Monetary Gold Fund, 1985 File, p. 3

12 Minutes to the meetings held in Paris between the delegation of People's Republic of Albania and the British delegation on the issue of the Albanian Gold, July 23-26, 1985, MFA Archive, Monetary Gold Fund, 1985 File, p.1

13 Ksenophon Krisafi, "In search for gold: history of Albanian gold abducted during World War II", Dita2000, Tirana, 2009, p.205-206

14 Ksenophon Krisafi, "In search for gold: history of Albanian gold abducted during World War II", Dita2000, Tirana, 2009, p.254-255

15 The Gold Issue, UN meetings and Talks, MFA Archive, File 1169, Year 1987, p. 92-95, and Information on Monetary Problem with England. Talks held with the English representative in the UN in November 1987, February 1988 and June 1988 (oral talks), File 1374, Year 1987, p.9,59, 80-81

The debates among them continued to be present, the amount of British financial claims had caught \$ 6 million already, which was why the talks were destined to fail. The Albanian government was not in a position to pay such a sum. The economy was in the last straw. The country was heading towards collapse. This proposal found the Albanian diplomats caught by surprise. They were prepared that apart from solving the matter in question also to present to the Great Britain the readiness of the Albanian state to develop bilateral relations in the political, economic, commercial, financial, cultural, educational, technical-scientific areas beyond solving the issue in question.²² After long discussions, meetings held, difficult conditions in which the Albanian state was in, finally saw that the solution could be close. Apparently the Albanian cash Odyssey had arrived at its last station.

The Memorandum of Understanding between the parties was signed on May 8, 1992, in Rome. The solution offered was: "The Government of Albania and the Government of the United Kingdom, with the restoration of diplomatic relations and with the desire to solve the issues by mutual understanding, have come to an understanding on the following points: **1.**The UK Government will allow Albania to be repaid to 1,574 kg of gold previously assigned to give Albania the amount of gold that is kept in storage by the TCG for the return of gold. **2.** Besides the delivery of gold, the Albanian government will pay the United Kingdom \$ 2 million. **3.** As soon as the Albanian government has paid the amount in question, the UK government will consider the financial claims submitted by the its government as fully solved. **4.**The two governments understand that the delivery of gold from Albania will require the consent of not only the UK government but also the government of France and the United States.²³ " Following the signing of a treaty of this nature and also with the United States, which took place on March 10, 1995, the US granted its consent to TCG for returning of the gold in Albania, on the other hand, the Albanian government agreed to pay the sum of \$ 2 million ending thus American financial claims. The matter was dragged by a French as a party to the TCG. Although it had no claims like the United States and Britain, the agreement was signed only on 22 February 1996. In the autumn of 1996 a document dated 25 October 1996 represents the official act by which the Prime Minister of the time, Alexander Meksi, authorized the Governor of the Bank of Albania, Kristaq Luniku, to conduct all the procedures of withdrawing Albanian monetary gold, robbed by Germans in Albania during World War II. Along with the return of Albanian gold ended the liquidation procedure of \$ 4 million consisting of two parts of \$ 2 million in favor of the United Kingdom and \$ 2 million in favor of the US. Thus ended one of the important episodes of post-World War II of Albanian diplomacy.²⁴

CONCLUSIONS

The matter could have been solved earlier, either in the 50s or early 80s, but the hardened position by either party did not allow it. Bearing in mind the bipolar system

22 AFAM, File 64/3, 1991, "Some thoughts about meeting with the UK's MFA", p.148

23 AFAM, File 36, 1992, "Memorandum of Understanding", Rome, 8 May 1992, p.6

24 Ksenofon Krisafi, work cited ... p.363-367

of the Cold War in which the world was in this historical period, it became even more difficult to achieve a compromise due to the ideologies the parties represented. Albanian foreign policy was considered an important testament to communist ideology, it was a scene in which actors were forced to interpret only its psalms. The solution lasted for decades and came only with important political changes, because the positions of both states Albanian and the British were incompatible. The round of talks were on hold, or merely discussions, the solution was always remote.

If the solution was found earlier it would have been great for the Albanian government, seeing the economic, political and social difficulties in which it was going through those years. The Albanian part addressed the solution of this problem, which was essentially more financial, economical, in political backgrounds. This is evidenced by the fact that the full panorama which was offered at the time, was brought to court which showed that the Corfu incident was more of a provocation of the result of the Cold War between the East and the West. Addressing this issue as a political problem turned it into an inseparable link for the parties to the conflict. 7

Of all the discussions conducted, it appears that the Albanian state refused to recognize the Hague Tribunal's decision even though it already belonged to the '50s, so the past. It was not discussed in the present conditions in the 1990s where the situation was different, both domestically and internationally. The political view was very different, especially in the international arena. The foundations of the Cold War were beginning to be overturned.

It is true that the issue was generally addressed by the United Kingdom, as the government of the time claimed, from the positions of a strong and powerful state and not equal to Albania.

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"The only relevant test of the validity of a hypothesis is comparison of its predictions with experience."

Milton Friedman

APPLICATION OF REAL INFORMATION AND APPLICATION IN R

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ABSTRAKT

Bootstrap is a recently developed technique for analyzing statistical results. The basic concept of statistical data does not change but their interpretations are. This paper presents the method of functioning of this method and some ways to apply it to different real-life situations. Bootstrap analyzes statistical findings that can answer many real questions. It provides strict controls versus wrong interpretations of random patterns. This can be achieved by optimizing the required statistical results, significantly increasing their realistic approach. The treatment of this technique has been developed through the software R.

KEYWORD:

Bootstrap, statistics, R, BCa, Statistical Methods

ENTRY

Statistics are the science of learning from experience, especially experience gained with time. Mathematical statistics with its highly elaborate apparatus is a powerful and valuable tool for running different activities of production, trading, quality control of products, optimum organization and rational use of raw materials, workforce, etc. Its methods are used with great success in all cases when we want to study a social, economic, medical phenomenon, etc., in a certain population.

Statistical techniques are applied in analytical methods for biomedical science, psychology, education, economics, communication theory, sociology, genetic studies, epidemiology and many other areas. Finally, traditional sciences such as geology, physics and astronomy have begun to use ever-widening statistics, focusing on areas that require information efficiency, such as the study of details of unknown elemental particles or the study of galaxies far away.

Each statistical study consists of three main stages which are:

- Collecting data on the phenomenon being studied.
- Processing the data collected on the basis of the object and purpose of the study.
- Producing scientific conclusions about the phenomenon that is studied according to the collected and processed data.

In this paper bootstrap includes explanations of traditional ideas of statistical conclusions. Bootstrap is a recently developed technique for extracting some statistical results. The basic idea of statistics does not change, but their implementations are. It is important to show how the bootstrap method works and how it can be applied to different real-life situations.

The bootstrap name that is given to the method derives from the fact that successive choices are constructed based solely on initial data. Bootstrap in this paper is a computer method of statistical conclusions that can answer many realistic statistical questions. It provides an optimal method of finding a real signal in this data and also provides strict controls against the wrong interpretations of random patterns.

BOOTSTRAP IMPLEMENTATION WITH REAL INFORMATION AND APPLICATION IN R

In the first chapter we discussed random bootstrap and build bootstrap-based confidence intervals. Between confidence intervals and hypothesis tests, the student confidence interval is determined and two methods for building confidence intervals: the percentile method and the method. Below we will first present the confidence interval building with the percentile method and method for energy consumption data of an educational institute for September 2010.

DRAFT DATA PROCESSING R

R is an easy-to-use software package for computing, computing and graphical data presentation that comes in handy to all students. The reason for the great use



is that this is a free software. It is a widely used program for statistical analysis. It offers:

- An effective use of data and ease of packaging, \square
- A package of operators for calculating tables, in particular matrices, \square
- A wide and integrated collection of data analysis elements, \square
- Graphical convenience for data analysis and also direct presentation on \square computer or hard drive and,

A disadvantage, or advantage (depending on the point of view), is that R is used without an intermediate command line, which somehow makes it difficult to learn fast. But when the software is absorbed, it has an immense opportunity for statistical analysis.

*Let's get back to our application. The collected data we need in such a format that we can outsource and process them as values of a pillar vector in program R. The **CSVcomma delimited** format creates a copy of the .exe file*

Creates a copy of the existing document with the data, but in such a form that they are known as the numbered numbers of our **R** softi in this case. It is quite important that the first pass takes place on a regular basis so that data can be easily read from R, an action that eliminates manual data transfer failure.

The data is grouped in two files, one for the working days of September, that is Monday, Tuesday, Wednesday, Thursday, Friday, with $n = 22$ data and the second for the holidays, so Saturday and Sunday, with $n = 8$ data. But we during our application will only consider working days.

The appropriate command to execute in the R window is:

```
>pune<-read.csv("C:/perdorues/MyDocuments/Pune2010.csv",header=F,dec=";", sep=";")
```

This command presents our data in the R work environment as backbone vectors. This allows us to perform any type of accountancy activity in the R environment, figure 1.

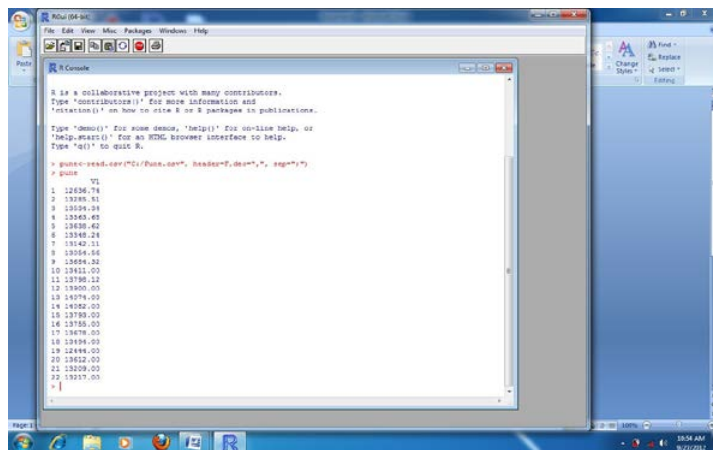


Figura 1. Data on the R environment, power consumption for working days are presented

read.csv- reads data stored in CSV form directly from our computer by following the location of the data on the computer. This address is placed between quotation marks as the first element of the parenthesis.

header- shows what contains the first row of the column: T that stands for true when the first vector element is a vector label, and must be counted as numeric value; F- otherwise when the first element is directly numerical value to consider.

dec- determines the symbol dividing the decimal point, in which case the decimal point is used for decimals.

sep- indicates the symbol that separates elements from each other, in this case the elements are separated by “;”.

With the **data.matrix(frame,rownames.force=NA)** command side, we encode all data skeleton variables in numeric form and bring them together as a column of 1 matrix.

Frame- is for data skeleton, whose components are logical vectors, numeric factors or vectors.

Rownames.force- logical if the resulting matrix should have characters (except Null).Typically,NAsetsthe nullnamingNullifthedataschemahasnamesinrowsornulls.

hist – builds the histogram of data.

main- determines the name of the graph.

col- color the histogram.

xlab- names the x-axis.

Data on business days we have Figure 2. Electricity consumption data for the working days of September 2010.

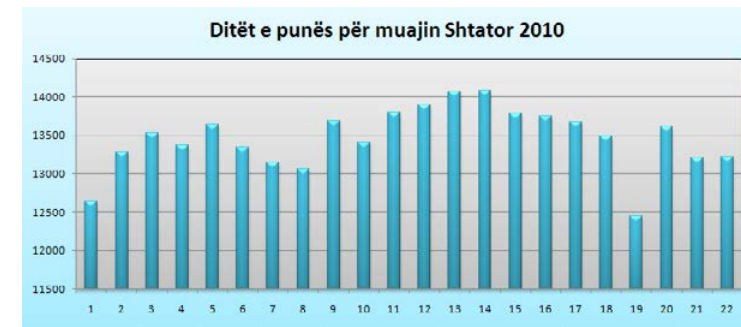


Figura 2.Electricity consumption data for the working days of September 2010.

Figure 2.2 shows us all the working day consumption data for September, shown in a diagram. Here we can see how consumer values fluctuate every month of the month.

BUILDING THE CONVENTION INTERVAL WITH BOOTSTRAP METHOD

Below we are presenting a way to construct the averaging interval for the average population.

Let it be

$$X_1, X_2, X_3, \dots, X_n \quad (2.3.1)$$

A case choice taken with respect to X a feature in the study from an Ω population. We seek to build a trust interval with certainty $1 - \alpha$ about the average μ value of this population. Initially we will build a bootstrap choice based on random selection (2.3.1).

Definition: Bootstrap selection is a choice of the same volume as the choice (2.3.1) obtained from the return extrusion.

Assume that the random selection values (2.3.1) are placed in a box and we randomly output a value. This value will be the first value of the bootstrap option and will mark it X'_1 (X'_1 is one of the values of (2.3.1)). This value will be put back into the box before we make the second extract. The second value we will get from the box will be marked with X'_2 (X'_2 is one of the values of (2.3.1)). We will do the same until we get the n value that we will mark with X'_n .

Komunitetified in a f This way we will get bootstrap $(X'_1, X'_2, \dots, X'_n)$ choices from the selection (2.3.1). Understandably, the way the bootstrap option is constructed is that some values can be selected more than once and some more never.

To build the confidence interval for the average value of population populations in the study we will do so.

We will build a large number of bootstrap $l (l \geq 1000)$ choices with volume n starting from the selection (2.3.1).

We will calculate the averages of each bootstrap option you build and mark them with $\bar{X}_1, \bar{X}_2, \dots, \bar{X}_n$.

We will calculate the percentage percentages $\frac{\alpha}{2}$ of $1 - \frac{\alpha}{2}$ the bootstrap set and the averaged bootstrap and we will mark them respectively $\bar{X}_{\frac{\alpha}{2}}$ the $\bar{X}_{1-\frac{\alpha}{2}}$.

How to use: ($\bar{X}_{\frac{\alpha}{2}}, \bar{X}_{1-\frac{\alpha}{2}}$)

The above method is used when the population from which the case is selected is almost symmetrical.

BUILDING THE INTERVAL OF CONFIDENCE BASED ON PERCENTILES

So we need to generate a bootstrap replication (a matrix of 1000×22) me $n = 22 \cdot 1000 = 22000$ with elements for energy consumption of workdays.

These choices are made by commands, respectively:

Reads data as a pillar vector:

```
>pune<-data.matrix(pune,rownames.force=NA)
```

Creates random matrix with 1000 bootstrap choices:

```
>MRASTI<-matrix(sample(pune,23000,replace=T),nrow=1000,byrow=T)
```

Finds the average for every bootstrap choice:

```
>mesataret<-rowMeans(MRASTI, na.rm = FALSE, dims = 1)
```

Makes the order of elements from the largest to the smallest:

```
>renditur<-sort(mesataret, decreasing = FALSE)
```

Find the percentages of order 2.5 and 97.5:

```
>p1<-(renditur[25]+renditur[26])/2
```

```
>p2<-(renditur[974]+renditur[975])/2
```

```
>p1
```

```
[1] 13198.96
```

```
>p2
```

```
[1] 13570.86
```

We need to know that every command in R has the appropriate explanation in the user manual of R. For any ambiguity we can simply get help by simply giving the command help (topic), and in parentheses to name the topic for which we are looking for information.

At this point we make manual calculations for building confidence intervals.

We found the two confidence intervals for work and break that are respectively:

Interview for the working day: [13198.96 ; 13570.86]

From the imported data in the R language environment, 1000 bootstrap choices have been generated and each of them is averaged as in Table 1, which represents the results obtained for the working days.

Bootstrap Elections	X_1	X_2	X_3	X_{22}	The average \bar{X}_l for each bootstrap choice
X_1	13678.00	13363.68	12636.74	13411.00	13415.62
X_2	13054.56	12636.74	13798.12	13755.00	13440.03
X_3	14074.00	13217.00	13142.11	13755.00	13490.50
X_{1000}	13638.62	13494.00	12636.74	131442.11	13388.19

Tabela 1. Bootstrap Elections and relevant averages for each election for working days.

BUILDING THE INTERVAL OF BIBLE GROWTH

[PERCENTLY PERMITTED]

The method is an improvement of the percentile method described above. This method uses the distribution of bootstrap patterns to correct the displacement and acceleration generated at the percentile confidence intervals.

Build the confidence interval for working days with commands:

To start activating the **boot** library:

```
> library(boot)
```

The appropriate command to execute in the R window is:

```
>pune<-read.csv("C:/perdorues/My Documents/Pune2010.csv",
header=F,dec=";", sep=";")
```

Reads data as a pillar vector:

```
> pune<-data.matrix(pune,rownames.force=NA)
```

Creates random matrix with 1000 bootstrap choices:

```
>MRASTI.pu<-matrix(sample(pune,23000,replace=T),nrow=1000,byrow=T)
```

But the command below finds statistics:

```

> mesatare.boot.pu<- boot(MRASTI.pu, function(x,y) mean(x[y]),1000)
> mesatare.boot.pu
ORDINARY NONPARAMETRIC BOOTSTRAP
Call: boot(data = MRASTI.pu, statistic = function(x, y) mean(x[y]), R = 1000)
original bias std. error
t1* 13471.92 -0.1897795 12.76295
The following command calculates the BCa interval for the working days:
> BCa.pu <- boot.ci(mesatare.boot.pu, type = "bca")
> BCa.pu

```

BOOTSTRAP CONFIDENCE INTERVAL CALCULATIONS

Based on 1000 bootstrap replicates
 CALL : boot.ci(boot.out = mesatare.boot.pu, type = "bca")
 Intervals :

Level BCa
 95% (13446, 13497)
 Builds a histogram that shows how close to normal distribution are bootstrap data:
 >plot(mesatare.boot.pu)

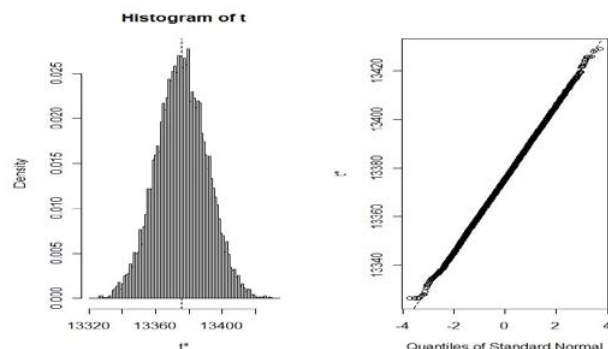


Figure 3. Normal histogram and quaternary chart for workstate bootstrap data

Figure 3 shows the histogram of workstation bootstrap data, which has the normal distribution form, meaning quite symmetric as is also seen from the normal quantizing chart that confirms this. Distribution symmetry is important as this provides a symmetric confidence interval.

We found the confidence interval BCa with the method for work days:

Interview for the working day: [13446 ; 13497]

COMPARISON BETWEEN INTERVALS CONCERNED BY PERCENTAGE METHOD AND METHOD BC_a

In this paragraph we will make a comparison between the percentile interval and that BC_a . Here we will note the effectiveness of the method BC_a against that

percentile in building confidence intervals. This comparison will be accomplished through the two intervals we have found above.

In the case of confidence intervals for working days:

The percentile method: The interval for the work day: [13198.96 ; 13570.86]

The percentile interval length = 371.9

Method BC_a : Interval for working days: [13446 ; 13497]

The length BCa = 51

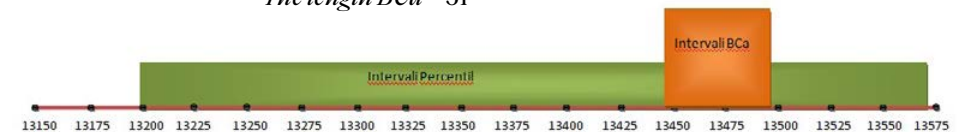


Figure 4. The schematic representation of two confidence intervals

Looking at the confidence intervals for methods evaluated for working days, we note that the confidence intervals evaluated by the method BC_a are better than those evaluated by the percentile method, this is noticed and by their respective length.

First, the intervals BC_a are smaller than the percentile and secondly, since the method BC_a triggers the corrected displacement parameter and the acceleration parameter to verify the change of the standard error rate of the evaluator to that of the true (average) parameter, the intervals BC_a have a greater than that of the percentile method. For these reasons the method BC_a is better than that percentile.

DISCUSSION ABOUT CONSTRUCTION OF CONVERSATION INTERVAL WITH THE METHOD BC_a WHEN CHANGING THE NUMBER OF REFUGEES B

This discussion is done to show the effectiveness of the method in building confidence intervals. For this we distinguish two cases:

- A small number of repeats **B=60**
- A large number of repetitions **B=1000**

By commands in R we are able to find the confidence interval for B = 60:

First, activate the **boot** library:

```
> library(boot)
```

The appropriate command to execute in the R window is:

```
> pune<-read.csv("C:/perdorues/MyDocuments/Pune2010.csv",header=F,dec=";", sep=";")
```

Reads data as a pillar vector:

```
> pune<-data.matrix(pune,rownames.force=NA)
```

Creates random matrix with 1000 bootstrap choices:

```
> MRASTI.pu <-matrix(sample(pune,1380,replace=T),nrow=60,byrow=T)
```

But the command below finds statistics:

```
> mesatare.boot.pu<- boot(MRASTI.pu, function(x,y) mean(x[y]),60)
> mesatare.boot.pu
```



ORDINARY NONPARAMETRIC BOOTSTRAP

Call: boot(data = MRASTI.pu, statistic = function(x, y) mean(x[y])), R = 60)

Bootstrap Statistics :

original bias std. error

t1* 13399.86 -0.004244444 63.53607

Komanda më poshtë llogarit intervalin *BCa* për ditët e punës:

```
> BCa.pu <- boot.ci(mesatare.boot.pu, type = "bca")
```

```
> BCa.pu
```

BOOTSTRAP CONFIDENCE INTERVAL CALCULATIONS

Based on 60 bootstrap replicates

CALL : boot.ci(boot.out = mesatare.boot.pu, type = "bca")

Intervals :

Level BCa

95% (13247, 13528)

This discussion is made with respect to the two intervals we have calculated with the **BCa** method.

Reliability intervals for working days depending on the number of repetitions **B**:
B=60 → Working time interval for working days [13247 ; 13528]

The length of the band BCa = 311

B=1000 → Interval for the working day: [13446 ; 13497]

Length of interval BCa = 51

In case of a change in the number of repetitions **B** we note that the first interval is wider than the second interval, which is also indicated by the length calculated above. Also by theory we know that the large number of repetitions that the method requires requires the choice error to be reduced. Where we have:

B=60 → The default error is = 63.53607

B=1000 → The default error is = 12.76295

CONCLUSION

In this paper the choice was dealt with bootstrap $\hat{F} \rightarrow x^* = (x_1^*, x_2^*, \dots, x_n^*)$, whose data is taken as a case by case choice of the same volume n from the original data x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n of empirical distribution F .

The theoretically constructed bootstrap trust interval by percentiles. We first determined the percentages: $\theta_{lo} = \theta^{(\alpha)} = 100 \cdot \alpha$ - the distribution percentile θ , and $\theta_{up} = \hat{\theta}^{*(1-\alpha)} = 100 \cdot (1 - \alpha)$ - the distribution percentile θ . For percentiles intervals, if $\hat{\phi} = m(\hat{\theta})$ normalizes distribution accuracy $\hat{\theta} : \hat{\phi} \sim N(\phi, c^2)$ for some standard deviations c then the percentage of percentile based θ on the formula

$[m^{-1}(\hat{\phi} - z^{(1-\alpha)}c), m^{-1}(\hat{\phi} - z^{(\alpha)}c)]$. The percentile interval reaches a more regular balance left and right but does not provide overall coverage.

The BCa method is basically similar to that percentile, but it introduces two new components (acceleration) and \hat{z}_0 (corrected refinement). Acceleration \hat{a} refers to the standard error report relative $\hat{\theta}$ to the true value of the parameter θ , while the corrected \hat{z}_0 displacement measures the displacement media $\hat{\theta}^*$, that is, the distance between the media and $\hat{\theta}^*$ the $\hat{\theta}$.

Real application in the R environment, in which the confidence intervals for working days for the percentile method and BCa were constructed, was realized. The BCa method's effectiveness is based on two aspects:

Since the BCa method uses two parameters of the corrected displacement and the acceleration parameter causes the BCa intervals to be smaller than the percentile ones.

The large number of bootstrap repetitions makes the selection mistake smaller.

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POLICIES AND PRACTICES OF GREEN HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT

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ABSTRACT

Social responsibility and environmental management have been for some years at the focus for a lot of companies, which do consider them as important part of their strategy. Human resource management is one of the functional strategies and part of top management in the organizations capable of playing a particular role in crafting and implementing policies that contribute to the environmental management and responsibility. This orientation, recently recognized as "Green HRM", is broadly elaborated in the worldwide HRM literature and closely related to the environmental management system. The companies do implement practices of HRM by orienting them towards the engagement of employees in green management. Processes like recruitment, selection, training and performance compensation are perceived and "modeled" in the light of green management practices.

This paper intends to present the green approach of HRM in the theoretical framework, based on the existing literature, and also to evidence how Albanian organizations are grasping it. The objective is to bring out the good practices of leader companies in green HRM as a mean to draw the attention of as many other organizations as possible to highlight the importance of this approach in activities that are both profitable and socially responsible.

Key words:

green HRM, competitive strategy, environmental management, recruitment, selection, social responsibility.

1. INTRODUCTION

A quick look at the official websites of many Albanian companies made us realize that corporate social responsibility, especially sustainability and environmental management, are becoming an important part of business concept and strategic management for them. These terms and concepts have been unfamiliar to the Albanian business environment, which has its beginnings after the 1990-s. Meanwhile, the rapidity with which Albanian businesses and organizations embrace the latest approaches and put in place contemporary methods, instruments and actions to fulfill their strategic objectives, has prompted us to undertake this study.

The outcomes that companies get from selecting and implementing strategic alternatives are increasingly influenced by several other factors that relate to the competitive environment, stakeholders, but also to the natural environment and the changes that occur in it. The study of influencing factors and interaction between them has led to the definition and/or further elaboration of new concepts in the economic literature. Green HRM is amongst the recent ones. At the same time, the use of these concepts in the academic environment has been considerably increased, intending to educate professionals engaged in business and in other activities as well.

Research objectives

According to Porter and Kramer (2006) "While Corporate Social Responsibility and environmental sustainability strategies take many forms, those that both provide valuable social benefits *and* fulfill customer needs in a superior fashion may also contribute to a company's competitive advantage". Dealing with these concepts from the perspective of strategic management and the need for better recognition of their use in the framework of Albanian organizations constitutes the first footstep of this work. The main purpose of our study is to highlight the HRM practices that Albanian companies pursue for creating a green working environment.

The realization of this purpose and the presentation in this paper requires the fulfillment of following objectives:

- to emphasize the role of environmental management (EM) as part of Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR);
- to theoretically present the green HRM approach by pointing out its role in achieving the objectives of EM and those of the organization as a whole;
- to identify the green aspects of HRM practices that would assist the organization in achieving its environmental objectives;
- through a survey of the Albanian environment, to identify green practices that are embraced by organizations, which can serve as a model for implementing EM policies and the principles of green HRM in other companies, despite of their field of activity.



Methodology

The study of green HRM issues from the theoretical point of view and the identification of good practices in the business environment have imposed a combination of desk-study with the site-survey in some Albanian companies.

Literature review. In order to provide a theoretical approach of Green HRM we are primarily based on research papers, which have carried out a review of GHRM literature in the period 1988-2016. They have been generally complementary to each other, by covering emerging issues in the HRM, Environmental Management / Sustainability (EM / ES) literature.

Given the fact that recruitment, performance management, training and development, and compensation are the most widely investigated HRM functions in the GHRM literature (Renwick, Redman & Maguire, 2013), we focused on getting information about these policies and practices.

Data collection and sample. Company observation is carried out in two forms. Out of the list of 100 largest companies in the country, official websites of 60 companies have been surveyed to identify those that pay special attention to EM and address environmental policies. This latest group of companies has been the sample of a deeper observation. Interviews with representatives of HRM or CEOs were done, and specially designed questionnaires were filled out for detecting GHRM practices and environmentally friendly behaviors.

The findings from questionnaire processing and interviews were analyzed in order to accomplish the objectives of this study, mentioned above.

2. THEORETICAL APPROACH TO GREEN HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT

2.1. From competition to social responsibility / CSR

The idea that businesses have an obligation to care for the social welfare and progress was introduced in the 19th century, when progressive companies started to provide workers with housing and other fittings for alleviating the consequences of the industrial revolution. "By the mid of 20th century the perception of the corporate executives' role in balancing the interests of all stakeholders - shareholders, employees, customers, suppliers, the communities in which they operate, and society as a whole became more evident" (Thompson, Peteraf, Gamble, Strickland, 2015). This perception was followed some years later by the "Business Roundtable", an initiative of a group of America's largest corporations coming out in strong support of the concept of corporate social responsibility (Business Roundtable, 1978).

Amongst the vast literature dealing with and defining the corporate social responsibility (CSR), since the late 1960s, we adopt the one from *Business Dictionary* which defines CSR as "a company's sense of responsibility towards the community and environment (both ecological and social) in which it operates. Companies express this citizenship (a) through their waste and pollution reduction processes, (b) by contributing educational and social programs and (c) by earning adequate returns on the employed resources." (*Business Dictionary*).

Talking about a socially responsible corporate behavior intends that a company

should take in consideration both the strategic actions to benefit shareholders and the commitment to be a good "corporate citizen". Organizations face a real short and long-term challenge to find the balance between these subjects. A clear understanding and engagement of the company managers is required to operate the business by decision making that contributes to the well-being of employees, local communities, the environment, and society at large (Thompson et al.). This social behavior of the companies has moved from voluntary decisions at the level of individual organizations, to mandatory schemes at regional, national and even global levels. As Richard T. de George phrased it in "A history of business ethics" (2011) "CSR has become something that corporations can no longer ignore and still maintain a positive public image".

A company's CSR strategy is defined by the specific combination of socially beneficial activities the company chooses to support with its contributions of time, money, and other resources (Porter & Kramer, 2006). From the strategic point of view, CSR strategies encourage the company to make a positive impact on the environment and stakeholders including consumers, employees, investors, communities, and others. They contribute to value creation, have considerable impact to the risk management and establish the corporate philanthropy' image.

Although there is wide variation in how companies devise and implement a CSR strategy, communities of companies concerned with corporate social responsibility have emerged to help companies share best CSR practices (CSR Europe). Companies that exhibit a strong commitment to corporate social responsibility are often recognized by being included on lists such as *Corporate Responsibility* magazine's "100 Best Corporate Citizens" or *Corporate Knights* magazine's "Global 100 Most Sustainable Corporations".

Furthermore, the academic literature is increasingly illustrating these concepts with examples of remarkable/ benchmarking companies, consequently disseminating them to the university graduated' students, especially in the business schools. We do share this experience in our higher education system as well, although in a moderate way.

Last but not least, a number of reporting standards have been developed, including ISO 26000 - a new internationally recognized standard for social responsibility set by the International Standards Organization (ISO). This standard is intended to assist organizations in contributing to sustainable development. It is aimed to encourage them to go beyond legal compliance, recognizing it as an essential part of their social responsibility (ISO).

2.2. Environmental management and sustainability

The term sustainability is used in a variety of ways. We do adopt here the definition most commonly used, consistent with the World Commission on Environment and Development - WCED (Brundtland Commission, 1987), that describes sustainability as 'development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs' (European Commission, 2002). In many firms, it is used as a synonym for corporate social responsibility; it is seen by some as a term that is gradually replacing CSR in the business lexicon (Porter, 2006). However, from our academic experience and for the purposes of this study, we focus on the

environmental sustainability (ES) of the organizations, concerning the relationship of a company to its environment and its use of natural resources.

The world's natural resources constitute the capital out of which other forms of capital are made. It is widely recognized that these finite resources are being consumed and degraded at rates that threaten their capacity for renewal, which is a global concern (EC, 2002). Since corporations are the biggest users of natural resources, managing and maintaining these resources is critical for the long-term economic interests of corporations.

Ambec et al refer to Porter's innovative view on competition and environmental management relation (Ambec, Cohen, Elgie, Lanoie, 2013). Almost three decades ago, Harvard Business School economist and strategy professor Michael Porter pointed out: "Strict environmental regulations do not inevitably hinder competitive advantage against rivals; indeed, they often enhance it" (Porter 1991). Until that time, the environmental regulation was traditionally seen as a factor of cost increase, consequently reducing company' profit. Since then, Porter's suggestion that more stringent environmental protection may lead to "win-win" outcomes for society overall has contributed to significant environmental and economic improvements through better designed regulation, became an argument that well-designed regulation could really increase competitiveness (Ambec et al., 2013).

2.3. Human Resource Management – how to become green

Human Resource Management (HRM) is an important function of management that deals with the most valuable asset of an organization, which is human resources. The whole context of HRM is currently being considered in the light of sustainability all over. According to Dubois & Dubois' study "Success in embedding ES within an organization requires the presence of HRM in the organization's executive leadership team" (Dubois & Dubois, 2012). The leadership team might play a crucial role in developing a culture in the workplace which supports EM improvement efforts. The role of HRM professionals in designing HRM systems, policies, and practices that contribute to employees' engagement and accomplishment of ES goals, is broadly accepted as a success factor, as well.

The origin of Green HRM concept is traced back to the efforts of organizations to integrate sustainability into their internal activities and decision-making (Ren, Tang & Jackson, 2017). Most of researchers refer the emergence and development of GHRM to the Wehrmeyer statement in 1996: "if a company is to adopt an environmentally-aware approach to its activities, the employees are the key to its success or failure" (Renwick et al., 2013).

The following definition of Green HRM by the Human Resource Management Institute (HRMI) permits a broader analysis of it in the context of organizations: "Green HRM is the use of HRM policies to promote the sustainable use of resources within organizations and, more generally promotes the causes of environment sustainability" (HRMI). This approach can settle green objectives and lead them throughout the HRM process of recruiting, hiring, training, compensating, developing, and advancing the firms human capital. Renwick et al., have stated in their former

study that "it refers to the policies, practices, and systems that make employees of the organization green for the benefit of the individual, society, natural environment, and the business." (Renwick, 2008).

Green HRM is considered in a strategic level of human resource management, consequently it should employ a set of HRM practices well harmonized and intended to support green initiatives of the organization.

There are different studies that have identified HRM practices which would assist the organization in achieving its environmental objectives, resulting in greater efficiencies, lower costs and better employee engagement and retention (Renwick, 2008, 2013, 2016), (Jackson, 2011, 2012, 2017). Using them as an underpinning for our study, we do present shortly how HRM policies and practices can become green and how deep they can go into organizations.

To begin with recruitment and selection, a *green recruitment* practice is distinguished by use of technology for pre-screening, interviews, joining formalities, etc. It might start from the publication on the Company's web site of information related to the activities and EM initiatives undertaken by it, and bring as results savings of paperwork, minimizing travelling and time, consequently reducing the carbon footprints for both the employer and the job seekers. It is also evidenced by several studies that companies are affected by their "green candidates" in turn making improvements to their environmental practices (Jackson, 2011).

A *green oriented selection* process applies job descriptions and personnel specifications that emphasize environmental aspects of the job and interview protocols that check applicant environmental knowledge, values and beliefs.

Companies consider *training* as an important element of HRM policy that helps to increase the competencies of employees, contributing to competitive advantage. Combining professional training of newly hired employees with elements that raise to a higher degree their "green" knowledge, skills, attitudes and behaviors, is becoming an HRM practice considerably contributing to the achievement of ES objectives for the companies (Jackson, 2011, 2012), (Renwick, 2016).

Although recognized challenges of performance and appraisal systems in organizations, a 'green' orientation of them is reported in different countries (Jackson, 2011), (Ren, 2017). Such green adaptation of performance management and evaluation system intends fixing criteria related to workforce contribution to the 'green' objectives of the organization and use of them during the employee' performance appraisal process. Environmentally friendly behaviors or specific "green" objectives to be achieved by each employee or group of employees might be integrated into the process of staff appraisal. Moreover, they can encourage a learning culture in environmental management inside the organization. However, these green practices seem to be mostly applied in the high management levels, rather than broadly for other employees (Jackson, 2011).

Reward system and compensation schemes based on "green" competencies and achievements are rarely mentioned in the reviewed literature, although few examples exist (Ren, 2017). In most cases, companies provide non-monetary rewards for their employees highly involved in environmental supportive activities within organization.



3. GREEN ORIENTATION IN ALBANIAN ORGANIZATIONS

CSR strategies and environmental sustainability strategies are more likely to contribute to a company's competitive advantage if they are linked to a company's competitively important resources and capabilities or value chain activities. Thus, it is common for companies engaged in natural resource extraction, electric power production, forestry and paper products manufacture, construction, and chemical production to place more emphasis on addressing environmental concerns than, say, software and electronics firms or other service providers.

However, this is not evidenced in all cases and places. The awareness and engagement of a number of companies in areas not related to the massive use of natural resources is observed in the Albanian business milieu.

3.1. Tracing the green footprints

Our efforts to evidence the awareness about and the engagement of Albanian businesses into environmentally responsible activities have started with a desk-study of 100 largest companies in the country (Data by General Tax Directorate, processed and announced by Monitor.al, 2018). Out of that list, we dug deeper into the websites of those companies that have a website. The official websites of 60 companies have been surveyed to identify those that pay special attention to EM and address environmental policies. The initial results were complemented by a field study, with interviews and questionnaires filled in by HRM representatives or CEO-s of the sample companies.

The questionnaire was specially designed for detecting GHRM practices and environmentally friendly behaviors in the companies.

It was intended to assist answering our research question: how much green policies and practices are embraced by Albanian companies.

The most widely investigated HRM functions in the GHRM literature, as above mentioned, constitute six blocks of questions in the first part of questionnaire. The first four questions relate to the role of top management in establishing a "green" work milieu, through their engagement and inclusion of green objectives in their strategic planning. Recruitment and selection process is checked by the next five questions, trying to appoint the visibility of environmental concern in job descriptions, as well as reckon on green competencies during selection of candidates.

They are followed by the block of four questions that try to evidence "green" performance and appraisal features, despite known difficulties of such process in general. Questions about "green" training practices are included, although there is low expectancy for dedicated programs to it. Compensations policies related to green skills, competencies and/or achievements are checked making three questions in the fifth block. The last block of questions is dedicated to the employee "green" engagement and involvement.

As a first study in a relatively recent field, it couldn't be too ambitious as to provide a detailed analysis and assessment of "green" situation of HRM functions in Albanian organizations. Consequently, the respondents were asked to confirm if they apply or not the policies and practices described from the questions, so limiting the answers in

a binary system (0-1). However, the survey results are appropriate for the qualitative study; they are not aiming to establish statistical associations between variables in this stage of our work.

The second part of the questionnaire has been drafted based on the observation that since their implementation, EM practices have seen technological innovation in waste reduction, energy conservation, and environmental preservation. The implementation of these "eco-friendly" practices and behaviors are more widespread in companies and much more recognized than those typically belonging to HRM functions, as the findings of this study reinforce. Their visibility and sometimes the financial effects make them more evident in the companies. This precisely was intended from the second part of the questionnaire, comprised of ten statements to be confirmed (or negated) in case the organization does that "green" activity, or encourages the behavior. They generally belong to that group of actions companies can take to go green, some of which don't cost money at all to implement. In few words, such actions can be described as: go paperless, recycle, reduce commuting, conduct energy audit, save limited natural resources, clean surroundings, etc.

The interviews and the results from the questionnaire have brought to the findings presented below.

3.2. Findings and discussion

The surveyed Albanian companies carry out different economic activities, from construction and food processing to banking and ICT services, as demonstrated by figure 1. The sample structure is not a choice; it derives from the structure of the initial list of 100 largest companies considered in the study. Nevertheless, this random choice enables a non-discriminant survey and provides realistic evidences from various industries.

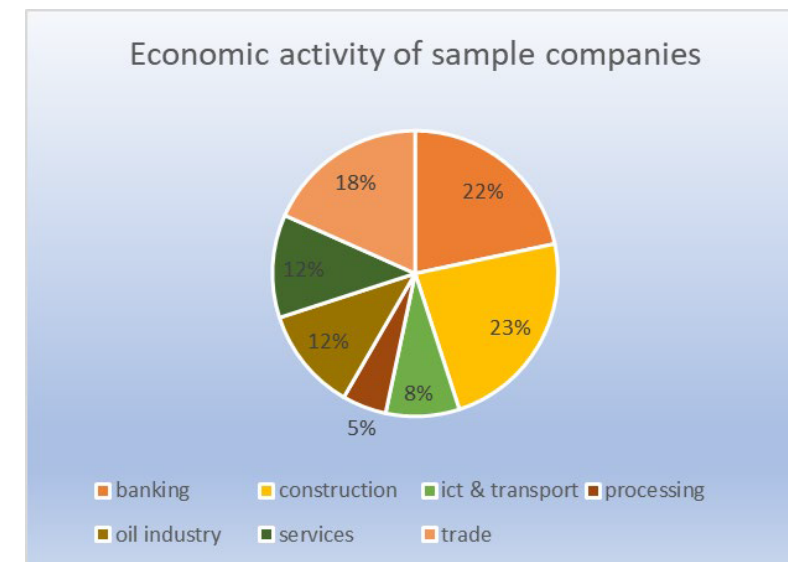


Fig.1 – Sample structure according the field of industry / economic activity.



The strategic management of Albanian companies is becoming obvious for the stakeholders through various ways. The advantages of displaying their overall strategy and Corporate Social Responsibility as part of it seems to have encouraged the companies for announcing those in their official websites. From the surveyed companies 88% of them have an articulated strategy. More than half of the companies do consider the Corporate Social Responsibility as an important part of their strategy, undertaking serious engagements toward it (Figure 2). Further on, 71% of the last part of the sample emphasize the role of environmental management (EM) as part of CSR and declare specific objectives and clear-cut commitment for a green business.

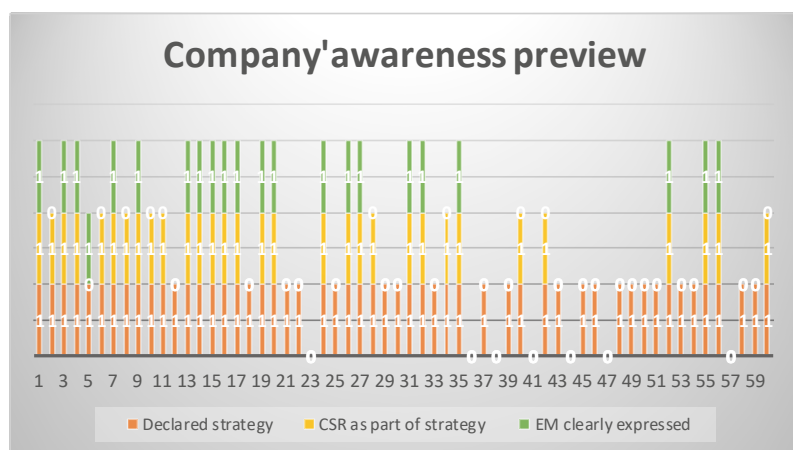


Fig. 2 – Emphasis on Environmental Management as part of company' strategy

Amongst the surveyed industries, most of oil, ICT and construction companies display serious engagement in environmental management practices. The outcomes from the questionnaire, first block of questions, converge with those of the abovementioned empirical survey: about 3/4 of the companies testify the awareness and commitment of top management to EM.

However, management commitment to environmental performance is rarely followed by significant green HRM practices. Concerning recruitment, only one third of companies confirm the awareness of their HRM function/ office regarding the role and benefit of "green" orientation in this process. Such awareness and inclusion of environmental elements is even lower in the selection process, with around 17% of the respondents. One company only reports for green selection practices, which is both related to green awareness and to their specific field of activity (services for environmental monitoring), as revealed during the interview.

The part of survey dedicated to performance management and appraisal provides one of the most accepted and embraced green aspect: all companies confirm the acknowledgment of green objectives and responsibilities from the employees. As to the feedback regarding the achievement of these objectives, it is reported by around 40% of them, which means also limited opportunities to relate the results with the compensation policies.

Processing of data for the training part of the questionnaire brings to similar figures with the previous paragraph. One third of companies report they provide training to raise the awareness level of employees regarding environmental issues. Only 15% of the companies consider environmental issues when they design the trainings for their newly hired employees and one of them provides the training on-line.

These findings allow further analysis and discussion about the green HRM practices in Albanian companies.

The presence of management teams in some companies that consider the environmental performance as an attractive factor for qualified employees is an estimable feature. It should be seen as a signal of top management recognition on the importance of environmental management for building competitive advantage based on workforce quality, despite of limited green recruitment and selection practices, in general.

The lack of other green recruitment and selection aspects, such as care for environment in the job descriptions, or their disuse as criteria during above processes signifies the need for HRM specialists to be much more aware of the HRM active role in realization of green objectives of the company. Such better preparedness would bring to a reflection from their side about green behaviors, attitudes, values and responsibilities in the workplace and use of them during the hiring process.

Training practice, according to the trends evidenced by the literature review, should be highly evaluated and utilized by the companies that are environmentally oriented or have fixed green objectives, which is not the case for Albanian companies. Some of them report trainings related to environmental protection and sustainability, but there is almost no evidence for acquaintance with environmental programs during the reception/ orientation period for newly hired employees. Neither is any serious consideration of needs on environmental issues when analyzing the needs for training. It remains one of HRM functions that bears plenty of potential for inciting the environmental sustainability in company level.

The green objectives and behaviors are still missing in the system of performance management and evaluation of Albanian companies, although most of them report the acknowledgement of environmental responsibility from their employees, as well as some feedback about fulfilling it. This situation leads to the judgement that Albanian companies are in the stage of including green objectives in the organization level, but not yet breaking them down to the workplace level for every employee, so that enable use of these objectives in the performance evaluation. This shortcoming affects afterwards the other HRM practice, that of compensation. There are reported few rewarding schemes related to environmental initiatives/ performance, mostly from manufacturing companies. They use schemes that associate the reward of employees with their careful consumption of inputs, resulting in environmental care through reduced waste, which in turn helps to the realization of other cost-oriented objectives.

The study shows that Albanian companies are still far from using employee involvement practices, which would provide opportunities for employees to assist in realizing the company's green objectives. None of the respondents reported practices

such as: providing workforce with opportunities to be involved and participating in suggestion and consultation schemes to solve company problems, organizing workshops for staff to improve behaviors or exchange individual knowledge about the environment, the use of working groups for the recognition and management of environmental problems of the company.

As to eco-friendly practices and behaviors, they are present in most of companies and well supported both by top management and workforce. Some of manufacturing companies do report for specific initiatives of recycling and reuse of paper-based products, which might be promoted in the industry level.

4. CONCLUSIONS

CSR strategies and environmental sustainability strategies that both provide valuable social benefits *and* fulfill customer needs in a superior fashion can lead to competitive advantage. Green HRM, defined as the HRM aspects of environmental management (EM), is less recognized and elaborated compared to other management functions, both in academic literature and practical realization in Albanian organization.

Green HRM seems to be a challenge for executives and employees in Albanian companies. There are elements of recruitment, training and compensation that reflect 'green' concern, but they seem mostly related to the economic objectives of energy save and waste reduction. The organizations should explore and use the full range of green HRM practices for realizing the environmental objectives incorporated in their strategies.

The shortcoming of green aspects in HRM practices implicates the need for a stronger comprehension from the HRM professionals towards this recent trend of global importance.

Although its limitations, this study represents a first effort to highlight the mentioned findings and intends to push for broader and more detailed research in the field.

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The legal aspects of the administrator's relationship with the commercial company in the Albanian Company Law

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ABSTRACT:

The exercise of an economic activity, as well as many other activities carried out in our society, is governed by legal rules, which influence the promotion of an appropriate business climate. Administration of a commercial company, as one of the elements of corporate governance, while interacting with all spheres of actors inside and outside the commercial company, remains a process associated with transactions and the daily exercise of the activity of the commercial company. In addition to administration and legal representation of the commercial company, the administrator/s play a central role in the corporate governance.

The relationship of the administrator with the commercial company has been subject of numerous doctrinal debate and court proceedings in many countries of the world, but "almost nontreated" by the doctrine in Albania. This paper analyzes this legal relationship by combining the interpretation of legal norms with different court cases pursued not only in Albania but also in other Western European countries, in order to highlight the legal regulation of the administrator's relationship with the commercial company.

KEYWORDS:

director, commercial company, service, employment, company law

ADMINISTRATOR'S RELATION WITH THE COMMERCIAL COMPANY – FOREIGN DOCTRINE AND JURISPRUDENCE

Administrators are not required to perform only specific legal acts, well defined (as a representative), but a complex administrative activity similar to that of an entrepreneur (Bachner, Schuster & Winner, 2009: 139). Also, the administration functions of the company are not attributed to administrators on the basis of an act of the company or shareholders but by the law itself, exclusively and binding (Xhoxhaj, 2012: 68).

In the Italian doctrine, frequently the relationship administrator - company is conceived as a relationship that finds its source in the contracts of administration entered between the company and the administrators (D 'Isa, 2011: 1). According to this doctrine, the provisions of the act of memoranda related to the management of the company are the general conditions of the contract that will be signed later between the Assembly and administrators of the company.

Referring to the above, the competences of the administrators conceived as original and derived directly from this contract, as well as the competences of the Assembly (Galgano, 1969: 71). An opposite argument, to that mentioned above, provides the Italian author Francesco Galgano, when explaining that the administrators are not party to the Act of Memoranda of the company, and due to this, their competencies cannot have its source to this contract taking into account the general principle that the contract may not have effects for the third parties (2008: 269).

According to this author, the appointment of the administrators by the General Assembly and acceptance of this appointment by the administrators should not be considered as an agreement between the company and the administrators for the creation of a specific contractual relationship, different from the contractual relationship of the company, which has the execution of the latter, as a subject matter. Appointment of the administrators and acceptance by them of this duty, is not an act that gives the competencies to the administrators but is simply the act that defines the persons appointed in the relevant body.

Even according to a decision of the Milan Court, civil division, which reinforces this argument, organic relationship that arises as a result of the appointment of a subject as administrator of the company cannot be equated to the relationship that may be established parallel between the same parties (company-administrator).¹ Also, the German doctrine holds the same position, considering these as two relations conceptually separated and independent of each other.²

In general, the type of legal relationship between the general Assembly (company) and the administrator is difficult to be determined. Western doctrine and jurisprudence have different opinions about legal relationship, which can be established between the administrator and the company.

According to a decision of the Italian Court of Cassation, civil and labour

¹ Decision no. 6836 dt. 24.05.2010 of Milan Court (civil division).

² AIJA PRAAG 2014 - "Joined session labour and corporate - who is not afraid of being a company director?" <http://prague.aija.org/wp-content/uploads/2014/04/WS06-National-Report-Germany-Labour-Law.pdf>, pag.5.



division, in order to configure the employment relationship between a member of the management board of the company and the company itself, it is necessary that the member provides prove of the existence of the “dependency element”.³

The same court, in another decision, maintains the opinion that being a partner and manager in a company composed of two partners, two administrators, is incompatible with the definition of the relationship as a subordinated employment relationship, both at the executive and decision-making levels.⁴

Meanwhile in the German doctrine and jurisprudence of the Federal Court, prevails the opinion that the legal relationship established is a service contractual relation, which contains provisions on the responsibilities, salary, bonuses, annual holidays etc. This service contract is usually with a fixed term and accompanied by a guide on reporting towards shareholders or boards of the commercial company.⁵ Only the German Federal Court, labour division, holds a different opinion in its decision, treating this legal relationship as a dependent working relationship if some dependency elements are verified.

The main elements of the dependency are the level of autonomy towards Assembly and purpose of management freedom of the company. If the administrators have to report on a daily basis to shareholders, asking for approval for any action to be undertaken, including hiring employees, can be concluded that there exist the dependency elements and therefore a dependent relationship.⁶

ADMINISTRATOR’S RELATION WITH THE COMMERCIAL COMPANY – ALBANIAN DOCTRINE AND JURISPRUDENCE

In the Albanian commercial legislation, there are no provisions, defining the type of legal relationship between the company and the administrators. This fact is evidenced through the literal interpretation of articles 95 and 158 points 6 points 7 of Albanian Company Law, which state that the lawsuits related to the remuneration of the board members on the basis of contractual relations with the company, shall be governed by the legal provisions in force. Under these conditions, there is a need of identifying the provisions that will apply to the regulation of this relationship (Fana & Gorezi, 2015: 337-341). Albanian doctrine although not extensively treated this type of legal relationship established between administrators and the company (Xhoxhaj, 2012: 69), is divided into two groups depending on the relationship classification.

Specifically, a part of the doctrine, which has treated this legal issue, is of the opinion that this is a employment relationship. If refer to article 5 of the Albanian Labor Code, can be evidenced that the activity of the administrator is excluded from the scope of this Code. But taking into consideration the principle that through interpretation of the legal provisions can be identified the scope of the legislator, namely article 4 of

3 Decision No. 7465 dt. 21.05.2002 of the Italian Court of Cassation (civil and labour division).

4 Decision No. 11978 dt. 28.06. 2004 of Italian Court of Cassation (civil and labour division)

5 AIJA PRAAG 2014 – “Joined session labour and corporate - who is not afraid of being a company director?” <http://prague.aija.org/wp-content/uploads/2014/04/WS06-National-Report->

6 Ibid

this Code, which provides the possibility of the application of certain provisions of this Code, in cases when the specific law offers no solution to the issues related to employment relation (Xhoxhaj, 2012 : 54).

Consequently, through this provision, the legislator had the intention to provide the proper legal regulation when special laws contain loopholes with regard to the employment aspects. This conclusion derives not only through integrated interpretation of legal provisions but also by the analysis of the relationship nature between the company and the administrator. The Albanian Company provides that the main competencies of the administrator are the management of the daily activities of the company and representation of the company with third parties. These competencies can be exercised jointly or separately. Through interpretation of these competencies, results that the administrator is dependent by the company, because its duty should be exercised in conformity with the rules of company and under its supervision (Malltezi, Rystemaj & Kromiçi, 2015:264-275).

Referring to article 12 of the Labour Code, which provides that the employee can work under the employer’s direction and control, can be understood that the relationship administrator - company is a working relationship. This part of the doctrine qualifies it as a genuine employment relationship without the need of verifying the existence of the dependency elements (Malltezi, 2011: 51).

While the rest of the doctrine, is of the opinion that this relationship from its legal nature has contractual character, offering all the skills, knowledge for the management of the company as a service toward remuneration.⁷ This established relation depends on the parties’ will. Supporters of this point of view argue that pursuant to article 5 of the Labour Code, the activity of the administrator explicitly is excluded from the scope of this Code.⁸ In favor of this argument they bring the fact that administrators are an essential part of the company structure expressly provided by law and that this law has not individualized such dependency condition in order to conclude that this is an employment relationship.

In these circumstances, this legal relationship can be treated as a special type of contractual relationship *sui generis*, which is regulated by the Civil Code, applying some provisions of the service contract, despite the fact that such a contract is not governed by the Civil Code (Xhoxhaj, 2012 : 70). Also, based on the same reasoning and referring to article 158 paragraph 7 of Albanian Company Law, the conflicts that can arise between administrators and the company, as well as damage remuneration claimed by the administrators shall be governed by the provisions of the Civil Code, as long as this relationship is considered contractual and not governed by a specific law, but according to the legal provisions in force (Malltezi, Rystemaj & Kromiçi, 2015:264-275).

This opinion is contradicted by that part of the doctrine, which supports that the administrator relationship with the company is an employment relation and not an agency relation with the shareholders, because there is no direct relation between them, except for the fact that shareholders have the right to appoint and dismiss

7 Ibid.

8 Article 5 of Law no. 7961 dt. 12.07.1995 “ Labour Code of the Republic of Albania”



administrators at the two levels management system (Fana & Gorezi, 2015: 337-341).

Moreover, the representation of the company with the third parties reinforces the argument that the relation of the administrator with the company cannot be classified as agency relationship. But apart from representation, the administrator performs the management of the daily activity. Fulfillment or non-fulfillment of this competence does not bring the regulation of lawsuits for the remuneration of the administrators by the provisions of the Civil Code for the agency, as the administrator has an employment relationship with the company (Fana & Gorezi, 2015: 337-341).

Therefore, Albanian Company Law as *lexspecialis*, although the lack of concrete provisions, does not refer to *lexgeneralis* (Civil Code) but to a special law, applying the principle of *lexspecialis derogat generali*. Civil Code as *lexgeneralis* will only apply if no regulatory provisions are found in special laws (Fana & Gorezi, 2015: 337-341).

The Albanian jurisprudence has been divided in determining the type of legal relationship between the administrator and the company.

As an illustration may serve the decision nr.4490, dt.08.04.2014 of Tirana District Court and Decision no. 4848, dt. 14.05.2012 of Tirana District Court, which refer to discharge of the administrator of the company. In the first decision, the Court, after reviewing the facts and circumstances, did not evaluate the relation that is established between the administrator and the company as an employment relationship regulated by the Labour Code. According to the Court, administrator enjoys a special status in the company. The administrator cannot be compared with all other employees of the company hired by the administrator.

In this context, Labour Code cannot serve exclusively as legal basis to regulate the relation between the company and the administrator, but the provisions of Albanian Company Law and Civil Code. As legal basis on which the court bases its reasoning, serves article 5 of the Labour Code, which explicitly excludes application of Labour Code for activity that is limited to the exercise of the duties of counselor or member of the management body of the company.⁹ Besides the exclusion, the court evaluated the special relationship that exists between the company and administrator, considering that:

“The administrator is one of the important organs of the company and its relationship with the company is more than an employment relationship. It is a relationship of trust and responsibility on the progress of the legal entity, through the management of daily activities, having into consideration always the best interest of the company.”¹⁰

In the second decision, the Court considers that the relation established between the administrator and the company is an employment relation and consequently disciplined by the Labour Code. Court defines that:

“Between the litigant parties existed an employment relationship, which was not denied during the trial and the defendant has had a legal obligation at the time

⁹ See Decision no. 4490 dt. 08.04.2014 of Tirana District Court.

¹⁰ Ibid.

of discharge from the plaintiff's duty, to respect the provisions of the Labour Code, regulating the manner of termination of employment contract.”¹¹

Further, the court states that “the administrator of the company, due to its quality and competence performed under the law and the statute, is an employee of the company.” Also, the Albanian jurisprudence, has defined the applicable law to resolve the consequences as a result of the administrator dismissal. Consequently, if the relation between the company and the administrator is not considered an employment relationship, the lawsuit related to the remuneration of the administrator dismissed, shall be governed by the provisions of the Civil Code.¹² In contrast, the lawsuit related to the remuneration of the discharged administrator, shall be regulated according to the provisions of the Labour Code.¹³

Specifically, decision no. 00-2012-469 (59) dated 07.02.2012, of the Supreme Court (civil division) has ruled that in absence of special provisions of the Albanian Company Law governing the consequences of the dismissal of administrators, leads to the implementation and application of Albanian legislation in force, which regulates precisely the consequences of employment contract termination, namely articles 4, 143, 144, 145, 155 of the Labour Code. Precisely article 4 of the Labour Code provides that specific provisions of the Labour Code would be implemented to persons, whose employment is regulated by special law, where that law does not regulate the problems related to the employment relations.

An interesting argument regarding the regulation of the consequences for a dismissed liquidator of the company can be found in Decision No. 00-2014-3498 dt. 09.10.2014 of the Supreme Court (Civil College). The College considers that under the conditions that the special Company Law, that regulates the appointment of the liquidators in the companies, does not provide solutions to problems related to employment relations, then in accordance with article 4 of the Labour Code, the latter will regulate the claims arising from the employment relationship of the liquidator with the company. The college estimates that the intention of the legislator in the performance of such provision in article 4 of the Labour Code has been precisely to guarantee the protection of workers and the prohibition of violation of their rights beyond the minimum protection set by the labour legislation

This argument can also be applied accordingly in case of lawsuits related to the remuneration of the administrator on the basis of contractual relations with the company, as referred to in article 158 paragraph 7 of Albanian Company Law, these lawsuits are governed by the legal provisions in force. In addition, the liquidator during his activity assumes the rights and obligations of the administrator of the company and represents the company in relation to third parties, thus having a similar position with the administrator of the company.

As above, in the absence of a specific regulation in the Company law, the consequences of the dismissal of a member of the Board of Directors or administrator

¹¹ See Decision No. 4848, dt. 14.05.2012 of Tirana District Court.

¹² See Decision No.6461 dt. 20.07.2011 of Tirana District Court.

¹³ See Decision no.10036 dt.08.10.2013 of Tirana District Court and decision no.1577 dt. 19.02.2013 of Tirana District Court

in joint stock companies may be governed by special provisions of the Labour Code.

As a result, according to the Unifying decision and the Supreme Court decisions discussed above, the identified purpose of the legislator was to guarantee standards of protection for administrators and liquidators of the commercial company.

CONCLUSION

Determining the type of legal relationship between the company and the administrator, in the absence of relevant provisions in the Albanian Company Law, has resulted difficult due to different points of view held by the Albanian doctrine and jurisprudence.

Depending on these points of view, the type of legal relationship between the company and the administrator is considered either service contractual service relation, which is governed by the Civil Code or employment relationship, which is governed by the Labour Code.

Based on the analysis of the legal provisions of the Civil Code and Labour Code, doctrine and jurisprudence, can be concluded that the relationship created between the administrator and the society is an employment relationship. Labour Code, despite the fact of excluding the administrator's activity from its field of application, provides the possibility of applying special provisions of this Code, in cases where the special law does not provide a solution to matters related to labor relations. Specifically, Albanian Company Law as *lexspecialis*, does not regulate these kinds of issues and does not refer to *lexgeneralis* (Civil Code), but to the special law (Labour Code). Under these conditions, the special provisions of Labour Code, based on the principle *lexspecialis derogat generali* will regulate the relationship of the administrator with the company

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Commemorazione e promozione del passato comunista in Albania, attraverso il turismo del patrimonio comunista. Il Caso di Bunk'Art.

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ABSTRACT

Recentemente, l'UNESCO presta particolare attenzione ai paesi e popoli che, nella loro storia, hanno assistito a eventi tragici (genocidi, massacri, schiavitù, regimi totalitari, ecc.), considerandoli siti del patrimonio dell'umanità. Inoltre, con l'aumento della domanda turistica per questi paesi, luoghi e siti particolari, la questione del "patrimonio dissonante" è stata oggetto di grande attenzione da parte di molti studiosi del patrimonio culturale. Negare o ignorare un periodo, la sua eredità e il patrimonio culturale che ha lasciato, diventa più difficile quando visitatori e turisti sono interessati a quel periodo e al suo lascito. Il Turismo del Patrimonio Comunista nell'Europa Centro Orientale è emerso dopo gli anni '90. Questo turismo offre visite a luoghi strettamente legati ai regimi comunisti e alla loro caduta e paesi che rappresentano e ricordano questo passato o presente, che non sempre è ben accolto. Duncan Light nei suoi studi sul patrimonio comunista lo considera un "passato indesiderato", d'altra parte, Ivanov (2009) afferma che il comunismo, con tutti i suoi successi e disgrazie, è percepito come un periodo temporaneo "fuori pista", che non merita lo "sguardo del turista". L'apertura di Bunk'Art, il quale non è solo un "museo tradizionale" finalizzato alla semplice esibizione di materiale storico ma divenne un "luogo della memoria" che attraverso percorsi interattivi, documenti originali e oggetti comuni, prova a far convergere la memoria dei singoli e quella della collettività per raccontare la storia nazionale Albanese molto spesso messa da parte.

PAROLE CHIAVE:

Turismo, memoria, patrimonio dissonante, patrimonio culturale comunista, Bunk'Art.

¹ "Difficult heritage" è un altro termine che viene usato nel mondo anglo-sassone per il patrimonio "dissonante" o il "patrimonio scomodo" ereditata da paesi e popoli che, nella loro storia, hanno assistito a eventi tragici (genocidi, massacri, schiavitù, regimi totalitari, ecc.).

INTRODUZIONE

Il periodo del comunismo è durato quasi mezzo secolo in Europa e di più in Russia, e stato un periodo buio e di sofferenza dove mancava la libertà di esprimersi, muoversi liberamente era quasi impossibile e la nazionalizzazione della terra e delle fabbriche ha represso l'iniziativa privata. È stato anche un periodo di tranquillità, di sicurezza fisica, sicurezza sul lavoro e una vita sociale ben organizzata che il comunismo offriva. Mentre molti paesi dell'Europa Centro Orientale hanno intrapreso un percorso di progressiva liberalizzazione negli anni 70-80, l'Albania ha preso esattamente la strada opposta. I leader dell'Albania, Enver Hoxha prima e Ramiz Alia dopo, erano sostenitori della centralizzazione dell'economia e il controllo statale sulla società albanese fu progressivamente esteso durante questi anni. Con la Costituzione del 1976 veniva abolita del tutto la proprietà privata e l'Albania diventa il primo paese ateo nel mondo. Inoltre, il potere politico ed economico era concentrato nelle mani della famiglia del leader e del suo cerchio stretto, attorno ai quali si sviluppò un grande culto della personalità. Il dissenso interno è stato soppresso da un servizio di sicurezza invasivo *Sigurimi* che fecero l'Albania la più repressiva dei paesi dell'ECO. Per 45 anni, il comunismo è stata l'unica ideologia politica del paese, con conseguenti profondi cambiamenti sociali, economici e politici, che ha lasciato la sua impronta sullo sviluppo del paese.

Dalla caduta del regime la società albanese si divise nella interpretazione di quel periodo dando vita a potenziali conflitti su come bisogna gestire questa eredità in particolare modo per la gestione del patrimonio comunista in Albania. La divisione delle opinioni pubbliche è culminata nel 2011, quando il Primo Ministro e il leader di destra Sali Berisha ha deciso per la demolizione della Piramide "il Mausoleo di Enver Hoxha", costruito dopo la sua morte nel 1988, per dare spazio a un nuovo faraonico parlamento che doveva essere il simbolo della nuova Albania democratica (Iacono e Këlliçi 2016). La storia si ripete nel 2014 con l'apertura ai turisti del Bunk'Art: non è un caso che l'edificio sia stato aperto per i visitatori solo dopo che al governo è arrivato la sinistra, segnando una vera rottura con il precedente governo sulla gestione del lascito comunista. Questi gruppi hanno avuto da sempre dei punti di vista estreme e opposte su come deve essere interpretato il passato comunista dell'Albania. I sostenitori anticomunisti di destra non sono d'accordo con l'apertura del governo nella valorizzazione del patrimonio comunista.

Attraverso un'esplorazione del patrimonio comunista nell'Europa Centro Orientale, questo elaborato tenterà di dimostrare che tale lascito non può essere separato dal suo contesto politico. In una regione in cui la costruzione delle nuove identità sono instabili e talvolta fragili, il turismo è un mezzo attraverso il quale un paese può presentarsi al mondo come una democrazia postcomunista credibile e legittima. La presentazione del passato recente è un problema politico processo mediato, circoscritto da dibattiti più ampi nel periodo post-comunista riguardante la politica della memoria e dell'identità. Tuttavia, l'Albania ha avuto meno successo in confronti nel fare una rottura decisiva con il precedente regime. Questo articolo illustra la natura ambivalente e fortemente contestata del recente passato nel paese. Il retaggio



e l'identità nazionale sono strettamente correlati, ma il processo di costruzione della nazione è spesso "tanto per dimenticare il passato quanto per commemorarlo" (Light 2000a).

IL PATRIMONIO E IL PATRIMONIO "SCOMODO"

La memoria e il patrimonio sono strettamente collegati. Senza memoria non ci sarebbe patrimonio, cultura o identità. Secondo Halbwachses (1987), ci sono molti tipi di memoria; collettiva, individuale, locale, nazionale, ufficiale e non ufficiale, storico e molti altri, ma tutti sono strettamente collegate a un particolare paese o persone. Il comunismo ha lasciato un immenso patrimonio storico e culturale, ma bisogna vedere come è stato gestito, distrutto, ignorato, conservato o valorizzato dopo il crollo del comunismo, e come alcuni di questi "monumenti" oggi possono essere inclusi nella storia comune diventando parte dell'identità di un luogo o persino di una nazione². Il patrimonio lasciato dal periodo comunista in Albania non è solo quello "materiale" ma comprende anche i ricordi e le opinioni talvolta contraddittori delle generazioni precedenti per quel periodo. Come scrive Ayers e Paragoni (2015), il patrimonio comunista dell'Albania è importante quanto la maggior parte dei principali tesori nazionali ereditati dal passato; ellenico, romano, bizantino e ottomano. Nel frattempo, il patrimonio comunista è qualcosa che è stato creato e utilizzato dagli albanesi per gli albanesi.

Il patrimonio "può essere visto, come assunzione dell'identità e di un interesse per il passato, un interesse per le culture, edifici, manufatti e paesaggi sia del passato che del presente" (Boyd e Dallen, 2007). Esso comprende l'ambiente culturale e naturale che le persone ereditano dalle generazioni precedenti. Il patrimonio culturale è prevalentemente associato all'ambiente costruito (Boyd e Dallen, 2007), agli artefatti materiali, ma anche agli elementi culturali immateriali (Turnpenny, 2004): religione, danze, canti, letteratura, usi e costumi sono anche di grande importanza e attirano molti visitatori (Gonzalez, 2008).

Il patrimonio di un ex regime oppressivo o altri tipi di eredità difficili spesso includono vari tipi di edifici, luoghi e artefatti. Da qua sorge la domanda quale di tutta questo patrimonio culturale, storico-artistico dovrebbe essere scelta per la conservazione o destinata alla distruzione come un atto simbolico? A volte parte della storia nazionale e l'eredità lasciata da questi regimi viene considerata scomoda (la schiavitù in nord America o Sud Africa, il periodo nazifascista in Germania e Italia o il comunismo nei paesi ex socialisti dell'Europa Centro Orientale e i politici provano, con o senza successo distruggerlo in continuazione (Ivanov, 2009).

Il *difficult heritage* ossia il patrimonio lasciato da un regime oppressivo o da altri periodi o eventi traumatici comprende vari tipi di edifici e di luoghi storici. Non ci sono molti i ricercatori nelle scienze sociali o geografia umana che studiano il significato dei edifici e luoghi del patrimonio scomodo in letteratura di lingua italiana³. Invece

2 Si noti che secondo uno studio ancora in corso con il tema di "Percezione della storia e del patrimonio comunista in Albania" i primi risultati mostrano che 63% dei intervistati sono d'accordo che il patrimonio comunista abbia un interesse nazionale il 30% non sono d'accordo e il 7% rifiuta di rispondere.

3 Si noti che il progetto ATRIUM (Architettura dei Regimi Totalitari), che è un progetto nel quale partecipa-

nella letteratura di lingua inglese il termine di *difficult heritage* e molto studiato e nella maggior parte si concentra principalmente sui casi dell'Europa Centro Orientale (Ashworth e Tunbridge, 1996, Burstrom e Gelderblom, 2011, Macdonald, 2006, 2009, 2010, 2013 e Knudsen, 2010 ecc.). Diversi studiosi proclamano il modo in cui i monumenti commemorativi enfatizzano la gloria del passato di una società con i suoi interessi e le sue aspirazioni del presente. Essi affermano che gli eventi o gli individui scelti per la commemorazione sono necessariamente eroici. In tal senso, la commemorazione è guidata da piacevolezza che offre un'immagine unitaria e positiva del passato. Supponiamo che la società sia divisa proprio sugli eventi da commemorare i quali costituiscono un momento doloroso per la società, così come una sconfitta militare o una oppressione nazionale (Wagner-Pacifici e Schwartz, 2001). Reeves e Long (2008) affermano che "se lo scopo del patrimonio è la conservazione, nel caso dei luoghi di dolore e di vergogna e quello di commemorare le vittime, allora l'importanza della conservazione dei luoghi perpetratori è veramente poca". Invece, Jedlowsky (2002) scrive che la commemorazione è il processo di istituzionalizzazione di un ricordo, dove molte volte i politici lo riservano ai ricordi che riguardano morti violente: può trattarsi di morti "per una causa", oppure di uccisi da una mano che non si intende di legittimare, bensì condannare in eterno (campi di concentramento, Hiroshima e Nagasaki, o l'uccisione di poliziotti e magistrati dalla mafia nel caso dell'Italia ecc.). Molti luoghi del patrimonio scomodo e delle atrocità appartengono a entrambe le parti carnefici e vittime, per esempio i campi di concentramento. Il patrimonio dei carnefici potrebbe essere l'ex quartier generale della Gestapo, la Casa del Popolo a Bucarest o la Piramide⁴ di Tirana, anche se le ultime due sono stati costruite per commemorare gli ex dittatori, secondo Macdonald (2009) sono collegati come luoghi di "perpetrazione a distanza". Come nei casi con i regimi totalitari, una gran parte del paesaggio socio-culturale di oggi è stato prodotto o trasformato, da loro ed è impossibile dividerlo in luoghi appartenenti a carnefici e vittime (Myhrberg, 2011). I Bunk'Art (1e2) ci offrono un buon esempio per analizzare la questione. La successione degli eventi che porto alla apertura del museo e la fruizione del pubblico furono un processo di produzione culturale e valutazioni morali contrastanti sul regime.

IL TURISMO DEL PATRIMONIO COMUNISTA

Nelle ultime due decadi, i luoghi del patrimonio legati agli regimi comunisti o alla loro caduta sono diventati risorse per due tipi di turismo culturale di nicchia: Turismo

no 18 partner dell'ECO tra questi anche l'Italia, dove gli obiettivi principali dei progetti finanziati dall'Unione Europea è di incoraggiare una visione condivisa dell'identità storica, culturale e sociale dei regimi totalitari. Per di più visita: <http://www.atriumroute.eu> / <http://www.atrium-see.eu>

4 Si noti che la piramide si trova lungo il viale principale di Tirana, la quale è stata eretta per commemorare l'ex dittatore Enver Hoxha, come un museo dopo la sua morte nel 1985. L'edificio è costruito con uno stile architettonico unico e che si differenzia dall'architettura del periodo. Molto si è parlato per il riutilizzo della piramide da quello di trasformarlo in un teatro con la migliore tecnologia e acustica fino alla proposta di demolire l'edificio, con l'argomento che personificava il regime comunista ma ha avuto una forte opposizione dalla società civile e adesso e ancora in piedi ma in uno stato di abbandono totale a testimoniare l'odio verso quel periodo.

del Patrimonio Comunista⁵ Europeo e il Red Tourism⁶ (Turismo Rosso) promosso dal governo cinese. Il Turismo del Patrimonio Comunista nell'ECO è emerso dopo il 1990 e viene utilizzato come risorsa, i luoghi del patrimonio legati con gli ex regimi comunisti e la loro caduta. Tale turismo prevede visite nei luoghi legati al passato o presente comunista o socialista e i luoghi che rappresentano o ricordano questo passato o presente. Il turismo del patrimonio comunista come termine è introdotto nelle opere di Duncan Light (Light 2000a, 2000b; Light e Dumbraveanu, 1999; Bucica, 2002; Light e Young, 2011; Sima 2017) ad esplorare il passato comunista della Romania, (Ivanov 2009; Ivanov e Achikgezyan 2017; Ivanova, 2017) per la Bulgaria, (Dujisin, 2007; Glass, 2008; Myhrberg 2011; Iacono e Këllici, 2015; 2016; Iacono, 2018) per il patrimonio comunista in Albania. Il Red Tourism è un altro termine associato allo studio del patrimonio comunista, ma è principalmente usato in relazione ad alcuni paesi comunisti come (Henderson, 2007) nei paesi dell'Asia orientale della Corea del Nord, Laos, Vietnam e Cambogia, e (Li e Hu 2008; Li et al., 2010; Zhao e Timothy, 2015; Zhao e Timothy, 2017) per il Red Tourism in Cina. Light sostiene che, come il Red Tourism è un tipo di turismo culturale specifico per la Cina, relativo alla fondazione del Partito Comunista Cinese e della rivoluzione Comunista che ha susseguito e non può essere usato per descrivere la visita nei luoghi del patrimonio comunista nei paesi europei (Light 2000a, b). Lo specifico significato di questi termini è ancora discutibile, ma riteniamo che il turismo del patrimonio comunista è il termine migliore da utilizzare quando ci si riferisce all'uso di siti del patrimonio comunista come risorse turistiche nei stati europei ex comunisti. Tra le due forme di turismo culturale, che si basano nei luoghi del periodo comunista, vale a dire nella Repubblica Popolare Cinese e nell'Europa Centro Orientale, ci sono alcune importanti differenze sia dalla loro nascita e lo sviluppo per di più vedi (Caraba 2011). Questi tipi di turismo utilizzano i luoghi del patrimonio comunista come primarie risorse turistiche. Mentre il Red Tourism si concentra sui luoghi legati agli inizi del comunismo in Cina, il turismo del patrimonio comunista è relazionata nei paesi che ricordano il passato comunista nell'ECO. In termini di progettazione e sviluppo del Red Tourism è interamente gestito interamente dallo stato. Una delle differenze più importanti è legato al modo in cui il patrimonio viene presentato ai turisti. Mentre in Cina, il patrimonio comunista, viene interpretato in modo positivo e utilizzato per educare i giovani visitatori/turisti con lo spirito del comunismo. Nei paesi dell'ECO, i governi non vogliono essere associati a questa forma di turismo ed è solo l'industria che reagisce ad essa, creando un "prodotto" del patrimonio comunista in risposta alla domanda turistica (Light, 2000a, b; Caraba, 2011).

5 Si noti che il termine è stato tradotto dall'inglese *Communism Heritage Tourism* in Turismo del Patrimonio Comunista.

6 Si noti che il Red Tourism è stato introdotto in Cina nel 2004, quando si è discusso il Piano Nazionale dello Sviluppo del Red Tourism. Secondo tale progetto, che è stato fortemente pubblicizzato dal governo cinese. Il turismo rosso è una attività turistica a tema, visita delle città, e la nostalgia per i luoghi del patrimonio comunista dove si commemorano eventi rivoluzionari del passato, eroi e leader comunisti. Il suo scopo principale è quello di promuovere la storia del Partito Comunista che ha segnato il periodo che intercorre tra la fondazione del Partito Comunista e la proclamazione della Repubblica Popolare Cinese (RPC). Come la maggior parte di questi luoghi del patrimonio comunista in Cina si trovano nelle più povere province del paese, dove il Red Tourism può aiutare lo sviluppo economico di queste zone, portando guadagni importanti per le comunità locali. Il Red Tourism Cinese ha anche un forte lato educativo, in quanto cerca di stabilire la fiducia e la fedeltà verso il Partito. Questo tipo di turismo è diretto soprattutto verso i giovani alunni e studenti cinesi, ai quali vengono offerti molti agevolazioni (Caraba 2011).

Ashworth e Tunbridge, (1996); Lennon e Foley, (1996, 2000) scrivono anche di "turismo dell'orrore". "*dark tourism*" o turismo nero, "turismo al quale appartengono le visite alle parti del mondo colpite da catastrofi, per esempio campi di battaglia, luoghi di eventi tragici, località colpite dal genocidio, campi di concentramento...", "... il fenomeno, che comprende la presentazione e la visita dei luoghi del disastro dove è avvenuta la morte reale e mercificata". Si tratta anche di un tipo di turismo dove i turisti visitano i luoghi di trauma e tragedia o quello di visitare i siti di morte individuali o di massa. Alcuni studi sul "dark tourism" si concentrano anche sui siti comunisti; tuttavia, sostenere che il turismo del patrimonio comunista è parte del turismo nero non sarebbe supportato. Sono necessarie ulteriori ricerche per identificare ed esplorare la relazione tra *dark tourism* e turismo del patrimonio comunista.

Il turismo è spesso un importante generatore di reddito per molti paesi che hanno lasciato periodi di trauma alle spalle, ma potrebbe sorgere un conflitto quando il turismo è di un periodo che la nazione in questione vorrebbe dimenticare. Light afferma che, questo tipo di patrimonio che i turisti stanno consumando viene percepita e costruita al di fuori del loro paese nella maggior parte delle occasioni. Per poi sostenere che non vi è quasi nessun interesse per ricordare questo periodo in Romania e di interpretare questa eredità del socialismo per i turisti. Oltretutto questo tipo di attrazioni e interpretazioni del patrimonio comunista spesso vengono introdotti e promossi da attori stranieri per i consumatori stranieri, mentre gli stessi paesi ex comunisti hanno poca influenza su come questo patrimonio verrà interpretata (Light 2000a, b). Questo tipo di turismo non esiste ancora in un modo strutturato su larga scala in Albania, anche se ci sono alcune realtà che hanno trasformato i bunker e tunnel in musei. Tuttavia, nessun sito o edificio in Albania può oggi essere confrontato con la promozione organizzata e il numero di turisti che visitano i luoghi del patrimonio comunista di Budapest, Bucarest, Praga e Berlino, questi sono esempi edifici e siti collegati ai precedenti regimi che nei giorni nostri sono diventate attrazioni turistiche popolari.

IL TURISMO DEL PATRIMONIO COMUNISTA IN EUROPA E ALBANIA

Nell'Europa dell'Est, il turismo del patrimonio comunista è emerso dopo la caduta della cortina di ferro, migliaia di turisti occidentali hanno scelto i tali paesi ex comunisti come destinazioni turistiche. Un nuovo fattore ha incoraggiato la crescita del turismo del patrimonio comunista: l'adesione dei paesi ex comunisti dell'ECO nell'Unione Europea⁸. Ciò ha portato ad un aumento dell'accessibilità e quindi un aumento dei

7 Si noti che i primi esempi nel promuovere e ricordare il passato comunista gli abbiamo con il Museo Storico Nazionale con l'apertura di un padiglione dedicato al "Terrore Comunista", si vede chiaro che la mostra illustra chiaramente il desiderio contemporaneo di cancellare la memoria del periodo comunista. Il Memoriale "Postblokk" e "Checkpoint", un'installazione per ricordare la sofferenza sotto la dittatura inaugurata nel 2013, composto da tre oggetti (un piccolo bunker tipo "punto di fuoco", le travi della prigione-miniera di Spaç e un pezzo del muro di Berlino). Anche a Scutari, i monaci francescani hanno aperto nel 2013 il "Luogo di testimonianza e memoria" dove le camere del loro monastero sono state utilizzate come prigionie comuniste, dedica la sua parte documentaria e fotografica principalmente alle vittime di Scutari.

8 Si noti che l'adesione di questi paesi come l'Ungheria, i paesi Baltici, la Polonia, Repubblica Ceca, la Slovacchia e la Slovenia nel 2004, seguita da Romania e Bulgaria nel 2007 e dalla Croazia nel 2013 e la libera circolazione di altri paesi nell'area Schengen come Albania, Serbia, Macedonia e Ucraina ecc.

turisti occidentali sviluppando dei tour sugli luoghi e siti legati al periodo comunista.

Il caso più emblematico del periodo comunista è la Casa Poporului (Casa del Popolo) a Bucarest, diventando la più grande attrazione turistica della capitale. Costruito in uno stile eclettico neoclassico, con 12 piani e oltre 1000 stanze occupa un'area di 6,3 ettari, è il secondo edificio più grande del mondo nel quale hanno lavorato più 400 architetti e 200 mila lavoratori romeni per dieci anni. Per quasi un decennio l'edificio fu chiuso ai visitatori e turisti, nonostante il loro evidente interesse per esso, solo nel 1997 sono state introdotte le visite guidate di una piccola parte degli interni. Oggi l'edificio ospita il Parlamento Rumeno, un piccolo museo che ripercorre le origini della democrazia nel paese. Tuttavia, per i turisti interessati del patrimonio comunista, la Casa del Popolo è forse il simbolo distintivo della tragedia del totalitarismo nei paesi dell'ECO (Light, 2000b). Per poi spostarsi in Polonia la Nowa Huta di Cracovia (nuove acciaierie), un quartiere progettato specificamente per essere uno dei pilastri dell'industria siderurgica polacca e abitata dai lavoratori delle acciaierie "Lenin". Grazie alla sua straordinaria architettura totalitaria Nowa Huta divenne un importante attrazione ricercata dai turisti. Un altro esempio di utilizzo del patrimonio comunista come risorsa turistica si trova a Budapest. Nel 1990 il consiglio comunale decise di rimuovere tutte le statue esposte in passato nelle vie e nelle piazze di Budapest dedicate agli personaggi e gli eroi comunisti in un parco ai margini della città, aperto ai visitatori nel 1993 con il nome di Szoborpark (Memento Park). Il parco è diventato da subito una meta obbligata per molti turisti e nel corso degli anni si è trasformato in un museo a cielo aperto che comprende numerose attrazioni: il negozio di Stella Rossa, un teatro e una mostra fotografica che racconta la vita quotidiana dell'Ungheria comunista⁹. Nella città di Budapest si trova anche il Terror Haza (Casa del Terrore), un museo e memoriale per le vittime dei regimi fascisti e comunisti che hanno governato l'Ungheria nel corso del XX secolo. Il museo "è un monumento alla memoria di quelli tenuti prigionieri, torturati e uccisi in questo edificio" e il suo scopo è "far capire alla gente che il sacrificio per la libertà non è stato invano, la lotta contro i due sistemi totalitari si è conclusa con la vittoria della libertà e indipendenza"¹⁰. Negli ultimi vent'anni nella maggior parte degli stati ex comunisti dell'ECO sono stati aperti molti musei e luoghi che raccontano il periodo comunista. Uno di loro, è il Museo del Comunismo a Praga¹¹, offre uno spaccato della vita nella Cecoslovacchia comunista. Lo slogan del museo è: "Comunismo - il Sogno, la Realtà, e l'Incubo" e agli visitatori viene mostrato una stanza degli interrogatori, una classe scolastica e video clip storiche della TV del periodo comunista (Caraba, 2011). Nel 2011 a Sofia viene aperto per la prima volta il Museo dell'Arte Socialista, nel quale vengono esposti opere d'arte realizzate tra il 1945 e il 1989 dagli scultori e pittori più famosi del tempo¹². Altri musei comunisti sono stati aperti nelle capitali di Riga, Tallinn, Vilnius, a Kiev e Tbilisi. Oltre a questi paesi, un gran numero di turisti ammira il patrimonio comunista in Germania, specialmente parti del muro di Berlino come Checkpoint Charlie sono diventati i

9 Memento Park: <http://www.mementopark.hu>

10 Terror Haza: <http://www.terrorhaza.hu/en/museum>

11 Museo del Comunismo: <http://muzeumkomunismu.cz/en/>

12 Museo dell'Arte Socialista: <http://nationalgallery.bg>

principali punti di attrazione turistica¹³.

L'Albania sta affrontando molte sfide di transizione, per un lungo periodo, relativamente dal 1991 - 2013 ci fu mancanza di interesse del governo nel salvaguardare i beni culturali e in particolare il patrimonio comunista ereditato dal regime precedente. Ciò viene spiegato con il regime politico dopo gli anni '90 ed i movimenti contro il regime precedente, che voleva con tutti mezzi distruggere o dimenticare questa eredità. La situazione ha cambiato negli ultimi sei anni e il patrimonio storico-culturale viene finalmente considerato e riconosciuto ufficialmente parte della "memoria storica"¹⁴, non solo come forte generatore di reddito e di occupazione bensì parte della memoria collettiva di una nazione. I beni culturali di questo patrimonio "scomodo", possono essere trovati facilmente in quasi ogni città, paese e villaggio che rende la loro inclusione nell'offerta turistica ancora più semplice. Ci sono casi in cui gli edifici costruiti e usati da ex regimi oppressivi sono stati trasformati in musei della memoria degli stessi ex regimi. Nel caso dell'Albania le uniche eccezioni tangibili sono l'apertura dei due bunker antiatomici trasformandoli in musei della memoria, dell'arte socialista e contemporanea con il nome di "BunkArt" e l'apertura al pubblico dopo più di 70 anni dell'isola "bunker"¹⁵. Le quali hanno riscosso un grande successo nel promuovere e valorizzare il patrimonio comunista attirando molti turisti nazionali e internazionali. Ultimamente con l'apertura al pubblico di *House of Leaves* come museo, del edificio da dove si intercettavano tutte le conversazioni telefoniche e l'approvazione della legge per l'apertura dei dossier della polizia segreta "*Sigurimi*", si apre una nuova fase per la società albanese la quale vuole sapere fino a che punto era sorvegliata e da chi?

BUNK'ART, UN ESEMPIO DI AUTENTICITÀ

Non c'erano musei dedicati al regime comunista e nessun museo dedicato alla "vera" storia dell'Albania. Ad un certo punto si è resi conto che ci sono stati così tanti eventi importanti e controversi per la società albanese negli ultimi decenni che si è avuto la necessità di creare degli spazi a loro dedicati. Ciò è stato essenziale anche per il fatto che, dopo la caduta del muro di Berlino, nuove interpretazioni storiche sono apparse sia in Europa che nel resto del mondo. Non dobbiamo aspettare in modo inerte che tutti apprezzino il nostro ruolo nella storia mondiale: dobbiamo iniziare a recitare la nostra parte. Ciò è stato importante anche per la costruzione dell'identità

13 Si noti che non sappiamo ancora gli numeri generati dal turismo del patrimonio comunista nei paesi dell'ECO perché ogni paese recepisce diversamente le statistiche. Invece in Cina ogni anno intorno a 800 milioni di persone hanno visitato luoghi del "turismo rosso", portando benessere in molte delle zone economicamente più svantaggiate del paese, dove solo nella città del Yan'an, la culla della rivoluzione comunista, il numero dei turisti ha superato i 49 milioni generando un introito di 4,7 miliardi di dollari, con lo scopo che entro il 2020 arrivare a 70 milioni di turisti. China Daily: <http://global.chinadaily.com.cn/a/201903/11/WS5c85c1aca3106c65c34eddcf.htm> / <http://www.chinadaily.com.cn/a/201810/31/WS5bd8fef1a310eff303285914.html> verificato, 19/03/2019

14 Secondo Jedlowski (2002) la memoria storica e quella sezione della "memoria collettiva" (cioè dell'insieme di rappresentazioni del passato consapevolmente oggetto di conservazione e trasmissione in una società o in un gruppo) che si riferisce ai modi con cui i singoli inseriscono il proprio passato entro una prospettiva storica che lo inquadra e in un certo senso lo trascende.

15 Sazan è un isolotto adesso è disabitata, ma non è stato sempre così durante il regime comunista l'isola era trasformata in un "isola bunker", con una rete sofisticata di tunnel e bunker sotterranei, con un dislocamento permanente militare di più di duemila militari con le loro famiglie.

della società albanese e per la diffusione della conoscenza degli eventi storici. Questo era il momento di perseguire la memoria. È emersa una forte esigenza: la necessità di affrontare due decenni di assenza di un luogo che raccontasse gli eventi importanti della storia nazionale senza filtri.

Bunk'Art¹⁶ non si presenta come un museo tradizionale volto alla semplice esposizione di opere materiali storiche, ma divenne esso stesso un luogo della memoria, un sito denso di significato che intende ergersi a testimonianza e simbolo di una storia nazionale troppo spesso messa da parte. Si tratta di un progetto ambizioso che intende creare uno spazio di consumo che sia in grado di avviare un processo di costruzione dell'identità nazionale e non solo, attraverso la diffusione della conoscenza storica e il coinvolgimento "attivo" dei cittadini-visitatori e turisti nazionali e internazionali. Come afferma il curatore Carlo Bollino, Bunk'Art, "non pretende di essere un museo classico, ma piuttosto una moderna mostra video-museale in cui la storia è narrata in un modo più attraente e, se possibile, artistico. Ovviamente tutto ciò che contiene "Bunk'Art" è accurato e documentato, ma il racconto è fatto in modo divulgativo"¹⁷. L'approccio museografico di questo spazio sotterraneo è dunque sia biografico-individuale quanto tematico-collettivo¹⁸.

Le informazioni riportate nel contributo sono state raccolte da una serie di documenti reperibili in rete, vista di prima persona, informazioni prese dal sito ufficiale del museo e dalle conversazioni con i visitatori. In quest'ultimo, oltre alle informazioni e alle immagini relative alle esposizioni permanenti e temporanee, che mi hanno permesso di realizzare un'analisi più approfondita dell'allestimento e degli eventi storici presenti negli spazi museali, sono presenti anche materiali di divulgazione come comunicati stampa, interviste e testimonianze rilasciate da vari personalità, da persone comuni, prigionieri politici e intellettuali. Bunk'Art (1 e 2) possono essere considerati un "particolare" spazio di esposizione, documentazione e informazione sulla storia albanese che, in linea con gli obiettivi di qualsiasi "museo moderno" intende coinvolgere i visitatori e guidarli in processi interattivi per renderli parte attiva dell'interpretazione e nella negoziazione del passato (Cannizzo, 1991). Il visitatore è già colpito all'esterno dall'aspetto originale del museo, il percorso attiva una dialettica tra gli oggetti esposti e i visitatori, che non solo osservano oggetti e documenti statici ma ascoltano, scelgono immagini audio e video da guardare, interagiscono con l'ambiente. Attività che rendono piacevole l'acquisizione delle conoscenze, resa ancor più semplice e immediata mediante la creazione di spazi comuni nonché sale di conferenze e luoghi di discussione per stimolare il dibattito fra studiosi di diverse discipline.

L'intento formativo ha come obiettivo quello di attivare processi di responsabilizzazione e di presa di coscienza nei visitatori, che sono alla base della

16 Si noti che l'ideatore e curatore generale di Bunk'Art è il giornalista italiano Carlo Bollino, invece il progetto Bunk'Art è sostenuto dall'ONG albanese "Qendra Ura".

17 Shqiptarja.com: Kush ka frikë nga Bunk'Art e kujtimi i komunizmit, <https://shqiptarja.com/lajm/bollino-kush-ka-frike-euml-nga-br-bunk-39-art-e-kujtimi-i-komunizmit>, Verificato 14/03/2019.

18 L'approccio biografico richiama l'attenzione del visitatore su singole vite spezzate, a partire da dettagli carichi di pathos, si propone di commuoverlo, di innescare i processi di identificazione ed il compianto all'interno di una strategia individualizzate. L'approccio tematico, pur non distinguendo i dispositivi esperienziali, si rivolge piuttosto alle passioni del sapere curiosità, interesse, desiderio di approfondimento (Pezzini, 2011).

costruzione e del riconoscimento di una identità nazionale comune. Al fine di ampliare questi processi di informazione, sul sito del museo è presente una sessione per le persone perseguitate dal regime comunista e dove si possono segnalare dei nuovi nomi per arricchire questo database. In particolare, la narrazione storica e museale dei Bunk'Art avviene attraverso oggetti e atmosfere in cui il visitatore è profondamente coinvolto. L'esposizione non è lineare, ogni visitatore può scegliere a quale evento storico dedicare la sua attenzione, in uno scenario libero e flessibile (Pezzini 2011). All'interno di varie stanze, ai documenti e alle foto si sommano oggetti quotidiani simbolici, avvolti da illuminazioni e installazioni artistiche innovative. In alcuni spazi i visitatori possono fruire di materiali audiovisivi proiettati su *videowall* posti sulle pareti. In questo spazio così allestito, i visitatori diventano e si sentano a tutti gli effetti parte integrante dello spazio museale.

Mentre lo spazio qui non consente un'analisi più approfondita, vale la pena notare alcuni dei suoi aspetti architettonici, storici e artistici.

Nel novembre 2014 Bunk'Art 1¹⁹ viene aperto per la prima volta temporaneamente per il 70° Anniversario della Liberazione dell'Albania dai nazi-fascisti. Per questo in occasione dell'inaugurazione di Bunk'Art il capo del governo Edi Rama ha dichiarato, "Oggi siamo testimoni, perché abbiamo aperto la porta di un tesoro della nostra memoria collettiva"²⁰. Per poi aggiungere, in una dichiarazione che si rivelerà profetica alla luce della popolarità immediata che ha avuto per i turisti/visitatori il museo: "È solo l'inizio perché, abbiamo in progetto di creare un itinerario storico e turistico del sottoterra comunista e allo stesso tempo trasformare questo itinerario in un itinerario di immaginazione creativa, puntando, da un lato, la liberazione e dall'altro la fertilità della nostra memoria collettiva"²¹. Il compito del museo come afferma anche il primo ministro nel suo discorso inaugurale non è "riscrivere la storia" quella viene lasciata ai storici, "ma per aprire una nuova fase di rapporti, per esporre il passato in tutte le forme che disponiamo, come un'opportunità da mettere di fronte agli occhi delle nuove generazioni per prima cosa, ma anche a tutti gli altri, le sue testimonianze, le sue immagini, i suoi documenti". Quindi, produrrà esperienze affettive più vicine a quelle del recinto collettivo del paese sotto il dittatore, esperienze che avrebbero educato nuove generazioni di albanesi, non attraverso la presentazione di fatti, ma attraverso immagini creative e programmi spazio-temporali di movimento (Isto 2017).

L'edificio di Bunk'Art 1, appartiene al Ministero della Difesa, è il risultato di un lungo lavoro che è stato concluso nel riadattarlo per funzionare come un museo. Il

19 Il bunker viene costruito tra il 1972 e il 1978 e aveva come scopo di ospitare il governo in occasione di una guerra chimica o nucleare. Questa struttura veniva classificata come un segreto di stato con la denominazione "Objekti 0774", per questo motivo non si era a conoscenza e si poteva visitare solo da un gruppo scelto di persone. Il progetto viene ideato dopo una visita nella Corea del Nord di una delegazione del Ministero della Difesa nel 1964, nell'epoca come Ministro della Difesa era Mehmet Shehu, il quale era uno dei principali ideatori del piano per il "bunkerizimin" (militarizzazione) del paese. La struttura portante è in cemento armato in forma ovale, forma tipica di qualsiasi bunker. Il muro esterno misura più di un metro di larghezza, il tetto del bunker è coperto con uno strato di terra che arriva fino a 100 metri di profondità. Il bunker conta più di 106 camere in cinque livelli e una sala di parlamento che può ospitare più di 400 persone, ed ha una superficie totale di 2685 metri quadri.

20 Kryeministria: <https://www.kryeministria.al/newsroom/bunkart-nje-thesar-i-kujteses-kolektive/>, Verificato, 12/02/2019.

21 Kryeministria: <https://www.kryeministria.al/newsroom/bunkart-nje-thesar-i-kujteses-kolektive/>, Verificato, 12/02/2019.

bunker si trova nella periferia di Tirana all'interno di una zona militare, e dall'aprile 2016 ha aperto in modo permanente. È un'attrazione turistica unica nella regione dei Balcani dedicata alla storia dell'esercito albanese e la vita quotidiana degli albanesi durante i 45 anni del regime comunista. Lo spazio, dedicato alla esposizione storica prende in esempio il periodo dell'occupazione nazi-fascista in Albania e il periodo successivo della dittatura comunista, intrecciando una marea di documenti, fotografie e installazioni artistiche e video-museali. La mostra museale permanente di Bunk'Art 1 è suddivisa in diverse sezioni che racconta come era composto in origine il bunker: *Stanza di Enver Hoxha* è *Stanza del Primo Ministro*: sono gli ambienti più grandi e più lussuosi di tutti, i quali sono composti da anticamera per il segretario personale, un ufficio di lavoro, una camera da letto e un bagno. L'arredamento è essenziale, anche se non sono di un lusso sfrenato, rimangono le più eleganti di tutti gli altri ambienti, i primi rivestiti in fibra i secondi in legno. *Museo della comunicazione militare*: In questa sala sono esposti alcuni degli apparecchi originali, uniformi e attrezzature militari originali utilizzati dall'esercito albanese nei anni. *Stanza dell'Ufficiale*: Lo spazio di questa stanza è dotata secondo gli standard previsti per un ufficiale che serviva all'interno del bunker, l'arredamento è sobrio in confronto con le altre stanze. *Stanza del Capo di Stato Maggiore*: Questi ambienti sono costituiti da anticamera, stanza di lavoro, camera da letto e bagno. In caso di guerra, qui si dovevano svolgere le riunioni operative più segrete, questo spiega perché i locali sono protetti con un'altra porta d'ingresso lungo il corridoio. Inoltre, lo spazio museale è dedicata alla vita quotidiana con l'ambientazione di una *Casa socialista*, con le ristrettezze sulla proprietà privata, la casa era in proprietà dello stato, molte volte dentro la stessa abitazione potevano co-abitare più di una famiglia con un arredamento sobrio e particolare. Il *Negoziato di alimentari*, nel quale si potevano comprare solo i beni di prima necessità anche se si disponeva il denaro necessario serviva un permesso speciale per comprare alimenti in più. *Istruzione in Albania*, con l'ambientazione di una classe elementare, dopo la Seconda guerra mondiale con 80% di analfabeti l'istruzione e l'educazione in Albania ha assunto una nuova forma dichiarando guerra all'analfabetismo, la scuola era di tipo socialista, difendendo e plasmando una società socialista, prendendo come modello le scuole dell'ex blocco sovietico. *Lo Sport in Albania*, il regime comunista considerava lo sport e l'educazione fisica del popolo uno dei pilastri, in cui sostenevano fortemente l'ideologia e il potere, preparando intere generazioni che sarebbero state pronte a combattere "in ogni momento in cui neccesse la patria". Uno spazio a parte viene dedicata alla fase di *Bunkerizzazione* dell'Albania che è stato in funzione dal 1975 al 1983: durante questo periodo furono pianificati di costruire 221.143 bunker, ma furono costruiti solo 173.371.

Dall'altra parte Bunk'Art 2²² si trova nel centro della vivace capitale albanese ed è la seconda fase di un progetto storico-culturale che si concentra sulla conservazione

22 Bunk'Art 2 è stato costruito tra il 1981 e il 1986 e può essere considerato una delle ultime "grandi opere" commesse dal regime comunista in quadro del progetto della militarizzazione che era iniziato negli anni '70. Questo bunker è di tipo "fossa": infatti è stato costruito dalla Azienda delle Costruzioni 10 (una azienda del Ministero delle Costruzioni che si occupava con la costruzione dei bunker segreti) che aveva aperto una grande cratera vicino al Ministero dell'Interno costruito negli anni '30 secondo il progetto italiano); dopo il completamento degli ambienti interni, la struttura sulla parte superiore è stata coperta con uno strato spesso di cemento armato che raggiunge uno spessore di 2,4 m. (<http://bunkart.al/2/faqe/ish-bunker-antiberthamo-ministrisria-se-side>, verificato il 12/02/2019).

della memoria collettiva e racconta la storia degli anni del regime comunista, includendo tra cui le paure e gli orrori di quel regime. Questo bunker, chiamato "Objekti Shtylla", è composto da 24 camere, da un appartamento riservato al ministro e da una grande sala dedicata alle telecomunicazioni. Come molti altri bunker di questa portata, anche questo è stato costruito per far fronte a un potenziale attacco chimico e nucleare²³. L'entrata e uscita del bunker sono completamente artificiali create solo di recente, dal momento che nel progetto iniziale era possibile entrare solo dall'interno del Ministero. Si può accedere al museo attraverso una entrata a forma di bunker a cupola con una torre di guardia adiacente, anch'essa artificiale, avvolta in un filo spinato, destinandosi da una parte a imitare migliaia di bunker che il regime dittatoriale aveva costruito in tutto il territorio nazionale. D'altra parte, con la torre di guardia e il filo spinato che rappresenta la sorveglianza attiva e l'auto isolamento. La costruzione del bunker è stata ritardata dalle proteste del dicembre 2015 organizzate dall'opposizione in ricordo dei movimenti studenteschi anticomunisti del 1990. I manifestanti hanno appiccato il fuoco al bunker artificiale e hanno causato molti danni nella sua fragile struttura non costruita secondo gli stessi standard dei bunker di Hoxha. Bunk'Art 2 è la prima grande mostra video museale dedicata alle vittime del terrore comunista²⁴. In un modo è simile al Bunk'Art 1, combina installazioni artistiche con materiali storici, ma è forse il carattere seriale del museo che è più significativo: Bunk'Art 2 soddisfa la logica proposta per la prima volta da Edi Rama nel Bunk'Art 1, ovvero creare "un itinerario della immaginazione collettiva", in altre parole, raccontare i fatti della storia. All'interno della cupola del bunker sono esposti i ritratti delle vittime del regime totalitario, l'installazione e una imitazione in miniatura del *World Holocaust Remembrance Center Yad Vashem* di Gerusalemme che commemora le vittime ebrei della shoah. L'esposizione permanente del museo è suddivisa in esposizione storica che ricostruisce la storia del Ministero dell'Interno Albanese 1912-1991 e rivela i segreti del "Sigurimi", la polizia politica che era un'arma di persecuzione feroce utilizzata dal regime. Invece l'esposizione museale è composta e suddivisa in queste tematiche: *perseguitamento e intercettazione; gli alloggi del Ministro degli Interni; la Camera investigativa e le installazioni artistiche*. Il museo include anche i temi identificati da Ivanov (2009) "Sul lato oscuro del comunismo". Nel Bunk'Art 2 ci sono le liste di oltre 10.000 nomi delle vittime senza distinzione di classe sociale, prigionieri, deportati e dispersi, contadini e intellettuali, religiosi e atei, nazionalisti e comunisti. Inoltre, uno spazio importante è dedicato anche alla scoperta delle tecniche di spionaggio che utilizzava senza scrupoli il famigerato *Sigurimi* affinché i cittadini potessero essere deportati, imprigionati e poi uccisi, il quale in 45 anni ha perseguitato centinaia di migliaia di albanesi. All'interno del museo si attivano tutti i sensi, gli altoparlanti gli diversi *videowall* che suonano nelle stanze adiacenti, ci sono registrazioni dei nomi delle vittime con suoni di fondo inquietanti, l'inno nazionale, sirene antiaeree, battiti cardiaci, annunci radio, suoni di dattilografia e musica sentimentale provenienti da tutte le direzioni. E ovunque ci si circonda della "realtà aumentata" disponibile anche

23 Si noti che per un altro punto di vista di Bunk'Art 2, si veda Vincent WJ van Gerven Oei. Bunk'Art 2: A Nuclear Attack on Meaning. URL: <https://exit.al/en/2016/11/21/bunkart-2-a-nuclear-attack-on-meaning/>, verificato 13/03/2019.

24 Bunk'Art: <http://bunkart.al/2/faqe/rreth-nesh>, Verificato, 1/02/2019.

attraverso un'applicazione gratuita per smartphone e tablet.

Bunk'Art rappresenta una singolare confluenza di discorsi estetici, strategie di produzione della memoria e politiche legate al patrimonio architettonico e al turismo, il museo offre un esempio particolarmente significativo di manovre politiche post-socialiste nei confronti del passato socialista (Isto 2017). L'apertura di Bunk'Art (1 e 2) ha innescato il bisogno sociale di conoscenza, verità, apertura, discussione e dialogo, dove per molti decenni questi valori erano persi in Albania. C'erano e ci sono tuttora opinioni diverse alla gestione non pubblica e il prezzo del biglietto molto alto in proporzione al costo della vita²⁵ nel paese. Oltre al fatto che il governo al potere responsabile della realizzazione di Bunk'Art fosse socialista, essendo tale partito socialista emerso dalle ceneri del partito comunista nel 1991, è stato criticato, tra le altre cose, come un tentativo di appropriarsi del simbolismo del vecchio regime (Iacono 2018). È stata la prima iniziativa del genere e sicuramente il museo ha un ruolo speciale nella costruzione della consapevolezza storica avviando il processo di apertura di numerosi altri spazi narrativi. Con questa sembra di nutrire un'esigenza già esistente nella società: la necessità di creare spazi museali e di memoria che aiutassero a capire soprattutto il periodo della Seconda guerra mondiale e la storia controversa del regime comunista. Gli albanesi erano "affamati" di musei che avrebbero raccontato ad essi la loro storia, soprattutto perché ci sono stati degli spazi vuoti per così tanto tempo. Quando questa "fame" fu scoperta, alcuni musei furono progettati e aperti.

CONCLUSIONE

Turismo del patrimonio comunista è apparso negli ex paesi comunisti dell'ECO dopo il 1990 quando i visitatori occidentali hanno mostrato interesse per la vita al di là della Cortina di Ferro e per i luoghi del patrimonio dei regimi totalitari, invece il Red Tourism è un tipo di turismo culturale che è emerso nella RPC dopo il 2004, sviluppato interamente dal governo si basa sui luoghi della rivoluzione comunista. Non si deve fare confusione tra i due tipi di turismo, ci sono molte differenze tra di loro, in una vasta gamma di aspetti, tra cui lo sviluppo e la pianificazione, il segmento di mercato a cui si rivolgono, l'interpretazione del patrimonio culturale e il lato educativo di questi tipi di turismo. In entrambi i casi ci sono problemi per quanto riguarda l'interpretazione del patrimonio. Questi sono più pronunciati nei paesi ex comunisti dell'ECO compreso l'Albania, dove vi è una tendenza evidente di cancellare o di presentare in modo negativo il passato trascorso sotto il regime comunista. Simile al "dark tourism", il turismo patrimonio comunista è un tipo controverso e ideologicamente sovraccarico il quale ha un particolare interesse turistico (Ivanov 2009). Visitare i monumenti del comunismo può suscitare diversi sentimenti sui visitatori e i residenti locali. Anche se il comunismo in generale ha una immagine negativa in Europa, il suo patrimonio può e deve essere conservato, valorizzato e utilizzato nel turismo come risorsa economica perché in molte occasioni si trova in paesi e luoghi fuori dal turismo di massa. Per tutti

25 Per più approfondimenti: <http://balkanweb.com/site/geveria-shperblen-carlo-bollino-i-jep-biznesin-e-bunkart/>; <http://www.citynews.al/2016/04/afere-bunkart-dhe-carlo-bollino/1>, Verificato 12/04/2019.

i paesi dell'ECO rappresenta una valida fonte di diversificazione del prodotto turistico.

L'autenticità di Bunk'Art e della storia che racconta deriva da diversi fattori: numerosi artefatti che ricordano la vita sotto il regime, oggetti che riguardano molto da vicino la tecnologia militare e dello spionaggio del tempo, oggetti originali, ritagli dai giornali e dalle riviste propagandistiche, slogan, immagini, suppellettili che raccontano la storia del paese, la location del museo e la connessione visiva racconta la vita del popolo albanese rinchiusa come un "bunker". In breve, il museo presenta i fatti, veri, verificati e documentati, che possono essere interpretati all'interno di un contesto che è stato la nascita e il crollo del regime comunista in Albania. La presenza di molti membri dell'ex nomenklatura nel governo e nelle amministrazioni locali nei anni del pluralismo, e il lento ritmo nel riformare le strutture economiche ereditate dall'economia centralizzata di Hoxha significa che l'Albania ha ancora molta strada da fare prima che si possa affermare di aver messo il comunismo da parte. L'apertura ai turisti dell'patrimonio comunista può rappresentare un passo avanti in questa direzione: non è un caso che gli edifici siano aperti per i visitatori solo dopo che alle elezioni del 2013 e arrivato al governo la sinistra, segnando una vera rottura con la precedente amministrazione di destra.

Ulteriori studi sull'uso del patrimonio comunista a fini turistici possono essere fatti in futuro, questo elaborato è punto di partenza, dato che abbiamo definito il turismo del patrimonio comunista come un tipo di turismo differente. Nel futuro mi aspetto che seguiranno diversi studi concentrati sul patrimonio comunista, le sue caratteristiche e il modo in cui può essere utilizzato come risorsa turistica, "L'isola Bunker" e "La prigione della vergogna". Per il motivo perché la società in Albania ancora non è pronta ad accettare questo periodo senza guardare il lato negativo, ma quello in cui possa essere trasformato. Ciò includerà sia gli studi di percezione dettagliati che gli studi relativi alla gestione del patrimonio negli spazi urbani. Assolutamente il patrimonio comunista non deve essere messo in vendita, perché una volta venduta non si può recuperare più, così perdiamo una parte della nostra comune storia.

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Borders and Geopolitics: The case of Kosovo

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Republic of Kosovo

Located: **Balkan peninsula**

Inhabitants: **2,3 million**

Capital of Kosovo: **Prishtina**

ABSTRACT

The collapse of Berlin wall was a starting point for almost all countries from Central and Eastern Europe, to start the process of EU integration. Of course, some countries were quicker in joining the European club and some of them are still on the way of integration. After the war, all Kosovo government's have been underlining EU integration as a main priority of the country. As a new state, independence got in 2008 and known by only 116 states around the world, for Kosovo was an immediate interest the process of regional and EU integration.

Due to its historical past one of the main obstacles in its way, Kosovo has had the process of negotiations with Serbia, which now a days are not resolved. The main aim of this paper is to try to address problems faced by Kosovo in its road to regional and EU integration. Kosovo citizens remain the only ones in the region South East Europe, who are not able to move freely in Schengen countries. Although, Kosovo government has fulfilled all 95 legal criteria requested by EU, the latest reply from Brussel was that its citizens can move freely into Schengen area only in 2020.

I have chosen a combination of methods for my paper between empirical-analytical analyses and interpretative method. The reason why, I have chosen a combination of methodologies to present my paper is related to the complexity of the topic in question. As for time being, in my view, which I will present at the conference is that Kosovo will remain the black hole in the middle of Europe, where EU has denied citizens of the country to move freely, where Serbia is playing an active role to block integration in to international organizations such UNESCO and INTERPOL. It is a situation where EU has shown its incapability as an international player and empower radicals and populists. As a result, negotiations Kosovo-Serbia have entered in a deadlock and possibilities for a negative scenario are increased.

KEYWORDS:

Kosovo, regional and international integration, EU, Serbia, international players, US, Russia, Turkey

INTRODUCTION

In a common meeting, held in December 2018, governments of Albania and Kosovo agreed to remove their borders. The agreement is anticipated to enter into force by April 2019. This decision has infuriated Belgrade, Aleksander Vulin the Serbian Defense Minister said, "this means creation of Greater Albania and EU is not stopping it. Creation of Bigger Albania means war and it will not be only against Serbia, but towards all Balkan countries".

From his point of view the Albanian Prime minister, Edi Rama, sees the removal of borders with Kosovo as a step towards EU integration and he personally would like to do it with Montenegro, Macedonia and Greece too. Rama is taking as an example the Schengen Treaty and the way EU countries deal with borders. His idea has been embraced by Northern Macedonia primer Zoran Zaev, who in his New Year speech said, "I do not see anything controversial on idea of Edi Rama to remove borders in our region, Northern Macedonia would be ready to do it, which means big economic profits and much more integration". Countries of Western Balkan are all competing to join EU, which is the best example of integration and where countries have gone through a long process of regional integration and now enjoy many commercial agreements and share open borders. Although that the Western Balkan countries share the same perspective of joining EU, which means that in principal they share same political, economic and social conditions, regional integration is far behind what is expected.

500 years after the Ottoman rule, the first years of the 20th century Albanians increased their efforts for independence. Uprisings of 1910, 1911 and 1912 were very important for what happened next. In a situation where Albanians accelerated their efforts for independence, their neighbors started the first Balkan War and an alliance of orthodox countries (Serbia, Montenegro, Greece and Bulgaria) declared war to the Ottoman Empire. On November 28, 1912 Albania declared its independence from the Ottoman Empire and in its territories as a new state, Kosova was also included. At that time more than 92 percent of Kosova inhabitants were of Albanian origin.

In 1913 during London Peace Conference, World Powers of the time (UK, France Russia, Germany, Italy and Austro-Hungary) decided that Kosovo would be annexed by Serbia, while Cameria (a region in South of Albania) would be annexed by Greece. As a result of this decision 40 percent of Albanian territories went to its neighbors. Leo Freundlih, an Austrian journalist, in his book published in 1913 "Albanian Golgotha" wrote that during 1912-and first half of 1913 were killed more than half a million of Albanians, mainly in North-Eastern territories which now a days are in Kosova, Northern Macedonia and South of Serbia. In his book Freundlih, has blamed European powers of the time for not reacting towards a genocide against civilian population.

As part of the Serbian policy toward Albanians in Kosova, was their displacement towards Turkey, mainly justified by religious grounds. Newspapers of the time write that, a large number of Albanian Catholics were killed, because Serbians believed that people can chose to be Muslims or Orthodox, but not Catholic. March 20, 1913, Neue Freie Press, wrote that Serbian military forces killed 300 Catholic Albanians near Gjakova. From 1919 to 1939, 215 412 Albanians were displaced from Kosovo in



the direction of Turkey. Based on a Turkish-Yugoslav Convention (July 1938), 40,000 Albanian families would be displaced to Turkey and an extended family shouldn't be more than 250 persons. From this Convention Turkey profited 20 million Turkish Lira and the displaced properties would remain in ownership of Yugoslav state (article 7 of Convention).

Another agreement between the Turkish government and the Yugoslav one has been signed in February 1953, due to this 250 000 Albanian were displaced. The situation of the Albanian population living in Yugoslavia, during the '50s was extremely difficult, not only because of the displacements occurred, but also due to the so called Rankovic platform, which in its se was based on Cubrilovic one. This platform was based not only in the displacement of Albanians, but also in oppressing those who continued to live in their motherland. Oppressing of Albanians, continued during the years and this led to protests in 1968 held in Pristina, which asked for more political, economic and social rights. In the early '70s Tito agreed to change the Constitution, Yugoslavia accepted to provide Albanians living in Kosovo the status of an autonomous province. Among rights their got from changes within Yugoslavia, Albanians got the right to open the University of Prishtina. The death of Tito and the increase of national tensions among the Yugoslavian republics brought in a situation of crises, which in the beginning of '90s started the disintegration of the Federation. The first to declare its independence was Slovenia, then Croatia and Bosnia-Hercegovina. Inevitably, tensions raised in Kosovo too.

During 1998-1999 a small army of ethnic Albanians (Kosovo Liberation Army) started to fight against the Serbian Army and Militia and only with the intervention NATO in June 10, 1999, Kosovo was liberated. In 2008, after almost 10 years of international rule, Kosovo declared its independence and 116 countries around the world has recognized it. Among those which do not recognize Kosovo as an independent county are Russia, China and 5 EU countries.

PAPER GOAL

The purpose of this paper is to examine the regional integration of Kosovo and the impacts of geopolitical factors on it. The research question refers to the degree in which geopolitical factors interested in the region are playing in favor of integration or in creation of national states. Could Kosovo, be fully integrated with other regional countries in EU or no?

The hypothesis is that "what is the alternative of not integrating Kosovo with other countries of the region and together with them in EU? How it will affect the region and Europe?"

INTEGRATION OR.....

The first years after the liberation from Serbia, Kosovo was ruled by the UN mission (UMNIK), which shifted its power in 2009 to EULEX (European Union Rule of Law Mission in Kosovo), which is the largest mission ever launched under European

Security and Defense Policy.

In his visit to Tirana, in June 2007, American President George Bush, said that "Sooner, rather later you've got to say enough is enough. Kosovo independent". A year later Kosovo declared its independence and 116 countries worldwide recognized it. Although Serbia is claiming to never recognize Kosovo's independence, under the pressure from US and facilitation of EU, both countries started talks in Brussels for the normalization of their relations in 2011. It is to be underlined that European leaders have repeated often that without the normalization of relations with Kosovo, Serbia will never join EU.

However, the dialog between Kosovo and Serbia, has entered in a deadlock. Kosovo wants full recognition from Serbia, which allows it to be fully integrated in the regional, European and other international bodies.

The EU perspective for countries of Western Balkan, including Kosovo, it's clear since Thessaloniki Summit of EU leaders in 2003. Having this perspective Kosovo governments has followed the step of integration into regional and international organizations, such as the membership in IMF, World Bank, CEFTA (Central European Free Trade Agreement) and Southeast European Cooperative Initiative.

To become a member in IMF and World Bank, a country needs to get most vote casts (Articles of Agreement of IMF and World Bank). Votes are divided by the contribution to the organization, so for Kosovo was rather simple, since its supporters are US, UK, Germany, and France.

During the process of being fully integrated internationally, Kosovo underwent the opinion of Internal Court of Justice, which in June 2010 delivered its advisory opinion, "the adoption of declaration of independence of the 17 February 2008 did not violate general international law because international law contains no prohibitions on declaration independence". Countries which are supporting the independence of Kosovo, called the ruling of the International Court of Justice a victory, which does not set a precedent for other cases.

However, Kosovo failed to join the UNESCO, as it did not get enough votes from member states, falling three votes short of the required two-thirds majority among member states (UNESCO rules and procedures). This failure of Kosovo to become a member, was perceived as a victory for Serbia and its allies. Although that Serbia has agreed during the Brussels meeting, not to hinder Kosovo in joining international organizations we see a strong opposition from Belgrade. Serbian President, Tomislav Nikolic said that "This is a moral victory for Serbia". The main objective of UNESCO in its work is to support education and cultural heritage of the member states, thus they would support the education of the Serbian minority in Kosovo and its cultural heritage, but it was Serbia and its allies which lobbied against it.

Another failure of Kosovo to be integrated in an international organization was Interpol. As in the example of UNESCO, Serbia was opposing the membership and they called it a victory. Serbian President, Aleksander Vucic, told journalists in Belgrade that "I'm proud of my country's struggle". While Kosovo's President, Hashim Thaci said that the failure of his country to join Interpol was a victory for organized crime and a failure for both Kosovo and Serbia.

Even though it has been only 20 years from the liberation of Kosovo from the Serbian rule, its story is full of events. One of them is demarcation of border with Montenegro, a process which took three years of discussions, internal and external pressure towards the government and Parliament. For the first time in its history EU set as requirement, out of 95 in total, the question demarcation of border with Montenegro for Kosovo liberalization of visas. During the spring of 2018, Kosovo's Parliament ratified the agreement on demarcation process with Montenegro. Kosovo's government has fulfilled all 95 requirements from EU for visa liberalization within 2018. The expectation for visa liberalization for the citizens was spring 2019, but during his visit in Prishtina, Commissioner for Enlargement Johannes Hahn, declared that the realistic time for liberalization is 2020.

In November 2018, after all these successes and failures, Kosovo's government took the decision to introduce a 100 % tax on Serbian products, practically stopping trade between the countries and opting out of CEFTA. Serbian businesses are losing 42 million Euro monthly and with this move Kosovo's government has bound Serbian government to abandon the dialog. From the EU side, Federica Mogherini, the European External Service Chief, was pressuring Kosovo's government to remove the 100% tax towards Serbian products or the dialog between the two sides will not succeed.

Kosovo-Serbia dialog has reached a point where both sides are claiming they want to get the maximum out of it. From Kosovo's side the only result must be full recognition from Serbia, which means full integration in regional and international organization. While, Serbia is pushing for so called "correction of borders", which in other words means exchange of territories North of Kosovo with majority of Serbian population for South Serbia or Valley of Preshevo with majority of population ethnic Albanians. Both Mogherini and the EU Commissioner Hahn, openly declared their support for the so called "correction of borders" between Kosovo and Serbia. Kosovo's President Thaci, has supported the idea, but Prime Minister Ramush Haradinaj has opposed it. In an interview for the Austrian newspaper "Die Presse" he said that "Kosovo will never discuss with Serbia for borders". Mogherini and Hahn stance on tax and borders has brought a strong reaction from Kosovo politicians. In his last meeting Haradinaj and Mogherini, Kosovo's Prime Minister asked for involvement of US, request which infuriated European External Service Chief and press conference planned was canceled. It is underlined that so called plan for "correction of borders" between Kosovo and Serbia has been and is still opposed by Germany and UK.

SCENARIOS

Agreement for the so called "corrections of borders", which is opposed by Germany and UK, although there is no clear stand from the US, most probably they are against the idea. If the scenario will be completed, then it will open the door for unification of Kosovo with Albania and jeopardize Northern Macedonia, were officially there are around 30 percent of population ethnic Albanians. Montenegro which has 7-8 percent ethnic Albanians will have trouble, because Sanxhak region which located between

Serbia and Montenegro will request to join Kosovo and Albania. The leader of the region, Sulejman Uglanin, in his visit in Prishtina in mid-February 2019 said that "if borders are corrected then my people would like to join Kosovo and Albania". Bosnia-Herzegovina will enter in a period of strong uncertainties. In October 2016, citizens of Republika Serbska, one of two components of the Federal State of Bosnia and Herzegovina voted in majority to join Serbia. This scenario would put Western Balkan in moment of chaos and as result Europe too will get in a deep crisis. Thus, we will have in Western Balkan creation of nation states, which would jeopardize the whole structure created in Europe for security and cooperation and protection of minorities.

Status quo, both countries are pushing to get the maximum out of the dialog, so they will continue to disagree, and the situation will remain the same, Kosovo will not be able to further integrate into regional, European and international institutions. Due to this we will continue to have a black hole in the middle of Europe. In the mean time Serbia will find itself in a situation which would block its path towards EU integration.

Kosovo and Serbia will find an agreement. Kosovo will be recognized by Serbia, Russia, China and other 5 EU countries, it will become a member of UN and will continue its path toward EU integration. Serbia also will continue its integration process into European Union.

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Perceptions of barriers to women career advancement

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ABSTRACT

Despite their increasing participation in the workforce and their penetration into management, the presence of women at the top of the managerial pyramid is still very low. While the statistics confirm the international underrepresentation of women at senior management, many studies have tried to identify, confirm and explain the presence of the so called "glass ceiling" phenomenon. Improving women's participation in senior management and leadership helps to globally increase women's rights, freedom and opportunities, but not merely that. The misuse of women's talent, professionalism and skills, causes losses to the organization, the economy, and the entire society.

International literature suggests that the underrepresentation of women in "C suite" derives from the barriers that hinder women career progression in high level management. The aim of this article is to confirm and explain the presence of three categories of barriers (individual, societal and organizational) faced by managerial women in banking sector in Albania. A closed questions questionnaire (using Likert's scale 1-5) was used to understand the impact of these barriers in the career progression of 135 managerial women from 9 different commercial banks. The Cronbach Alpha was used to verify the validity of the instrument. The same questions of the above questionnaire were used to interview these women to better understand the causes and characteristics of these barriers. Furthermore, this study gives some recommendations for the women, society and the organizations.

KEY WORDS:

women, career, individual barriers, societal barriers, organizational barriers

LITERATURE REVIEW

International statistics and studies indicate the increasing participation of women in working force in developed as well as in developing countries (Davidson & Burke, 2011). Nowadays, businesses are aware that recruiting and developing qualified women is essential for their success and competition. However, women are underrepresented in senior leadership and decision-making positions in both public and private institutions. This is an international phenomenon: Australia (Davidson, 2009; Maginn, 2010; Still, 2006), China (Tan, 2008), South Africa (Booyesen & Nkomo, 2010), United Kingdom (Davidson, 2009; Thomson et al., 2008) and USA (Eagly&Carli, 2007; Fassinger, 2008).

According to literature review, the underrepresentation of women in leadership is related to the "Glass ceiling" phenomenon. Glass ceiling is used for the first time in the Wall Street Journal, referring to the invisible barriers within a hierarchy that prevent women from obtaining upper-level decision-making and managerial positions (Hymowitz & Schellhardt, 1986).

International studies have tried to identify these barriers, certify their existence and explain the reasons why they exist. Fagenson (1990,1993) and Parket & Fagenson (1994) developed the Gendered Organizational Structure (GOS) model which divides these barriers into three categories: **Individual Barriers** (factors that pertain to the individual characteristics of woman related to their personality, attitudes and behaviors that are not suitable for senior managerial levels); **Societal Barriers** (factors linked to the history of a society, cultural traditions, practices, ideologies, expectations, social and institutional stereotypes about gender roles of men and women) and **Organizational Barriers** (factors related to organizational climate and culture, which offer more opportunities for men).

INDIVIDUAL BARRIERS

The first perspective of GOS model, explains the underrepresentation of women in leadership with their gender characteristics. According to this gendered based perspective, women's traits, characteristics and behaviors are inappropriate for high level decision making (Fagenson, 1986; Schein, 1975). In the study of Wentling (2003) the interviewed women, considered "being a woman" as the main barrier to their career progress. The 400 executive women in the Korn& Ferry study (1993) thought that being a woman is the biggest barrier to success in their career.

This barrier is documented by a number of other international studies, too (Federal Glass Ceilings Commission, 1995; Powell, 1999). According to numerous international studies, home and family/children care affects women's opportunities to career advancement in various industries (Ragins&Sundstrom, 1989; Cross, 2010; Wentling, 2003; Abidin et al., 2009; Mordi et al., 2011) and in the banking system (Metz, 2003; Burke et al, 2006). Managerial women are more sensitive than men to home/children problems which reflect their working performance and commitment (Collins, 1993; Scheuermann et al., 1998). Moreover, while achieving a better performance at work



depends on internal factors, such as skills and abilities, women attribute it to external factors such as luck (Fagenson, 1986). The reason women connect their success to external factors is their low levels of self-esteem. Women managers in some studies (Cross, 2010; Greenhauset al, 2000) sometimes have to make the difficult choice of being single and not having children unlike their male colleagues, who in most cases are married and have children (Powell & Women, 2003). According to the Human Capital Theory (Becker, 1993) the education level, training, experience and competencies help employees advance in their career, because they increase the skills and knowledge which bring to a better performance. However, many studies admit that women have difficulty advancing to high managerial levels, though they have the proper education, experience, professionalism and a good performance at work (Burke &Matis, 2005; Davidson & Burke, 2000; Ragins et al., 1998; Burke et al., 2008).

SOCIETAL BARRIERS

The second perspective of GOS model, explains the underrepresentation of women in leadership with social and gender stereotypes of the society, cultural traditions, practices, ideologies, expectations and institutional approaches to the gender roles of men and women. These societal factors affect women's opportunities of career progression. Other studies also identify the impact of society's culture and traditions in career advancement: Coleman (1998); Cooper (2001); Oakley (2000); Dimovski et al. (2010); Davidson & Cooper, (1992); Cross, (2010); Metz (2003); Acenture (2006); ILO (2015). According to certain beliefs, there exist appropriate roles of each gender and the correspondent suitable features for each role in every society (Elamin&Omar, 2010). Gender stereotypes are often used to support these traditional roles. These stereotypes are closely related to the views of the society regarding the differences between women and men (Best, 2004). Ridgeway & Correll (2004) argue that gender roles and stereotypes serve to reinforce the beliefs about gender roles in that culture, i.e.g that men have higher status and competences.

ORGANIZATIONAL BARRIERS

The third perspective of GOS model, explains the underrepresentation of women in leadership within the organization's culture and climate. Glass ceiling studies suggest that organization's members, thoughts and attitudes (i.e.g, women are not seen as leaders) and the social structure of the organization affect the career advancement of women. According to Kanter (1977), there are favorable and unfavorable situations at work. Favorable positions, which offer strength and opportunities, are hold by individuals who have the same gender as the majority (that is the males). The unfavorable positions, on the other hand, give the workers little power and fewer opportunities, and are held by individuals whose gender is minority (that is, women). Individuals in favorable positions develop attitudes and behaviors that help them accelerate while those in unfavorable positions develop attitudes and behaviors that reflect and justify their work situations, which limit the advancement (Fagenson, 1990). According to Kanter (1977), the

feminine features and characteristics influence and determine their behavior precisely because women have traditionally been in low positions of the organization's hierarchy. Informal power and the limited opportunities of the organization's structures exclude women. If women were in high positions, they would behave in the same way as men in those positions (Kanter, 1977). The Glass Ceiling Commission cites organizational and structural barriers as the most important for women's career progression (Woody & Weiss, 1994). The third perspective of the GOS model identifies other important organizational factors such as the organization's norms and culture, policies, training systems, promotion and reward systems (Fagenson, 1990).

METHODOLOGY

This is quantitative and qualitative study at the same time. The mix approaches do not consist merely in the collection and analysis of two different types of data (qualitative and quantitative) but include their ongoing analysis, increasing this way the significance of the study (Creswell &Plano Clark, 2007 cited in Creswell, 2009). The quantitative approach is realized through a closed questions questionnaire (using Likert's scale 1-5) to better understand the impact of internal (individual) and external factors (social and organizational), in the progress of women's career in the banking system in Albania. The same questions of the above questionnaire are used to interview women of different levels of management in commercial banks in Albania, to understand more internally the causes and characteristics of the barriers that hinder their further career progress (qualitative research).

The data was analyzed through Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS, v. 21). The Cronbach alpha coefficient was used to test the internal consistency of the questionnaire.

According to the statistics, there are 402 manager women in commercial banks in Albania. The sample of this study included 134 women, representing 34% of the population.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

Demography
Table 1: Demography

Bank	Manag. level	Age	Civil status	Nr. children
BKT	7% Branch Mng	53% ≤ 30	2% Single	13% No child
Tirana Bank	16% Depart. Mng.	44% 31 – 40	71% Married	84% 1
Soc. General	9% CEO/d. CEO	3% 41 – 50	22% Divorced	2% 47%
FIBank	6%	≥ 50	4% Widow	0% ≥ 0%
Union Bank	7%			
Int.S.Paolo Bank	14%			
Procredit Bank	26%			
Credins Bank	7%			
Raiffeisen Bank	10%			



To diversify as far as possible the perceptions about the barriers to their career progression, different categories of managerial women are interviewed (table 1):

Diversification of the individual level: managerial position, age, civil status, number of children.

Diversification of the cultural level: women managers in 9 different cities of Albania (Tirana, Durrës, Kavaja, Shijak, Korça, Pogradec, Bilisht, Vlora and Shkodra)

Diversification of climate, culture and organizational policies/practices (banking): women managers from 9 commercial banks in Albania (BKT, Tirana Bank, Credins Bank, Raiffeisen Bank, Societe General, FIBank, Union Bank, IntesaSanpaolo Bank, ProCredit Bank).

Individual Barriers

Table 2: Individual barriers

Individual Barriers	1	2	3	4	5	Av.	St. Dev.
Being a women	0%	21%	16%	57%	6%	3.48	0.89
Children/home care	0%	13%	41%	30%	16%	3.45	0.89
Lack of self confidence	8%	12%	44%	13%	23%	3.28	1.17
Marital status	49%	48%	3%	0%	0%	1.54	0.56
Insufficient education	83%	8%	4%	5%	0%	1.24	0.64

According to the literature review, women possess some features (personal traits) which are related with their gender. These factors are often considered as an obstacle to their career advancement (Coleman, 1998; Fagenson, 1986; Schein, 1975). The results in Table 2 show the possible impact of individual characteristics over the career progress of managerial women in commercial banks in Albania. According to the results, *being a woman* is the individual barrier with the greater impact on the career progress of women (average 3.48, st. dev. 0.89), followed by *children and home care* (average 3.45, st. dev. 0.89) and *lack of self-confidence* (average 3.28, dev. Stand 1.17). *Marital status* and *insufficient education level* are almost not considered as barriers to their career advancement.

The interviewed women in banking sector in Albania commented that if they were men, they would have had more career ambitions and opportunities but *being a woman* often make them hesitate to aspire higher levels that are dominated by men. Men do not always welcome a female colleague or chief due to their prejudices about women. A lot of international studies cite "being a women" as the most important barrier to women career advancement (Wentling, 2003; Powell, 1999).

All the interviewed women stated that *children and home/family caring* is the main reason of difference between women's and men's career. Women claimed that they are more closed to family and children problems. These problems impact their work commitment and performance. Even when they try to challenge these problems by delegating them to alternative solutions (help from parents, other family members or employees/babysitter for children), the problems continue to be a persistent stress source thereby negatively affecting their productivity at work. On the other hand,

men are more inobservant, rational and career oriented. They can easily place in the second plan children and home problems. These conclusions support previous studies in the context of the Albanian patriarchal society according to which women are very dedicated to their family and children (Kasimati&Gusho, 2010; Dervishi, 2011; SRC &Instat, 2007). According to Dervishi (2011), some of them even abandon their career because of family and children care. Numerous international studies also support the fact that family and children care affects the women career advancement in various industries (Ragins&Sundstrom, 1989; Cross, 2010; Wentling, 2003; Abidin et al., 2009; Mordi et al., 2011) and in the banking system (Liff& Ward, 2001; Metz, 2003; Burke, 2008).

Lack of self-confidence is another societal barrier to women career progress in banking sector. "If I trusted more in myself I would have reached far more than that" - commented some of the women in leadership positions. Other women's admitted that this barrier fades over the years because of work experience. Anyway, women confess they are risk averse, too. That is because they are very analytical. They lose more time and become ineffective because they do analyze in depth each situation. This hesitation to get more risk is because they are more rationale and think twice before acting. Meanwhile, women think that men are risk taking because they are more ambitious. They are able to do everything to reach their objectives. Women self-declare that they are more emotional, while men are more objective. That's why there should be a balance between men and women in decision making. The results of the study show that marriage is not a barrier to women's progress in banking system in Albania, because most of them, 84%, are married. Nearly 50% of women state that the civil status has not hindered them at all from advancing in career, while 47% of women, assert a small impact of the marriage in their career. The study of Kalaja regarding academic women in Albania (2013), support the results of this study. These conclusions are consistent with the study of Metz (2003), in Austrian banks; Burke (2008) in Turkish banks; Tlais & Kausser, (2010) in Lebanese banks. Meanwhile, these results do not fully match with the studies in western cultures (Davidson &Cooper, 1992).Women managers in western countries such as USA, England, Ireland, Canada (Cross, 2010) often have to make the difficult choice of being single and not having children unlike to their male colleagues, who in most cases are married and have children (Powell& Butterfield, 2003). These results in Albania are linked to the culture and tradition of the society. Marriage and family have great importance. Women confess that their husband have supported their career.

According to Becker's (1993) theory of the human capital, the *education level*, training, experience and competencies, help the career advancement of the employees. These help increase their skills and knowledge for a better performance. However, many studies admit that women have difficulties advancing to high managerial levels, though they have the proper education, experience, professionalism and a good performance at work (Burke &Matis, 2005; Davidson & Burke, 2000; Ragins et al., 1998; Burke et al., 2008). The results of Table 2 show that the leading women in the banking system in Albania do not lack the required education and qualification.

Societal barriers

Table 3: Societal barriers

Societal Barriers	1	2	3	4	5	Av.	St. Dev.
Women can't afford leader's difficulties	0%	24%	23%	11%	42%	3.72	1.24
Women are week, undecided, irrational	0%	33%	15%	16%	36%	3.54	1.29
Women's career is irrelevant	0%	13%	41%	30%	16%	3.45	0.89
Women do not fit customers' expectations	13%	22%	25%	19%	21%	3.10	1.34
Women are inferior to men	20%	27%	17%	9%	27%	2.97	1.51

According to the literature review, the societal barriers are linked to the history of a society, cultural traditions, practices, ideologies, expectations and institutional stereotypes about gender roles of men and women. These factors are often considered as an obstacle to women career advancement (Coleman, 1998; Fagenson, 1986; Schein, 1975). The results in Table 3 show the possible impact of social barriers over the career progress of managerial women in commercial banks in Albania. According to the results, **Women can't afford leader's difficulties** is the societal barrier with the greater impact on the career progress of women (average 3.72, st. dev. 1.24), followed by **Women are week, undecided and irrational** (average 3.54, st. dev. 1.29); **Women's career is irrelevant** (average 3.45, dev. Stand 0.89) and **women do not fit customers' expectations** (average 3.10, dev. Stand 1.34). **Women are inferior to men** is the less important barrier to their career advancement (average 3.10, dev. Stand 1.34).

The managerial women commented their scores during the interview to better understand the causes and characteristics of these barriers. According to them, the leader and decision-maker in Albania is represented by the male gender. And when it comes to breaking through this myth, most of people are surprised and skeptic. They have often heard: "You can't do this job, because you are merely a woman ". This way, they are automatically excluded from participating in important and decision-making activities and projects, based on a general gender assessment, despite by their abilities. According to the interviewed women this myth is related to a number of reasons. *First*, the leader deals with and supports all the problems in the institutions and the women are considered as vulnerable so they can't afford the leader's commitment. Furthermore, if such responsibilities are entrusted to women, their results are going to be monitored in details to prove that they have been worthy for such responsibility. On the contrary, men leaders are not subject to such detailed monitoring. *Second*, respondents claimed that another reason why women are vulnerable to overcome the difficulties of being a leader is related to their dual role at work and family. The position of leader and manager requires a maximum commitment all day long. This engagement becomes more difficult for women because of children and family

commitment. This is the main point the supervisors refer to, when they have to promote someone (man or woman) in a leading position. This way, women have to work harder than their male colleagues, for longer time, abstain from maternity leave, delegate children and home caring to their parents or guardians in order to challenge this bias against them. On the other hand, women confess that they are faced with prejudice from the society accusing them for lack of dedication towards their family. *Third*, the leader is the institution's liaison and negotiator with other external operators. The world outside the institution (bank) can be very informal and women are thought to find it harder to deal with that informality. *Fourth*, the interviewed women thought they should break another myth in the Albanian society according to which the career and power belongs to men, because women have to take care of children and family. Additionally, men are mainly responsible for the family income, so they are supposed to be paid more than women. Although the number of working women has increased, the income the wife brings home is generally lower. Men's superiority goes further, ignoring the importance of women's salary to the family income. These perceptions make women's career be considered as secondary, compared to men's career. *Sixth*, according to the interviewed women, men do not welcome receiving orders from a woman. Also, it is easier for men to discuss and share opinions with male colleagues rather than women. So, women think that men support more each other and make alliances with man. Women, on the other hand, generally do not support each other, rather, they support more men in debates. *Seventh*, some women claimed that often when another woman is promoted in a leadership position, a lot of doubts about their merit and skills arise. Sometimes, these doubts attribute the merit of promotion to their beauty and physical attractiveness. Such situations often repel other women to claim a leadership position. They fear being prejudiced by these doubts.

Organizational barriers

Table 4: Organizational barriers

Societal Barriers	1	2	3	4	5	Av.	St. Dev.
Lack of women career development programs	0%	11%	24%	24%	41%	3.94	1.05
Not merit based promotions	3%	13%	22%	28%	34%	3.77	1.15
Hesitation to promote women (home/child care)	11%	21%	25%	21%	22%	3.21	1.31
Tokenism	4%	26%	36%	16%	18%	3.16	1.14
Organizational male culture	5%	27%	40%	7%	21%	3.11	1.17
Lack of role model	11%	35%	19%	16%	19%	2.98	1.3

Ragins et al. (1998) cites corporate culture as the main barrier that hinders women career advancement at higher managerial levels. Gender affects career choice and development (Coleman, 1998). If there are more men than women (or vice versa) in the

leading positions of an organization, its culture will be affected by the characteristics of the dominant gender, thus being called the “gender organization” (Klenke, 1996). Table 4 presents the results of the organizational barriers in the career progress of women at senior management levels in commercial banks in Albania. The organizational barrier with the highest average (average 3.94, Dev Stand 1.05) is the **lack of women’s career development programs**. Also, **not merit based promotion** has a great impact on women career advancement (mean 3.77, Dev Stand 1.15). Other organizational obstacles in the career progress of women are related to **the hesitation of the bank to promote women due to home and child care** (average 3.21, Dev. Stand.1.31), **a minority presence (tokenism) of women in men-dominated environments** (average 3.16, Dev. Stand 1.14); **the organizational male culture** (average 3.11, Dev. Stand 1.17). The less important barrier is related to the **lack of role models** (mean 2.98, Dev Stand 1.3).

The interviewed women admitted that on one hand, the organizational climate and culture, generally welcomes women in banks. Women predominate in commercial banks in Albania, representing 70% of the staff. On the other hand, bank’s culture and climate shift their gender preferences in senior management levels. That explains the lack of career development programs for women. Women confess another persistent barrier related to promotion. According to them, career promotions are mostly based on networking skills rather than merit disadvantaging the talented individuals. Another organizational barrier to women career promotion is related to their dual roles in family/children and work. Most of the interviewed women accepted that when it comes to promoting women, leaders always doubt if women’s commitment to family and children would hinder their maximum work engagement. If promoted, they will be monitored for a long time. Women are generally promoted in supportive positions that do not give them much opportunity to increase their visibility and their chances in the career advancement. The underrepresentation of women (tokenism) in male dominated areas is another barrier to their career progress. Women think that men leaders generally prefer promoting men into high managerial positions as men feel more comfortable working with men rather than women. Therefore opportunities for women decrease. On the other hand, women confess that they do not feel comfortable in a male dominated environment. Sometimes, they should behave as men (adjust language, communication and dressing style). The limited number of women in leadership positions makes it difficult to develop a model of women as a leader. This hampers self-perceptions and assessments of women’s potentials to be a leader (Davidson & Cooper, 1992). In this study, the limited number of women in senior executives (lack of role models) is the last organizational barrier.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The aim of this article was to confirm and explain the presence of three categories of barriers (individual, societal and organizational) faced by managerial women in banking sector in Albania. The results of the study supported the literature review and confirmed the presence of the Glass ceiling phenomenon in this sector in Albania. Further, the interviewed women managers explained the nature of each barrier.

Based on the results of this study, we can conclude that organizational barriers constitute the main barriers to women career progression in the banking sector in Albania. We recommend that the banking climate and culture should be more supportive to women’s career advancement. Human Resource Department should correctly evaluate their manager’s performance and promote them based on their merit. Additionally, we recommend the implementation of women career training and development programs. Women’s dual engagement in work and family is another factor influencing their career and family’s well being, too. That’s why we recommend the implementation of flexible work arrangement politics and practices which can help women to better balance their work with their family care. So, the banking climate and culture should be more supportive to female gender.

On the other hand, women themselves must initiate changes and must aspire for more career advancement. Additionally, women must support each-other in a male dominated area because the tokenism and lack of role model is another barrier to their career advancement. We recommend the society should support women, too. The society’s stereotypes and beliefs about women must change.

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The efforts of the Government of Durres to form the Albanian state administration and policy in Italy

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ABSTRACT

The paper reflects the efforts of the Albanian political class to form a state administration, which is accompanied by antagonistic contradictions between various political forces, which were represented by the Government of Durres officially known through a congress represented with delegates from Albanian provinces and on the other side of policy was Esad Pashe Toptani, who feels stronger because he had many political ties with the internationals, also was on the agenda of the Peace Conference in Paris because he was officially recognized by the International Commission for Control, since 1913. He knew how to keep the political ties, moreover he had shown the ability of a "political businessman" in relation with the internationals. While the Durres government, which had political ties with the Italian state, but political developments within Albania had consumed it politically, because of the compromises with Italy, was created political opinion among the Albanians that the political representation of the Government of Durres, was nothing more than a political instrument on the hands of Italy. Under these conditions, the Albanian political class in the eyes of Europe was contested, which means that European policy was not listening to a common Albanian political voice. The Government of Durres was aware that the Albanian state could be constructed through compromises and political deals with Italy, which was also the winner of World War I and was a powerful factor in the international arena. Looking at the policy of the Government of Durres in this view, we think that it represented a modern political force, but this policy had been consumed in the face of the radical stream, which in the wild Albanian wilderness had influence and exercised a powerful propaganda which had hampered its political activity. Considering in this context, I think that politically, the Albanian political class was passing the most difficult test in its history because of the fact that Albanians were involved in Albanian statehood, which were mixed with foreign interests, as well with selfish Albanian interests, which had put the existence of the countryside at the crossroads, consequently, international politicians such as Italy, France and England

KEYWORDS:

Radicalization, policy, state, government, power, war, peace, conference, compromise.

The end of the First World War had brought coexistence to the Albanian state because of the fact that the Albanians during the war had failed to be a factor, and consequently the political Albania in the face of European policy-making was without political alliances. This fact created a free political field for the state of Italy and favored it in the face of European politics. Moreover, during the First World War, the Italian state had built in Albania, a civil and military administration, in order to regulate legal relations.

In these conditions on December 25, 1918, in Durres town, 50 delegates, who politically represented the provinces of Albania, at the core of the program had three major decisions: **First**, the protection of rights in the Congress of Peace (a defense that would be carried out by the delegation that would elect the Durrës Congress officially¹.) This was the most important political moment because, at the Peace Conference in Paris, other informal delegations, moreover, a delegation headed by Esat After Tortani went to Paris, a fact that would create a political and legal conflict. This delegation claimed to be a representative of a government with President Esat Pashe Toptani². **Secondly**, the protection of the natural borders, the Albanian lands that were given to Montenegro, Serbia, Greece by the decision of the Berlin Congress and the London Conference³. **Third**, maintaining and consolidating the state order, by creating new administrative rules.

The discussions created a critical situation on the decisions of the Secret Treaty of London, which was held on 26 April 1915⁴. The decisions of the 1913 Ambassadors Conference in London were considered intact, coupled with the full independence of the Albanian state already formed. In the impact of this decision, we are referring to the professor of the University of Helsinki R. Erih, who in a paper devoted to the juridical - international aspects of the birth of new states, writes that: Albania was formed as a state, not as a result of any struggle for independence in the true sense of the word, but thanks to the fact that in the Treaty of London of May 1913, the Turkish Empire had left the Great Powers to care to adjust the new position. So, analyzing these treatments of the Durres Congress, I think that they were not only political but also juridical, because the 1913 decisions of 1913 had to do with the existence of the Albanian state, but also define the state legal status under the care of the Great Powers, and at the same time determine the form of government, to make the idea that we are handling more

1 - But at the Peace Conference in Paris from 1919 to 1920, many other delegations went and made political and legal difficulties under the terms of an international discussion of Albania. (Turhan Pashë Përmeti, Albania in front of the Peace Conference in Paris 1919, Tirana 2007, p.26)

2 - Haris Silajdzic, Albanian in the Washington Archives, Tirane 2000, p.54

3 - Turhan Pashë Përmeti, Albania In the face of the Peace Conference in Paris 1919, Tirana 2007, p.26

4 - At the diplomatic front, the period from late 1914 to early 1915 was characterized by an interesting treaty, at the center of this agreement was the entry of Italy into one or the other. The Italian Government approached the protectorate of the Albanian state and the alliance with the Entente, so Austro - Hungary, after many confusion, agreed to renounce its traditional policy in Balkan, which meant that Austria - Hungary had been a supporter the main political party at the London Conference of July 1913 (the Albanian state was internationally known, and it was designated a state farm and a sovereign and hereditary monarchy under the auspices of the Great European Powers), moreover it was to extend the Albanian political boundary to the borders ethnic. So looking at this comparison of policies and political decisions, the Albanian state was in the face of Political Decisions of the Entente, but with an essential change. a) secret decisions b) unilateral decisions. c) The Albanian state was not a participant in the decisions that belonged to Albania. (L.A)



complete, we are making the decisions of the Great Powers⁵.

In the conditions of the occupation of Albania by the Italian army and the appreciation of its political authority in the relations of an international politics with influence on peacemakers⁶ it seemed that the Government of Durres had considered this factor as an opportunity to use it in the service of preserving the political territory of Albania without prejudice to the policies of neighboring states. On the other hand, she was looking for a form of adaptation to lay the foundations of a “way of life” approaching the demands of Italian military authorities, with the interests of the Albanian state. She thought that the agreement on jurisdiction and administrative powers in Albanian lands occupied by Italian troops had to adhere to the decisions of the National Assembly gathered in Durres on December 25, 1918, from which it had received political and national responsibility. Should not be forgotten the fact that these decisions were in keeping with the principle of Albania’s independence recognized by the London Conference in 1913 and reaffirmed by the Italian Government through the announcement of General Ferrero in Gjirokastra on 3 June 1917.

The Provisional Government of Durres, adhering to these legal-political acts, was put in very difficult positions and was forced to accept constraints and restrictions that violated its political sovereignty. On these arguments she thought it was necessary that the project scheme elaborated through Rome’s policy on August 20, 1919⁸, about the provisional project of Albania’s administration, had to make these changes: **First**, the administration of the Albanian territories occupied by the Italian Corps should be

5 - Some points of the decision of the Ambassadorial Conference on 29 July 1913.

a) Albania is formed as an autonomous, sovereign and hereditary principality according to the birth order (primogeniturës), under the guarantee of the 6 Powers. The prince would be assigned by 6 Fuqitë.

b) Any attachment is excluded

c) Albania is declared neutral, its non-existence is guaranteed by the 6 powers.

d) The control of the civilian and financial administration of the Republic of Albania is entrusted to an International Commission composed of 6 Powers delegates and an Albanian delegate.

e) this commission would be charged with the organization of all branches of the Administration of Albania and the Prince would be appointed within a period of 6 months. Until the appointment of the prince and the formation of a national, definitive government, the functioning of the existing indigenous authority and the gendarmerie will be under the control of the International Commissioner (Arben Puto, Albanian Independence and Diplomacy of the Great Powers, Tirana, 1978, p.327)

6 - After breaking Italy’s relationship with Austria-Hungary, Italy signed on 26 April 1915 the Secret Treaty of London with Russia, Britain, France, it had clear intentions in Albania. This seems through concrete subheadings: First, under Article 6, Italy would take full sovereignty over Vlora, Sazani Island, and a trencher around such a stretch to secure the protection of these points from the Vjosa River to the north and east roughly to the border of the province of Himara in the south.

Second, Article 7 stipulates that if Italy would take Trentino and Istria according to the provisions of Article 4, together with Dalmatia and the Adriatic islands within the limits set out in Article 5 and the Gulf of Vlora (Article 6) and if Albania’s constituent part was left for the establishment of a small and neutral state, Italy would not object to the division of northern and southern Albania between Montenegro, Serbia and Greece if this would be the desire of France, Great Britain and Russia. While the coastline from the southern boundaries of the Italian territory of Vlora to the Cape of Stillos, it had to be neutral. While Italy would be charged with representing the state of Albania in its relations with foreign powers. In addition, Italy would fall into the habit of releasing a sufficient margin at all times to East Albania to ensure the existence of a border line between Greece and Serbia west of Lake Ohrid. (Arben Puto, History of Albanian Diplomacy, Tirana 200, p. 23)

7 - On July 29, 1913, the Conference decided to declare Albania an autonomous, sovereign and hereditary principality to exclude any relations with Turkey that Albania would be declared neutral under the auspices of the Great Powers and control of the Albanian Civil Administration Administration to be charged to a Commission International, composed of representatives of six powers and a representative of Albania (State and Law History in Albania, Tirana, 2005, p.319)

8 - State and Law History in Albania, Tirana, 2005, p.319)

exercised mainly through the exercise of the Provisional Government’s powers under the supervision of the Italian Corps Command and the representative of the Italian Ministry of Foreign Affairs in Albania, transitory period “; this would also serve as a political negotiator between the two governing authorities. **Secondly**, the Provisional Government should have legal attributes not only over the entire occupied Albanian territory, but which would be invaded by Italian troops, including the Vlore⁹ trinkets. The analysis of the Government of Durres expanded further, in what was called the hottest and most important of the Italian beverage policy in Albania. Thinking that the possibility of expelling the territory of Vlora field (in paragraph 1-2-8) from the administrative powers of the Provisional Government at a time that could not have had any reason to pursue the “war situation” would simultaneously bring about the consequence, the abolition of jurisdiction and the administration of the Provisional Government an extensive Albanian district and at the same time would limit the extent of the prefecture of Gjirokastra, breaking the districts of Tepelene and Kurvelesh who had always been part of it. So, in essence, the administrative measures required by the government of Durres were in function of the avoidance of the national crisis, which was evident through the policy followed by Italy in Albania, moreover accompanied by political conditions among Albanian political forces, which hadn’t found a political language in the service of forming an Albanian administration; **thirdly**, the functions of the representative of the Italian Ministry of Foreign Affairs at the Provisional Government should have been “at the moment as set forth in section III of the project”. Italian employees dependent on the Ministry of Foreign Affairs could not serve at the same time as technical advisers at the Provisional Government. Technical advisers and Italian specialists in the various branches of the Albanian administration had to be assigned by the Provisional Government and “will be under its direct dependence, from which they will also receive the wage¹⁰. The Government of Durres sought to be as sovereign in political and legal relations with the Italian Command, so under the fourth paragraph of the agreement, it sought that the crimes against the Albanian state (in paragraph 4) would be judged by a special Albanian military court comprised of five members, of whom two Albanian soldiers, two Italian militants employed in Albanian militia and gendarmerie and a functionary of the Albanian judiciary. This paragraph would enable the Albanian state to function, not only in the extent of its powers in a wider territory, but also to have access to the crime of crimes according to Albanian state interests. **Fourth**, Italian officials, who will be proposed in the organization of Albanian gendarmerie will pass under the service of the Albanian Provisional Government and will be paid for it. **Fifth**, the Albanian militia (in paragraph. VII) will be created under the Albanian flag, with Albanian uniforms and the command language in Albanian. The commander would be an Italian senior official who served in the service of the Albanians: other Italian instructors will also be under the service of the Provisional Government and will be paid for it. The use of these militias would be done in co-operation with the command of Italian troops. **Sixth**, starting with the third paragraph of this agreement, Colonel Ettore Lodi, would be appointed Prefect

9 - Muin Cami, Albania in the Relationship of History, Tirana 2008, p. 157

10 - Po aty

of Gjirokastra and would pass on the Provisional Government service, while the latter was obliged to link a monthly payment. Under this condition, there would be an Italian-Albanian¹¹, which would have the attributes of a supervisor at the city court of Gjirokastra. While the Italian Kingdom would also have “a Royal Commander (RR CC)¹²” near this city, which would have the right to command the Prefecture, once worn with military authority, and would serve as a tutor in this province. So, in the conditions of a political cooperation of the Government of Durres and the state of Italy, reflects a difficult factor to control, it is Esat Toptani’s government with its claims of power, which he sought to realize through movements and compromises with the policies of the neighboring states, which resulted as hostile compromises in the political territory of the Albanian state and at the same time it was concretized, the old theory that Albanians are characterized by particularist tendencies. This view represents the whole antagonistic background, between the Government of Durres and the delegation of Esat Pash Toptani¹³.

Thus, the Government of Durres, worried by Esad’s political movements, followed his movements and relations with the personalities of the Great Powers. In the letter he sent to Colonel Lod on 26 December 1918, the reasons why the political representatives of the Durres Congress were politically concerned: **First**, theoretically, according to them, there was only one independent Albanian state. To guarantee the functioning of this Albanian building, Italy had secured its moral and material support. While France and some other Balkan states, “already knowing Esad Pasha as chairman of the Albanian government¹⁴”, it is understood that the Peace Conference would have the most potential for talks and agreements with the group of delegates of Esad Pasha. **Second**, the delegation of the Government of Durres maintained contacts with the Presidency of the Conference in Paris and presented opinions and analyzes regarding Esad’s¹⁵ political movements. So on April 5, 1919, he sent a letter to the President of the Conference about the activity of Esad. Being aware of Esad Pasha’s conversations with journalists in his days in Paris, the Albanian delegation in Paris saw it as an official duty to inform the institutions of the Paris Conference. “The Albanian deed - he said - seems excessive to discuss the distrust that Essad Pasha wanted to introduce. Essad Pasha is giving himself the title of head of the government and representative of the Albanian people¹⁶”.

The government of Durres, under the condition that Esad made politics as if he was the head of the Albanian government and had the political courage to speak on

11 - M.J. D. no. 2, 1919, d. 2.10.0007 “Because France could have been in favor of Esad Toptani. Thessaloniki on March 4, 1919 “

12 - M.J. D. no. 2, 1919, d. 2.10.0007 “

13 - In 1913, Esat Toptani formed in Durrës the “Highland of Middle-East” led by him. He severed the territory where his influence was stretched by the administration of the Government of Vlora and established his personal rule in the form of an old system administrative. The drama of local separatism of the antagonistic forces (feudal) served as a basis for unconvincing claims of the Albanians’ unfaithfulness to organize their own state (State and Law History in Albania, Tirana, 2005, p.310)

14 - State and Law History in Albania, Tirana 2005, p.321

15 - Haris Silajdzic, Albanians in the Washington Archives, Tirana 2000, p.79

16 - Ministry of Foreign Affairs archive. - Albania ahead of the Peace Conference. Be First: About Esad Toptani. Rome. Social Cooperative Typography, via Barbieri, 1919. File no. 10, 1919, pg. 46.

its behalf, had been put in a difficult political position and, forced by these motives, explained the fact that the Durres Congress did not had chosen him as a delegate and therefore had no delegation mandate: “The Albanian National Meeting, held by the delegates of all visas of Albania, was assembled by the delegates of all visas of Albania on December 25, 1918 in Durres, elected an interim government, giving the mandate to represent Albania at the Peace Conference . Now, as it is taken from the deceitful act of this government, Essad Pasha does not even have a quality to represent Albania or the Peace Conference.”¹⁷

According to the Government of Durres: “Esad Pasha had lost popularity and political reputation in Albania because it had the launch of national political boundaries for which there is evidence in suspicious talks with journalists, as we said earlier, as in the arguments of used by unfair demands on the city of Shkodra.”¹⁸ Whereas in April 1919, delegates of the Government of Durres, referring to the interviews that Esad Pasha had made about the attributes he should enjoy as the head of government, sent the telegram to the President of the Peace Conference, Klemanso, to draw his attention to Esad Pasha, who, according to them, tried to intrigue against members of the Durres government delegation, seeking to take on the attributes of the head of government and the representative of the Albanian people. “The Albanian National Assembly, composed of Albanian delegates, has chosen the Provisional Government, which has entrusted the mandate to the *Peace Conference*.”¹⁹ To facilitate its task, the Interim Government had managed to pave the way for the establishment of an internal administration equipped with specialists paid by the Albanian state “for the internal administration”²⁰ so that it could be able to function in the conditions when North Albania was occupied by Serb armies, which had become the appropriate area of political propaganda of Esad Toptani.

One of the key points of the Provisional Government’s program was to draw the attention of the local administration in order to show strict vigilance against the people of Esad Toptani who were paid by him. In these Albanian areas being oppressed, according to the protest of Dibra’s representatives, “different delegates are imprisoned and sent forcibly to Ohrid to seek union with Serbia. Corrupt Serbian agent bands were being used to frighten the population of villages, forcing them to deny national sentiment and renounce their desire to join the homeland. That’s why we ask Your majesty (here is the Speaker of the Provisional Government of Durres, Turhan Pasha) to present our sufferings to the Peace Conference and to take the necessary measures against such acts of terrorism and persecution and to take both wish and will at the

17 - Archive of the Foreign Ministry - Albania before the Peace Conference. Be first. Rome, Social Cooperative Typography, via Barbieri, 6. 1919. File no. 10, 1919, f. 46. About Esad Pashë Toptanin.

18 - There again, p. 47. (According to the archival documents that belong to the Peace Conference, another fact was more credible was that of January 30, 1913 in Shkodra, where a conference was held between Hasan Riza, Esad Toptani, and the officers of the Primate Maghreb and an Albanian Franciscan regarding the the protection of the city of Shkodra by Serbs and Montenegrins, while Esadi the next day should go to Malësia to inform that in Shkodra the Albanian flag should be erected and that the highlanders should be organized to protect the city.)

19 - A M.J. Peace Conference Fund. Albanian delegation at the Paris Peace Conference addressed to the President of the Peace Conference. Klemansosë. April 4, 1919. File 10, pg. 143 (French).

20 - M.J. D. no. 2, 1919, d. 2.10.0007 “Because France could have been in favor of Esad Toptani. Thessaloniki on March 4, 1919 “

same time our determined to join the Albanian national state.”²¹

But it was precisely this province that, in view of the threat of Serbian politics intertwined with the interests of Esad Toptani, through the practical actions carried out by his mercenaries, sent a Peace Conference telegram regarding Esad’s political operation with Serbs and Greeks: “It is our duty to announce - said in the telegram - that this gentleman (Esad Toptani) has for years collaborated with the enemies of Albania, the Serbs and the Greeks, and betrays the vital interest of the Albanian nation. It does not really represent our nation.”²²

To prove the criticism of the Government of Durres to Esad, we can bring another argument. So in a letter from Esad to his secretary Ymer Efendi in Debar, he told him to operate in Albania according to instructions given by the Serbian commander: “Now I received a letter from Maliq Lleshi. Implement everything that the Serbian government or the commander will say or order, because that is completely united with me. Therefore, communicate to Maliq Bey and Halit Aga and all the leaders that it is necessary to serve according to his instructions.”²³. But at one time, he was in the criticisms of the Albanian colonies. Thus, on April 15, 1919, the Turkish K-Albanian Committee conducted a letter to the President of the Great Powers in Paris and clarified the big difference between Esad Pasha and the Chairman of the Provisional Government Turhan Pasha. The latter, according to the letter, was selected by a congress organized by the representatives of the Albanian provinces gathered in the city of Durrës, representing the national will and “was in Paris on behalf of the Albanian Government, chosen by the Albanian nation to represent Albania . He and prominent patriots of the country are in Paris to serve the people.”²⁴

While from Paris Luigj Bumci, following closely the activity of Pasha, he sent a letter to Midhat Frasheri on 24 November 1919 and told about Yugoslav propaganda, which through the press had spread news about a “self-styled insurgency in Albania “.²⁵ This coincided with the encouragement of some caves, under the leadership of Halil Llesh, Shani Bovce and some others who worked in Peshkopi and Lume on behalf of Esad Pasha. While Alush Lohja had killed an Italian officer in Shkodra, a gesture that had brought about confusion over the relations between Italy and the Government of Durres. But should not be forgotten that Alush Lohja was Esad Toptani’s right hand in Shkodra. He had come out with all his tribe in Podgorica and tried to bring confusion.

In this letter, Bumci also indicated that Shijak had started a move against the Provisional Government with Toptani chairman Ymer Bej Shijak, “but now it almost went down, especially after the strong stance that took over the provisional government, such as and the national party, which may criticize the government

system, but it is against the rebels.”²⁶ There were few cases when Esad’s people hindered the development and organization of the administration of the Government of Durres, especially after Esad left Thessaloniki. He had freed his people who had been with him in Thessaloniki to come to Albania, while he himself went to Paris. Through these people, who in many cases were called fanatics and obedient in Esad’s speech, he had thought to keep his political situation by organizing a committee that he supported with his troops Murat Bey Podgorica.

While in Tirana the support of Esad’s actions became Hamit Bey Toptani. Also Osman Bali, who had returned from Thessaloniki and had concentrated his activity in his Bal village in the Peza province, had summoned all the parish of the villages and had informed him about the purpose he intended to pursue. It must be acknowledged that sympathy for Esad was maintained in this area, so he was assisted by him in different ways. In a short time he had collected from the villagers luck, weapons which he had deposited in certain places kept by people organized by Osman Bali himself, as Pasha’s most faithful man. He then went to all of the Middle East seeking relief²⁷ and assistance in serving the military organization of Esad Pasha.

In areas that were attempted to be under the administration of the Government of Durres, or with a limited government influence, it had its own provinces²⁸, which functioned by keeping in touch with the government and informing it. “One day I come to the office of Ramadan Picari from Vora”, - one of the districts of the government of Durres²⁹ told.

Moreover, two main moments should be considered: **first**, Yugoslavia’s policy regarding Esad Toptani’s position and the people surrounding him, who were also partners of the Yugoslav³⁰ politics agreement. **Second**, Esat Toptani’s political agreement with Yugoslavia’s foreign minister, accompanied by anti-Albanian³¹ sanctions.

From what we have analyzed so far, it is clear that Esad had a good organization, in the rivalry with the political influence of the administration of the Government of Durres. With the influence of his army’s strength and the promises, backed by the fanatics who did not give up on co-operation with Esad, he must admit that he had

26 - AMPJ. File no. 9 \ 1, Paris on October 24, 1919, p. 385.

27 - Referring to different sources, this propaganda was done, politically speculating with one of the fundamental principles of Albanian Canonian Law, to make it easier, to keep people closer to Esat’s political interests, which were concretizing in the area of Middle East, and in the North East East (AMPJ, File No. 9 \ 1, Paris, 24 October 1919, p. 385).

28 - State and Law History in Albania, “The Thousand Covenant of Civil Administration”, Tirana 2005, f.311

29 - I told him, one night a man came from Dibra home. But being ill, he could not walk in his intent and begged Ramadan to bring a letter to Hamit Bey Toptani who was sent by Murat bej Podgorica. Ramadan had accepted, but instead of sending the letter to the beu, he had brought it to the provincial. He was forwarded to the center without delay, because it contained the program and organizational links of the exegists. The pasha instructions were sent from Serbia to Dibra to Murat bey Podgorica, who forwarded Hamit to Toptani in Tirana, who had constant ties with Osman Balin. That same way, they also followed the information that fell to Esad Toptani. This was further confirmed by the story of the district in relation to one of the informants of Pasha of Tirana (AMPJ, file 9/1, Paris, 24 October 1919, p. 395)

30 - Like Maliq Gjyli from Ulcinj, Irfan Beu, who had been in Durrës in the time of Vid, who later became the leader of the rebels, like Luk Lukaj, who had gone to Belgrade together with Shkodran captain Hamit Gjylbegun in co-operation with also close with Esad Toptani; they claimed to occupy ministerial posts in the government of Esad Toptani- (AMPJ, file 9/1, Paris, 24 October 1919, p. 395).

31 - Muin Cami, Albania in International Relations 1014- 1918, Tirana, 1985, p.67

21 - AQSH. The Peace Conference Fund. Protest of Dibra’s representatives against oppressive politics followed by Serbian invaders. File 8, p. 37 (Italian).

22 - Ministry of Foreign Affairs archive. Letter from the people of Korça to the Peace Conference. Korça 2 April 1919. File 10, p. 139, copy (Italian), signed by 100 names.

23 - AQSH. Esad Toptani Funds. year 1919, File no. 7, f. 39.

24 - Central Archive, p. 435, Year 1919, file no. 6, f. 99 “Letter from the Albanian Colony Committee to Turkey, to be sent to the President of the Plenipotentiary and Allied Powers”. Constantinople on April 15, 1919.

25 - there again p.45

achieved some success and consequently his power grew so much that he would return to a powerful political factor in the conditions of a 1918-1920 Albania. This was what the Government was following and doing its analysis. The Government, through its people, held critical views of Esad Toptani's view of the political group, "that they were ready for a new deal with Yugoslavia." In a letter dated 26 September 1919 to Chekek Cheklet, they urged Albanians to boldly look forward to their operation with Yugoslavia³², to save Korça from Greek politics. The Government of Durres felt that this view was illusory and made it express the political influence of Esad Toptani in environments that were not under the influence of the Interim Government. Certainly a part of the Albanians were far from the homeland. This enabled the knowledge to be limited and, consequently, their opinion was immature, advising measures for the resolution of national law, without thinking of the consequences that flow from it³³. The way that a small part of Albanians judged about the state of Yugoslavia showed that they did not understand the purpose and the political means with which the Yugoslavs "sought to make us a tool"³⁴.

They are in the service of their interests, for the reduction of Albanian political boundaries, which coincide with the position of the Russian state at the London Conference 1913, which according to her, political Albania in the north had to go to Lezha, while in the south to Vjosa³⁵. This pushed the Provisional Government to predict the political destiny that Albania was expecting to approach with a large Yugoslavia with clear tendencies, according to her, "imperialist with unsightly desires, for which the boundaries promised by the Conference are too narrow"³⁶. All of the above explained, considering them related to the government's policy of Esad Toptani, provided arguments in the function of the closest assessment to the Interim Government and the political situation that the Albanian state was going through in these years. Through public criticism, representatives of the Government of Durres sought to demarcate certain political forces, which resulted as tools of Yugoslav politics, and the use of which created a precedent in Albania. This represented the possibility that, ahead of international politics, the idea was that the politically Albanians were not able to create harmony and did not want a rule of calm³⁷, and

32 - AMPJ, file 9/1, Paris, 24 October 1919, p. 395.

33 - AMPJ, Brief 9/1, Paris, 24 October 1919, p. 398.

34 - And there were no arguments for this. The Slavic politics, besides the influence through Esad Toptani, VII had never been but the suppression of the Albanian tribes and the extinction from the earth. This system was implemented and practiced with the most fierce, fiery, and murderous slaughter, which continued in the modern days (Ibid, 398). This must also be seen in the light of the Serbian Political Doctrine, which had time to elaborate the theory of Naçertanias, which had in its foundation panslavism, a theory that was perfected by Slavic Cvijic scholar. We found this fact in the Agimi magazine of 1919, through analyzes made by Hilë Mosi, who opposed the views of "Kosovo Old Serbia". In this analysis Hila brings ethnographic, historical and cultural arguments to the service of Albanian law (magazine Agimi, Shkodër 1919, p. 25)

35 - Luj Buçi, Discussion at the Catholic University of Paris, Paris 1920

36 - there again p. 398. (Cvijic, Kosovo called Old Serbia) (Slovak Political Doctrine, Naçertania, History of Albania, Volume II, Tirana, 1984

37 - AMPJ, File no. 9/1, Paris, 24 October 1919, p. 399 (But it was also referred to the press of the time, which was the subject of discussion of the joint project of Antant regarding the organization of the Albanian state. Related to this newspaper "Freedom of Albania" was kept final. According to this newspaper Antant said that Albania for today it was unpublished for a political life on its own and without control, that according to the opinion of Antant, the members of the country have so much union to create a state. completely contrary to the view of the Great Powers, through two fundamental ideas:

consequently did not fulfill the necessary elements for political organization and the formation of a state administration. Considering in this context, I think that politically, the Albanian political class was passing the most difficult test in its history because of the fact that Albanians were involved in Albanian statehood, which were mixed with Albanian interests outside, but with selfish Albanian interests, which had put the existence of the country at the crossroads, international actors, who also had their global interests, were introduced in this policy, but were guided by theoretical - political views, which the time had gone, because they were based on the balance of the forces, which politically meant that the Albanian state, had to become the prey of the interests of this servant.

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first, the intrigues were rather intense, which did not leave the creation of self-government because they stirred up the riots to the detriment of national law.

Secondly, they saw too much to deal with the torment and "look" at being able to have a separate political life. Thirdly, it was a betrayal against the nation if they questioned the power and trust among Albanians for a life on their own. Looking at the issue of the right of state formation, the Albanian political opinion thought that they were quite safe and without wondering for ourselves, that we could live by ourselves and with a civic life and with all the rights of a state. (Freedom of Albania, Tirana 22 July 1913

THE DEVELOPMENT OF AUDITING IN THE PUBLIC SECTOR IN ALBANIA AND RESPONSIBLE INSTITUTIONS

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ABSTRACT:

Auditing in the public sector has evolved over the years to meet the needs of a business environment that is constantly changing. In an effort to help organizations achieve an accurate assessment of risk and business development, internal audit plays a particularly important role. Although internal audit has existed since the beginning of human civilization, in Albania it developed much later. The economic and financial development of Albania over the last decades, in the context of economic globalization, has had a significant impact on auditing institutions, that have to do their best to measure the efficiency of public fund usage. This paper aims to analyze the historical development of auditing in the public sector, and measure by quantification the performance of the institutions that have been responsible for organizing auditing in the public sector in Albania, as well as identifying the national and international policies that have brought about the introduction and evolution of the audit concept. Recognizing the genesis of the public sector audit activity and the progress of the responsible institutions, we can understand the current situation and the needs for change that would increase the efficiency of work in those institutions.

KEY WORDS:

internal audit, external audit, internal control, evolution

1. INTRODUCTION AND CONTEXT OF THE STUDY

Over the last 29 years, Albania has experienced economic, political and social progress in the national and international impact. Eventhough the audit has existed at an early age, the standard practice of auditing has been developed only in the last two decades. The need to prevent abuse, mismanagement and corruption of public funds has brought the demand for internal and external auditing. According to Brown (1905) the origin of auditing goes back to times scarcely less remote than that of accounting. Whenever the advance of civilization brought about the necessity of one man being entrusted to some extent with the property of another, the advisability of some kind of check upon the fidelity of the former would become apparent. In the context of profound economic – financial changes which happen on both the national and the global level, both the need and the opportunity continuous and more emphasized involvement of the information provided by the annual financial situations in the management process is obvious, in the conditions of increasing their credibility and relevance in the users' perception (Avram M, 2013).

The first records of the audit history can be traced back to 4000 B.C. in the Near East. Other traces of need for audit activity can be found in Babylonia, Greece, the Roman Empire, the City States of Italy (Venice, Genoa, Firenze) etc. The audit process is a well-established institution of a developed society. It is a process on which the members of society call and rely (Flint, 1988). How to cultivate, and keep informed the investing public and the professional investment advisers who influence their opinions, has become a primary concern of management in the increasingly competitive financial markets (Mautz & Sharaf, 1961). Financial communication has become a strategic concern, managed at the level of corporate governance that ensures the transparency of financial information and contributes to proving the credibility of an entity among stakeholders (Avram C. D, 2017)

The analysis of the historical phases regarding the auditing process can be divided into two eras: the era of prehistory and the era of modern development of the audit. The boundary between them can be linked to the beginning of the road towards the concept of independence for the audit structures. Audit, as a process and a profession, was also considered very primeval so much that writing was invented precisely to satisfy the need for audits (Çela, 2017). Auditing is an academic discipline and professional workmanship, even while is born of the accounting framework, as a consequence of social and economic developments (Cibaku, 2010). Throughout surveying the accounting history literature, Matthews (2006) demonstrated the lack of interest in audit history where has been very limited primary research into the history of the audit on either side of the Atlantic, and none of historians pays attention to what auditors actually did. In the government sector, there has been a demand for auditing for a considerable period, but an independent audit function has tended to be imposed for agency or management control reasons (Hay and Cordery, 2016).

The purpose of this paper presents the development and the importance of the public sector audit activity in supporting good governance, considering the fact that



it is based on both internal audit and external audit. Public sector audit contributes to the use of effective, efficient, accountable and transparent public funds to achieve the objectives of public sector entities and has become a cornerstone of strong and sustainable governance.

2. METHODOLOGY

This research is exploratory, qualitative and essentially reviews existing literature on the history and progression of the auditing approach in Albania with the single aim of explaining the reason for the usefulness of the audit process in the current period. The objectives of the paper follow the evolution of the audit, focusing on the public sector and the responsible institutions for this activity. Therefore, we began by analyzing the significant moments of the audit's development in Albania, specifying the culminating events and evolutions so far. During the research, we have also focused on statistics and we have conducted a quantitative analysis of the performance of ALSAI in terms of economic damage and usefulness during the last decades, based on the ALSAI Performance Reports over the period 2012-2018.

3. THE BIRTH AND DEVELOPMENT OF AUDIT INSTITUTIONS IN ALBANIA (1912-2019)

From the research of the history of the establishment of the Albanian high-level financial control service, we notice that it has its beginnings with the period of the Declaration of National Independence in 1912, which brought a new way of organizing both state and economic activities. The organization and functioning of this structure dates back to full 13 years after the birth of the Albanian state, in 1925, starting with the Congress of Lushnja, the Republic, the Constitutional Monarchy, during the totalitarian Communist regime and continues today, adapting to its historical, functional, organizational changes, appointments, competencies, roles, dependencies and the object of activity. Based on the History of ALSAI (Naska et al., 2012; Angjeli 2014) since its establishment up to the present day, the ways of organizing and conducting the audit activity are as follows:

At the time of the Provisional Government of Vlorë, headed by Ismail Qemali, was elected a Council of the Elders, as a body of advice and control over the government, which never functioned as an institution. In the "Municipal Canon of Civil Administration" (Art.24/2) it was determined that the Director of Finance had the right to control the office accounts. With the approval of the Organic Statute of Albania, based on the decisions of the Conference of Ambassadors of the Great Powers in London (The London Conference, July 29, 1913), the administration and finance control of Albania that had the Provisional Government of Vlorë and the local authorities passed the International Commission of Control, which would be represented by Prince Vidi with a term of 10 years.

With the formation of the Democratic Government headed by Fan Noli (June 16, 1924), according to the Decree-Law of the High Council of State, August 29, 1924,

was established as a temporary structure the Committee for the Control of Financial Accounts of the Center at the Ministry of Finance, which would check all the accounts up to that time.

At the time of the Government of Ahmet Zogu (1925-1939) we can say that for the first time in the Albanian state-building history, the control institutions were raised and organized at the highest legal-constitutional level. During the Congress of Lushnja (28-31 January 1920), appeared the legal and constitutional control reports of the Parliament on the Government. The genesis origins of the controls of this regime are seen from the end of 1920 and the beginning of 1921 with the establishment of a Control Commission. Under the Statute of the Albanian State 1922, the main control tool were the Investigative Commissions, while for a continuous control over the finances was founded the Financial Control Council, independent, with a chairman and two members, based on Articles 75-79 of the Statute and the Decree - Law of 20 May 1925. With the approval of the Law "On the Organization and Functioning of the Control Council" on April 23, 1929, a new division of control sectors was introduced, a further specialization of the control-revision, as well as the Prosecutor became part of the Control Council, which it does not appear in the Constitution of 1938. In addition to the Control Council, there was also the Royal Court Inspectorate (Art. 88) which inspected all state and pertinent administration actions. Although independent, the Control Council seem not only dubbed in his work, but his activity passed once in three months for approval to the King

The Fundamental Statute of the Kingdom of Albania (June 4, 1939) dissolved the existence of the Control Council and established the State Control Institution as part of the Italian Kingdom by Decree no. 44, dated 13 July 1939 on "The Function of the Control Council".

During the 45-year period of communist regime in Albania (1945-1990) several decrees and laws have been issued, by transforming or reforming the control system many times. After the liberation of the country by the Nazi - fascist invaders, the Anti - Fascist National Liberation Council adopted Law No. 97, 19 July 1945, "On the Organization and Functioning of the Control Council", which had a multiple dependency and it was not independent. In the framework of the reorganization of the control bodies, the Law no. 277, dated 14 August 1946, "On the General State Control" was approved, which again had a lack of independence. This law was revoked with the issuance of Law no. 784, dated 20.01.1950 "On the State Control Committee". The abovementioned law has abrogated by the Decree no. 1480, dated 12 June 1952, where the Ministry of Control has been established, as the highest control body of the state exercising control. By Decree no. 2878, dated 6.4.1959, the name of the Minister of Control changed to the State Control Commission. The State Control Commission was abolished by Law no. 4122, dated 17.03.1966, "For the unification and abolition of several ministries" taking the form of State Inspection until 1982, as a constituent part of the Council of Ministers apparatus. In order to increase the role of influence of the control bodies over management of the common property, by the Decision of the Council of Ministers no. 301, dated 22.10.1982, "On the duties and rights of the State Inspections", it was reorganized as an organ within the Council of

Ministers' apparatus. The State Inspection, with a political platform dictated by the Labor Party of Albania (the ex communist party), exercised custom control on behalf of the Government, ministries, executive committees, enterprises, institutions, units, united units, military departments and agricultural cooperatives. According to Law no. 7108, dated 21.02.1987, was established the State Control Commission, which acted as a collegiate and decision-making body at ministerial level. The State Control Commission have checked the implementation of the Council of Ministers' decisions and measures taken to improve the administration and maintenance of socialist property, as well as oversee and take measures to strengthen internal and specialized control by other state and economic bodies. This body has been a formal member of INTOSAI since 1984.

With the establishment of pluralism in Albania, a restructuring of the control institution were needed in line with the requirements of international standards in the field of public administration and control. According to Decision no. 162, dated 07.05.1992 of the Council of Ministers, the State Control Commission took over the attributes of the control - revision, which it exercised until 2000. After the approval of Law no. 7596, dated 31.8.1992 "On the the State Control Service ", laid the foundations of the highest economic and financial control body, which was different in form and content from the functions and organizational previous structures. In exercising his powers, he was independent and he submitted only to the Constitution and the Law.

With the entry into force of Law no. 8270, dated 23.12.1997, the name of the State Control Service was changed "The Supreme State Audit" and was ensured the full institutional, organizational and functional independence. The Law No. 8599, dated 01.06.2000 consisted in determining the authority and functioning of the Supreme State Audit as the highest institution of financial and economic control in the Republic of Albania, the mandate and the powers of the Chairman, the way of reporting etc.

To reflect changes which have occurred in practice both internally and externally of Albania, compliance with international standards and the strengthening of the legal framework was adopted the Law No. 154/2014 "Organization and Functioning of the State Supreme Audit Institution", which is still in force today, passing from a control-revision institution of the financial statements to an Audit Institution. This law realizes the profiling of ALSAI as a modern institution, includes two other types of audit (performance audit and IT audit), improves the relationship between obtaining information from audited entities, expands the competencies of ALSAI, and strengthens the institutional, economic and organizational independence.

4. A BRIEF HISTORY OF THE ALBANIAN AUDIT PROCESS NOWADAYS

The Public Finance Management Strategy 2014-2020 in Albania, which is organized in six pillars, defined as the 5th Pillar, Internal Audit, with objective well-functioning and efficient IA function in the public sector, whereas Pillar 6 - Effective external oversight of the public finances with objective strengthening the external oversight function by bringing it in line with INTOSAI standards.

As one of the three pillars of Public Internal Financial Control (PIFC), internal

audit has already established the basic legal framework, which has been updated over the years to ensure full compliance with best practices in the field of auditing and International Standards for the Professional Practice of Internal Auditing. In order to strengthen the principle of internal audit independence, several steps were taken to: the establishment of audit committees, determining the responsibilities of the heads of public bodies, managers and internal auditors, setting specific employment criteria for auditors, as well as strengthening the certification process and continuous professional training of internal auditors in the public sector, and thus prepared the conditions for adoption of the Law No.114/2015 "On Internal Audit in Public Sector". To accomplish the objectives of the law, the Minister of Finance is supported by the Public Internal Financial Control Board and the responsible structure for harmonizing the internal auditing of the Ministry of Finance. The definition of internal audit in the public sector has changed over time as shown in Table 1:

Definition of internal audit in Albania **Table 1**

Law No. 9009, dated 13.02.2003	Internal audit is an independent activity which provides objective assurance and directional guidance, designed to add value and to improve the public entity's actions. It helps the subject through a systematic and disciplined approach to assess and to improve the effectiveness of risk management, control and governance processes.
Law No. 9720, dated 23.04.2007	Internal Audit is an independent activity that provides management and advice on the management activity, the effective use of funds and the improvement of the activity of audited entities, assisting them systematically and programmed to improve the effective use of funds and to assessing the risk, performance, control and management systems.
Law No. 10 318, dated 16.09.2010	Internal Audit is an independent activity that provides objective assurance and directional guidance, designed to increase value and improve the operations of the public entity. It helps the public entity to achieve its objectives by means of a disciplined and systematic way of assessing and improving the usefulness of risk management, control processes and governance of the public entity.
Law No. 114/2015	Internal Audit is an independent activity that provides objective assurance and offering management advice designed to add value to improve the operation of the public entity. Internal audit helps the public entity to achieve the objectives through a disciplined and systematic activity to evaluate and improve the usefulness of risk management as well as control and governance processes.

Source: Based on framework of internal audit in Albania

The external public audit function is covered by Albania's Supreme Audit Institution (ALSAI), or the High State Control. Currently, ALSAI activity' is regulated by Law No. 154/2014 "On the organization and functioning of state supreme audit institution". The purpose of ALSAI after the 1990s has modified from one period to another - Table 2:

The purpose of ALSAI after the 1990s

Table 2

<p>Law No. 7597, dated 31.08.1992</p>	<p>The State Audit Service, in accordance with the competencies defined by this law, exercises control and performs an economic and financial audit at the Council of Ministers, ministries and other central institutions, the Bank of Albania, state second-tier banks, local government, budget institutions, state and joint ventures, armed forces, political and social parties and organizations only for the funds provided by the state budget. The State Control Service exercises control over the apparatus of the People's Assembly and the President's Cabinet for the use of material and financial funds.</p>
<p>Law No. 8270, dated 23.12.1997 and Law No. 8599, dated 10. 04.2000</p>	<p>The Supreme State Audit, in accordance with the legislation and international standards of control elaborated by INTOSAI, controls the administration of state property and the implementation of the state budget in the entities defined by this law. The control covers issues of regularity, financial management and evaluation.</p>
<p>Law No. 154/2014</p>	<p>The State Supreme Audit Institution, through the audits, aims at the effective, efficient and economical use of public funds, public and state property, the development of an appropriate financial management system, the proper conduct of administrative activities and the information of public authorities and public through the publication of its reports.</p>

Source: Based on framework of external public audit, The State Supreme Audit institution

The compliance with the *acquis communautaire* in the field of auditing is a necessary requirement in the steps of membership towards the European Union, as set out in Articles 70, 85 and 90 of the Stabilization and Association Agreement and Charper 32 of the *acquis*. The Law No. 154/2014 and Law No 114/2015 are not included in the assessment of the degree of approximation with the *acquis communautaire*. However, all laws and sub-legal acts on internal and external audit practice are in line with international standards.

While analyzing the history of audit in Albania, we should also discuss legal

improvements which have avoided overlapping audit structures and public financial inspection. The functions of these structures are regulated through a full legal framework and cooperation agreements. These structures play an important role in using public funds. The relationship between the internal auditors and external auditors is supported by the legal framework and the following rules:

Article 16 of Law No. 154/2014 represens the inter-institutional cooperation of the ALSAI with the Ministry of Finance and it has been concretized with a new Memorandum of Understanding to better coordinate and monitor the follow-up to audit recommendations in May 2017. The State Supreme Audit institution takes into account these findings, only if the standards used for these audits are in accordance with its own standards and the ones of international auditing.

Article 25 of Law No 114/2015 - The structures being responsible for harmonizing the internal auditing and the internal auditing units shall cooperate with the High State Audit based on the principles of continuous cooperation, commitment, understanding and mutual trust.

International standards for the professional practice of internal auditing, The Institute of Internal Auditors (IIA), Standard 2050 - Coordination and Reliance.

The International Standards of Supreme Audit Institutions, International Organization of Supreme Audit Institutions, INTOSAI GOV 9150 - Coordination and Cooperation between SAIs and Internal Auditors in the Public Sector.

5. ALSAI PERFORMANCE

ALSAI has built up its institutional functioning in various dimensions through which the audit missions are intended to be improved by methodologically and technically enhancing the implementation of international auditing standards and the best practices of INTOSAI and EUROSAI, considering himself a servant of citizens and stakeholders, as well as a prime agent of the Assembly to guarantee a good governance. The auditing work aims to make the management of the public financial resources more effective, economical and efficient. In order to fulfill its mission, ALSAI's activity is based on the principles of integrity, independence, accountability, transparency, professionalism, public interest, co-operation, and objectivity.

Referring to Albania 2018 Report by the European Commission on 17.4.2018: "The focus of audit activities is on compliance audits determining economic damage and violations of rules, rather than on audits that could help prevent such damage in the first place. The focus on producing a large number of audit reports annually negatively impacts the quality of audit work and recommendations. Financial audits do not yet result in professional audit opinions."

5.1. TYPES OF AUDIT

In accordance with the legislation, ALSAI performs financial audits, compliance audits (legality and financial regularity), performance audits, information technology audits, as well as assesses overall functioning of the systems of internal control and



audit bodies subject to audit, giving random opinions and recommendations. In Table 3 are presented the types of audits carried out and the total planned audits versus audits carried out during 2012-2018:

The types of audits for the period 2012-2018 **Table 3**

Types of audit/ Year	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
Compliance audits	131	118	131	120	118	117	94
Financial Audits	17	21	12	12	7	14	29
Thematic Audits	6	8	9	12	14	5	24
Performance Audits ¹	4	6	8	12	13	15	18
IT Audits	0	0	0	2	2	5	6
Total fakt	158	153	160	158	154	156	171
Total plan	153	147	159	155	154	154	162

Source: Based on the data of ALSAI Performance Reports 2012-2018.

As we can see from the table in 2018, there have been conducted 15 more audits than 2017 or otherwise said the year 2018 marks the largest number of audits carried out since 2012. ALSAI has focused its audit work in compliance audits, which represents the largest number of total audits. However, the number of such audits in 2018 has been reduced from 117 audits in 2017 to 94 audits in 2018. Over the years, the number of audits has been raised in some areas such as the IT audit, which was inexistent until in 2014 and the performance audit that raised from 4 in 2012 to 18 in 2018. It is also noted a significant increase in the number of financial audits compared to 2017, altogether 15 more audits. During this analyzed period, only in 2016 the ALSAI was in line with the target of planned audits at the beginning of the year, while in the other years we have exceeded the planned number of audits, and in 2018 were exceeded by 9 audits, the planned levels. The annual reports of ALSAI do not explain the factors that have led to deviations from the plan, indicating that better planning of audit resources is needed.

5.2. THE ECONOMIC DAMAGE

One way to measure the audit institutions performance is to analyze the level of damages and ineffective spending or spending with negative effects on the state budget. According to the published data of ALSAI Economic Damage 2002-2011 versus Economic Damage 2012-2018, the average of the economic damage discovered has grown with 475% in the last years compared to the last 10 years, which demonstrates that the ALSAI have detected financial irregularities and economic damages. Its highest level was in year 2015 with 125.8 billion ALL and goes to 213.9 billion ALL or approximately 1,711.1 million euro in year 2018.

Economic Damage Discovered 2002-2018 **Table 4**

The economic damage discovered (in billions ALL)	10 years (2002-2011)	7 years (2012-2018)	Percentage of growth
	47.7	226.7	475%

Source: Based on the data of ALSAI Performance Report 2018

For irregularities, financial violations with a negative impact on the performance of audited entities and lack of value added in the use of public funds, the ALSAI has lawsuit in the prosecution bodies, people responsible for a total of 307 criminal charges for the period 2012-2018. The highest number of criminal charges refers to 2015 (51 criminal charges) and has come down to 2018 (41 criminal charges) - Table 5.

Criminal charges in years 2012-2018 **Table 5**

	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
Number of denunciations	40	38	41	51	49	47	41
Number of People	125	94	149	159	191	129	122

Source: Based on the data of ALSAI Performance Report 2018

5. CONCLUSIONS

This paper traces the historical course of auditing in the public sector, which incurs changes decades after decade in order to meet the requirements of a business environment. In Albania, the modernization of the audit function has slowed down. The definitions, roles and types of audit have experienced their evolution theoretically, legally and practically, especially during the last century. After the fall of communism, many reforms which restructured the State Supreme Audit Institution were undertaken. Today the State Supreme Audit Institution is an independent and depoliticized institution, which exercises its powers subject to the Constitution, the legal framework in force and the international auditing standards. Now we can say that the experience and progress of the auditing show has made it an essential key to the advice of a strong and stable government, but further efforts are needed to give it the right importance and to fulfill its role. In order to further the modernization of this institution, the Law No. 154/2014, in which not only the term "control" has been replaced by the term "audit", but many changes have been made to the structure and content of the audit process.

One of the aspects that had a great impact on the development of auditing in the public sector was the approximation of the legislation with the International Standards of Supreme Audit Institutions developed by the INTOSAI in the field of external public auditing and with the IIA's International Standards in the field of internal audit. The implementation of these standards affects audit work to promote transparency and efficiency in public administration activities. The performance of performance audit and IT audit remain problematic, their number has increased from one year to the other, yet more investment is needed to increase the professional skills of auditors in carrying out these audits. It is important to mention the IT audit that was inexistent in 2012, now is part of the work of ALSAI.

Nowadays the audit should be considered as a management tool that adds value and improves the activity of the public sector. External and internal auditing should co-operate and co-ordinate their work with public institutions auditing, aiming for quality work of audit effort and implementation of recommendations as an instrument to combat misuse and mismanagement of public funds. In order to minimize the risks

in the future, we suggest an amplification of the audit function in Albania, focusing on strengthening legal bases, increasing transparency to the public, liability and accountability of the head of entities for better use of the public financial goods.

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Democracy as misunderstanding between freedom and anarchy...

By Associated Professor, Dr. Përparim KABO

ABSTRACT

Prolonged transition as a result of misunderstanding with democracy. Instead of checking and balance, power control is installed and the nearly antagonistic opposition between them. Captured institutionalism and the personal power of their holders. When it comes to the task of a ministry, the minister makes two changes: 1-Restoration of the ministry building he leads. 2-The change of functional law that increases his personal power and the potential for benefits. Open authoritarianism and camouflaged authoritarianism at all levels of leadership. Democratic transition prolonged in time expression of the created state as a misunderstanding with freedom. Anarchy with the property dispute. The property not understood and considered as 9/10 law and 1/10 asset. Robbery and abuse of national assets, public property and individual property. The state legalizes informality. Populism in the streets and populism in meetings organized in the halls. The mobs in the street as an expression of the ochlocracy and crowds at organized meetings. Anthropology of medieval society with crowds and modern "princes", a story that follows in the last three decades in Albania. Democracy as a double monarchy and the killing of pluralism day by day. Governance with online portals and show-politics as an illusion of functional democracy. Enhance the role of institutions and the attack against them, supposedly to protect the so-called interests of people in need. Democracy wounded by a mass media that failed to return to either public power or independent power. Media in the hands of dubious owners. Misunderstandings with democracy such as the freedom to do all that was prohibited yesterday. Orientalism orchestrated as anthropological minds in ordinary people, and orientalism as politicians' behavior. Lack of conditions for a democracy through law. Recycling anarchy as an expression of a revolutionary inherited from communism. The patriotism as the last refuge of adventurous political leaders who are afraid of freedom. The very low level of democracy as a culture and lost visions of a society without orientation compass.

KEY WORDS:

democracy, antagonistic opposition, captured institutionalism, authoritarianism, freedom, anarchy, the populism, medieval society, functional democracy, mass media, orientalism, democracy as a culture.

BY WAY OF INTRODUCTION....

Is the democratic system in Albania such as to convince one that Albanian society and anthropology have parted ways with the communist mentality? What about the feudal mentality? After all, have the ordinary man and the man engaged in the policymaking profession, emerged from the fog of Orientalism?

In order to give scientific answers to such questions, it is necessary to explain and convince people through arguments whether "Democracy through law" has been functioning in the last almost three decades in Albania. Are fundamental human rights and freedoms respected? Unfortunately, in the post communist Albanian reality, "Freedom is considered as a game without rules, while anarchy as the freedom that can stand even above the law." The essential misunderstanding of democracy concerns freedom and anarchy.

RESEARCHED QUESTIONS....

Why institutional democracy does not function as a normalcy in Albania?

The answer that this research has set out to provide is because: "Democracy as a misunderstanding between freedom and anarchy." The anthropological mass of people that in the past history had not known institutional democracy is not versed in the culture of freedom. What democratic traditions can a people have in their culture and stands when for centuries they have experienced and only known authoritarianism, not democracy, as their political system? How much oriental culture does a society organized on the basis of the structure of feudal anthropology and the scheme of the "mob and the chieftain" have inherent in it? Where the institutional culture is missing, it is replaced with the cult of possession and personalized institutions.

The methodology used...

A historical and concrete analysis of the reality, juxtaposed with the laws of democracy as a system. In my paper you will find a structured analysis of the fundamental elements determining the functioning of democracy as a system and its misuse in the Albanian reality. Based on the behavior of ordinary man, I am trying to draw up the anthropological profile of the crowd and the politicians or the high leaders of the state. The conclusions drawn as a result of a long, almost 20 year exploration of this matter, are set against the most important ideas of the authors who have written about Albania, in particular, and about democracy and the risks threatening it, in general.

Conclusions...

The conclusions of this study point out that:

- The basic principles of liberal democracy are either not sufficiently known or even where known, not properly respected.
- The political classes in Albania have during the entire transition not been inclined to implement their constitutional and legal obligations based on the principles of



freedom, democracy and the rule of law, on the contrary, they have been characterized by the capture of power and its branches. The party and state leaders have demonstrated a feudal type mentality that treats society according to the scheme of “the crowd and the prince”.

Representative democracy is not duly based on the principles of institutional democracy.

Human rights and freedoms are not duly and sufficiently respected. The trust agreement does not function because freedom of life, freedom of property and freedom of expression have been affected.

Democracy is missing as a culture of behavior and as a relationship between the individual and the institutions.

In the Albanian transition society, the immunity systems are either lacking or not functioning properly. In many aspects, democracy is outside the control of institutions and the law.

THE DEBATE...

The topic of this discussion is an open topic. From a life perspective, it is related to the immediate and prospective needs for profound changes in mentality, conduct and democratic institutions. We need to understand that we have first to Europeanize our society, and then to integrate Albania into the European Union. Misunderstandings in relation to democracy are such as to keep the individual in the “prison of history”. To break away from them, does not merely mean to convert into the principles of democracy. To be educated with freedom is a challenge. In order to keep anarchy at bay, it is necessary to educate people with the principle of liberal democracy, “first order, then freedom”. Albanian society has still a long way to go...!

PROTRACTED TRANSITION AS A RESULT OF MISUNDERSTANDING OF DEMOCRACY

If transition from one system to another requires a transitional period, this intermediary period is well understood since the past has not been fully relinquished and the future has not yet arrived fully, therefore from a mentality point of view, it is quite acceptable, but also from the aspect of the interests of the society, which needs time to gradually adjust to new developments.

The individuals or the social strata that lose their status and the security they enjoyed in their former favorable positions cannot easily adapt to the new circumstances or immediately acquire their social and economic status in the new system. *Identification of that part of society that embraces change and makes sacrifices for it, beginning from cultural investments to understand what liberal democracy order is as a culture that transforms man from a nullity without freedom, to a free individual as an institution, would have ensured the broadest anthropological group and also the promoter to overcome the transition phase.*

Failure to invest in this aspect explains why an overwhelming mass of people

preserve the same conservative philosophy of behavior towards the state and its administration and institutions in general. The delay in changing people’s mentality has also created a transitory situation in the spontaneous outlook of people, where the former historical vestiges mix up with the freedom of expression in democracy. We hear people say: what is the government doing for me, where is the government, or the government should take care of us (a socialist mentality), or this is a government of robbers, a corrupt government (the understanding of freedom and state in the transition period). The common people say the same also in relation to parliament and the executive, the judiciary system and the media power. *There is a simple arithmetic: “Are the institutions for the people, or against the people?”* The stable constant may be formulated as such: “We the people wait to see what you politicians are going to do for us.” There is community awareness whether: “The people who manage the affairs of the state and work in its different branches consider themselves ‘Public servants’; or are all powerful and should somehow think also of the people and their concerns”.

Have we as society broken away from the philosophy of communist slogan: “The party does what the people want, and the people do what the party says?” I am afraid that we have not yet broken away from it. The terms people and people’s interest and needs are being misused. Currently the government has opened an online portal for “Co-governance with the citizens” that it has named “The Albania we want”. The opposition has for some time now boycotted the institutions, having identified with what it considers the power of the street people. It argues that “The people are discontent and we read it and in simony with it, we decide to leave parliament for good and give away also our mandates as deputies. In the two cases, the institutions and their independence is being attacked. With its online portal the government is taking over and ignoring the powers and independence of institutions, giving them vertical orders after having collected the complaints of citizens. In this way, while the citizens are not being educated to hold accountable the institutions, kept with the taxpayers’ money for not serving them, but are keeping alive the mentality of the old system whereby: “The great leader is in the service of the people; he is the only one that can solve our problems, indeed even by ‘sacrificing’ some minor officials”. We have to do with a sort of state alchemy. The questions related to such an alleged online co-governance which should be transformed into real concerns are the following:

- *What is the contribution of the citizens to the governing aspect?*
- *What is the contribution of the citizens to the drafting of policies that protect the public interest?*
- *How can decision-making be drafted in order for the citizens to be proactive in governing?*
- *How does direct democracy function in tandem with complementary representative democracy, but also as a contribution to political decision-making?!*

Without asking these questions, there can of course be no answers. If such questions are raised but no answers are given, then their answers do not exist, or there is a refusal to answer them. This explains why when electoral campaigns are

organized, instead of hearing accounts rendered or guarantees given about a better functioning democracy, we hear promises made to build facilities or to provide services. Where democracy is treated as a material thing or as changed material conditions, then they pave the way to those who shall realize such things, and they are the private companies which flirt with the policymakers elected with the taxpayers' votes. Where public interest, is delegated to the private sectors in the form of concessions even in priority sectors like education, health or public services, then it becomes clear that *co-governance is de facto realized through the private sector, which is a real partner of the executive, the legislative, the media, and the judiciary system. Capitalism is buying and selling democracy in the market, while the public interest is beguiled with such forms that in essence are departure from real and functioning democracy.* One of the anthropological concerns in the history of our people has been: "People should tend to their own problems, not to the public ones, which in fact embody also their own interests."¹ Currently such behavior is being fostered by this kind of manipulation, whose only novelty is the digital form of communication, a misleading form of appearance that hides a very outdated mentality.

Another aspect of the lacking democracy is that the same man in transition remains an eternal complainer, without developing into an individual that should take civic responsibilities and demand answers at least to these questions:

- *Why does the government not function in all its tiers?*
- *Why do the institutions and the administration not properly serve the citizens?*
- *Why do institutions wait for vertical orders by the general staff of the political commander in chief?*

Essentially, the opposition maintains the same stand. It shirks its institutional responsibilities. **People are out in the streets as a discontented and angry crowd. Let us try to manipulate them as a stimulus for change, make them consider us, the opposition, as their savior. The treatment of the citizens not as free and law abiding citizens, but as a protesting crowd that cannot be kept under control for what it seeks to achieve in the streets, in squares, or everywhere, is in essence a departure from democracy and a misunderstanding of freedom. There is no identified ratio between freedom and discontent. The discontented crowd is manipulated and it does not target the situation but the institutions trying to block them, or prevent them from functioning. The crowd becomes an indignant person that unwittingly stifles his own revolt.**

"We protest, hence we are." The protest does not demand complete freedom. On the contrary, the protest is spearheaded against complete freedom. It opposes precisely the unlimited power that allows a superior official to trespass the allowed

¹ Jacob Philip Fallmerayer, in his book "History of Morea in the Middle Ages," published in 1850, would express himself so about the Albanians..."It seems that Albanians, besides the narrow-mindedness of their family and their clan, their personal gains and interests, their ire and revenge, have not felt the need to break out of such a world. *Albania is the homeland of their shortsighted thoughts, the storehouse of their physical force,* the place which they willingly refuse to obey to listen to themselves or to others. Albania is a constantly denying element and where anarchy and the absence of the rule of law to some extent are its soul and vital strength.

limit, said Albert Camus in his essay titled "The Rebel"?² In their propaganda, they speak allegedly in the name of the people, and sometimes, in the name of all Albanians. The way they address their discontent is merely by venting their hatred against the government, by opposing change, and sometimes even by disobeying the actions based on the laws that restrict informality. ***It does not happen that discontent is translated into demands expanding democracy, freedom and decision-making in favor of public interest.***³ In a simplified manner, we could say that the human mass in need is easily self-manipulated, thinking that if those who are in power step down, and if people from their political wing come to power, they the discontented, who have taken to the streets, shall benefit; while the other part of the population lined up in support of the political force in power shall loose. This kind of ritual has kept recycling during the entire transition in Albania. Power has been separated from governing hence representative democracy is merely a partisan alignment. The principle "I am taxed, hence I am represented" does not apply at all. ***Instead of liberal democracy modifying the mentality and behavior of the individual, the opposite has occurred. Representative democracy has been mutated into the typical conduct and stand of the past system. It has given birth to a frightful hybrid which in essence is an expression of the typical conversion of Albanian anthropology into its historical course of development. Democracy has assumed the form of freedom to exercise authoritarianism from the top and of discontent that ends up in anarchic acts from the bottom. Politicians are on the side of the people for as long as they come to power, after that, the government is not there to serve the people, but solely to remain in power.***

"This is the issue of representation, it is supposed that representatives uphold the interests of those they represent, but in fact they tend to place their interests above the interests of those they are supposed to represent....The issue of representation is also the disease of representative democracy; elected representatives use their power in their own interests, to the detriment of public interest."⁴

It is more than two decades that elections in Albania are no longer a choice, or an indicator of sound democracy, nor do they have anything to do with the expansion of freedom and reliable functional institutionalism. Representative

² Albert Camus, "The Rebel"... "Starting from the spirit of revolt, it becomes aware that it is collective, an adventure of all...The distress torturing a single man, becomes a collective plague. In our daily torment, revolt plays the role of 'cogito' in the order of thought; clarity comes first. However, such clarity brings the individuals out of their isolation. It is a joint reference that creates the first value for all people. I revolt, hence I am." Albanian edition, 2017, p.11.

³ Ibidem...Camus says, "Revolt is not a demand for complete freedom. On the contrary, revolt rises against complete freedom. It opposes precisely the unlimited power which allows a superior to overstep the forbidden boundaries. Far from seeking general independence, the revolted man demands acceptance of the fact that freedom has its limits wherever a human being is involved and that such a limit is precisely the strength of this human being."

⁴ George Soros, The Soros Lectures at the Central European University, 2010, this reference has been taken from the Albanian translation, pp. 87, 90. Publisher IIS (Institute of International Studies) ISBN 978-9928-195-036. **Note:** It is of interest in this field to look also at the study by Nobelist *Joseph Stiglitz*. In his book titled: ***"Ethics, Market and Government Failure, and Globalization"***, in its introduction, he says that, "industrialized countries have given globalization a structure that infringes some of the basic principles of ethics:...", while in another place, while analyzing this argument, he says, "extreme egotism runs against ethical interests" and underlines that, ***"It is the moral responsibility of everyone to think about the consequences of their actions on the others, including the poor, and the impossibility to do this is an ethical weakness."*** Reference taken from the Italian version of the book, titled: *LA BUSSOLA IMPRECISA-L'etica Nel Mondo Della Finanza Globalizzata*, pp. 5, 9.

democracy does not function either as delegated sovereignty or as responsibility to the sovereign. Finally, we heard the opposition leader Mr. Lulëzim Basha visioning his opinion at a meeting with some discontented people, repeating an expression which has gone down in history as a slogan..."Everything for the people, with the people and nothing against the people," said by Hungarian Lajos Kossuth almost 170 years ago. This expression was used also by Abraham Lincoln, who credited it to Lajos. I have only one question for Mr. Lulëzim Basha. "You were in power several times and for long spells, why did you not apply this principle? If you did not know of it, it would be a grave mistake, if you did know it and did not apply it, it would be an unpardonable mistake." *The sovereignty of the people cannot be the next lie and a justification to come to power.*

The long Albanian transition is in essence an expression of the missing culture of representative democracy conditioned by the extreme economic polarization, but it is also an outcome of the failure of the individual to exercise his/her rights of liberal democracy. A quasi symbiotic situation has been created. On the one hand, there is mass discontent and on the other, there is its misuse by the political parties in the conditions when in Albania there are no poor politicians. If in communism, almost the entire people were under the command of the Party of Labor, now in transition, the people are under the command of the two main political parties, the Socialist Party and the Democratic Party. There is also another relatively small mass of people linked with the smaller parties which are in the game as part of the coalitions. ***The general anthropological situation is this: A very rich minority and a poor and insecure majority of people, which has created a situation that Joseph E. Stiglitz calls "the price of inequality" fraught with all the consequences inherent in it.***⁵

What is the Albanian society in transition like? It is merely a society of people in need. As Hannah Arendt said, "A society in need is a pre-political society not because it does not want to be such, but it cannot be." This is why the rule of law does not function in Albania and why transition has created a climate of pessimism and distrust in institutional democracy.

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II

A FORMAL SYSTEM WITHOUT MECHANISMS...

Democracy as a culture in plural is still insufficient in Albanian democracy, why...?!

At the onset of the '90, it was propagated that in the former communist countries, "Democracy through the rule of law" would bring about a new institutional culture which had been lacking until then, a democracy that is called "checks and balances", meaning that the branches of power would be independent, cooperative and supportive of one another, respecting constitutionalism, the law and the decision-

⁵ Joseph E. Stiglitz, *The Price of Inequality - How today's divided society endangers our future*. "Not just in the United States but all around the world, there is mounting concern about the increase in inequality and about the lack of opportunity, and how these twin trends are changing our economies, our democratic politics, and our societies, 2012, p. 1 of the preface.

making of the Constitutional Court. The expectation was to install mutual cooperative and unobtrusive checks among the institutions. Furthermore, it was expected to have a reality where the law would be an independent institutional entity that would ensure the equality of citizens before the law." What did happen in fact was "The use of law as a political weapon that distorts the idea of equality before the law."⁶

"Instead the personal, clannish, quasi occult control of the branches of power has been established and their opposition which is often antagonistic." People were not educated with the principle of coexistence of "the political culture in plural" or as otherwise known "political cohabitation". Irrespective of what wing you belong as a political force, in the majority or minority, in representative democracy one has to accept that there are more than one alternative and that you can cohabit with it or them in diversity and competition within the institutions. In democracy, political discourse aims not only at getting to know the reality (the cognitive function), but also at winning the election and holding the power (the manipulative function). Hence, the free political discourse does not necessarily yield more visionary policies than those of the authoritarian regime that suppresses the opposition."⁷

Institutionalization in the Albanian democratic reality did not create trust because elections, either local or legislative, have not resolved the problems that unfortunately have been rolled over from one decade to another. Much has been said over the years about the electoral codes, about changing and amending them, and about successes and failures in the election process. It is many years now that we have been hearing suggestions made by ODIHR and the OSCE in relation to elections in Albania; but no matter whether they have been legislative or local elections, they have never been certified by specialized international institutions as "free and fair elections." Their results have been accepted with or without reservations, followed by suspicions, criticisms and finally, by the boycott of the very institutions established by the elections. Worse still, we have witnessed trafficking in votes within the institutions, and swings of the elected members from one party alignment to another. Even the candidates voted by a qualified majority in parliament have in some cases been the byproduct of unprincipled compromises. Where the votes have been trafficked within parliament, members have been elected by made up qualified parliamentary majorities thanks to changing circumstances or unprincipled interests played by cunning minorities. Even the President of the Republic (after the legal amendments) was elected with a third round of votes, with simple parliamentary majority. Such a practice has harmed the system of "checks and balances." The separation of powers has been left up to changing circumstances, the interest of holding on to power and of having almost absolute control over the branches of power. Institutional democracy has been reduced not to having a slice of the "cake", but to possessing the "whole cake". That was the slogan that Mr. Edi Rama used during the last election of 2017.

⁶ Fareed Zakaria, "Future of Freedom," - *Our Illiberal Democracy at Home and Abroad*, - Albanian edition, 2006, p. 93. Publisher Institute of Dialogue and Communication.

⁷ George Soros, cited book, p. 69, The function of manipulating the reality has become a global disease. "The theory of representative democracy implies that candidates introduce themselves and their programs and that the electorate elect the one they like best; it does not foresee that candidates study public opinion and then tell the electorate what they wish to hear," p.70.



What has happened? **Collective representative democracy and the institutions springing from it did not ensure trust, therefore, the delegated sovereignties of electors failed to become the decision-making authority.** The public interest was trampled underfoot. In this transition without any benchmarks, for which all the political parties in the political game are responsible, what happened was that **political coexistence did not yet become a culture of tolerance, an institutional climate and behavior, a need and mentality, in order to ensure the functioning of democracy. There have been two distinct approaches during the transition period.**

The most common approach is the capture of all branches of powers by the parliamentary majority, even the independent constitutional institutions. The same political party that has the government also elects the President and supervises the appointments in the judiciary system and other "independent" institutions. Under these conditions, the parliamentary minority is treated as an appendix of the collective representative democracy. It has no power in decision-making, its alternatives or its voiced opposition is disregarded. "...The governments that have emerged from elections have, under the allegation that they represent the people, always violated the power and the other elements of the society, a capture of power that is simultaneously horizontal (the other branches of national government) and vertical (the regional and local authorities, and the private business, or other non government groups, like the media.⁸

We have passed from the totalitarian monocratic system into a double monocratic allegedly democratic system. (Authoritarianism alternated according to the political party in power).

In reality, this monocolored system with alternations (according to the election winner) has asphyxiated the "check and balance" mechanism. The branches of power do not check or balance one another with respect to the constitution and the law. Everything is decided by the leader or the top leadership of the party in power and then the decisions are transmitted vertically in the form of orders, which are enforced without any opposition. Where in some of the higher state institutions like Parliament or the High State Audit, the Prosecutor General or the President of the Constitutional Court, and others - due to their mandates which may last longer than that of the political party that has elected or assigned them but which, being no longer in majority has in the meantime left power, - political coexistence in the institutional life that normally should be governed by the constitution and the law has not functioned as a regulatory mechanism. The political forces stick to their respective trenches. Exclusion and distrust are prevailing and political conduct is that of mutual disregard. Dynamic cooperation is replaced with institutional antagonism and attacks against one another.

Such a philosophy is typical of feudal anthropology. Power or position is seen like the former fortresses, fees or feuds that received orders from no one and rendered account to no one. Each branch of power, through overt or covert agreements, controls the state. In this situation, the parliamentary majority behaves arrogantly, reminding us

⁸ Fareed Zakaria, "The Future of Freedom"- Illiberal Democracy at Home and Abroad - Albanian edition, publisher Institute of Dialogue and Communication, 2006, p. 101.

of what Herbert Spencer⁹ said, namely that, "Even parliamentary majorities may be transformed in authoritarian majorities." Furthermore, in relation to the dangers of democracy, Alexis Tocqueville warned of two dangers:

"The tyranny of the majority and
Soft despotism."

So, democracy, too, both as a culture and as a system, is in risk of excesses. In his reasoning on this issue, Tocqueville cites James Madison and Thomas Jefferson. For Tocqueville, the most effective restrictions of the possible tyranny of the majority in America are:

**Decentralized authority,
Voluntary associations,
Lawyers,
Juries and the judicial system**

Nevertheless, he admits that there are no guarantees that such a tyranny may be eliminated completely. A more hidden risk but still related to democratic freedom is **"Soft despotism": According to Tocqueville, such a form of governance is born when people give up their independence and free will in favor of an ever more centralized and authoritarian government.** Here Tocqueville sees the materialism and concern of Americans for their wellbeing as a danger to authentic democracy. Almost without realizing it, the citizens may surrender their free will to a "greater protection power", provided that they remain affluent and comfortable."¹⁰

Although Tocqueville's tenets were formulated a long time ago, they remain valid to the current situation Albania is going through. The Albanian transition immunity systems are not operational, instead of decentralization there is centralism, if not by law, by orders. Instead of a conscientious, active and depoliticized civil society, we have a captured, politicized society being servile to the executive branch in power for pecuniary purposes. Instead of an independent, trustworthy, professional and honest system, in the last 30 years we established a corrupt, politically captured system of justice, linked with organized crime.

"Soft despotism" is likewise present since all the government we have had during the transition have come to office under the oath of building a democratic, transparent, cooperative system and very soon they were transformed into closed occult centers, accumulating in their hands all the decision-making powers, until they come to a point where the power controls the state. The other mistake is that citizens

⁹ In 1844, Spencer published four essays in the Contemporary Review which later were collected in his masterpiece work "Man Versus the State". In relation to our topic, of interest is the essay titled "The Great Political Superstition." It is a fact that the royal powers were built on superstitions, since the royal power was considered delegated from the God and royal blood as blue blood. There is also a ceremony that began in year 800, when Pope Leon II for the first time crowned Charlemagne Emperor. Oliver Cromwell sent the King to the guillotine and after smearing his hand with his blood, he addressed the people with the demystifying words: "You see, it is red, not blue". But the man who to some extent ignored this ceremony was Napoleon, who told the Pope: "I will have the crown". Spencer warned of the legislative power becoming a superstition: "The great political superstition of the past was the king's divine right. The great superstition now is the divine right of parliaments. "It seems as if this holy oil has flown unnoticed from man's (the One) head towards the head of a multitude of individuals, sanctifying them and their decrees." <http://opinionese-komente.blogspot.com/2010/05/antropologjia-e-turmes.html>

¹⁰ <https://www.coursehero.com/lit/Democracy-in-America/main-ideas/>

tend to run after their immediate material interests, thinking that if they delegate decision-making to the state bodies, the situation may change. All this is happening in the conditions when institutional care towards sovereignties, freedom and democracy are missing, which are the main attributes of citizens as the subject of democracy; they establish precisely the relationship that Tocqueville warned of.

In our political reality, in so far as the arrogant political majorities do not reckon with independence or competences of the institutions in general, and the constitutional institutions in particular, like the President or the Constitutional Court, democracy is endangered, freedom becomes but a slogan and people's discontent finds no obstacles to pour out in the street chaos. Such a behavior by the President of the Republic is also disturbing, where instead of raising above the parties and implementing the Constitution and constitutionality, he ignores every decision taken by Parliament, returning them or failing to decree some or most of the decisions of Parliament, sometimes finding fault with trifling matters without any serious motive, and sometime expressing his opposition quite openly as a manifestation of his party position. Political conduct is governed by the antagonistic principle: "either with me or against me", "Either a friend in my trench, or an enemy in my adversary's trench". ***It is indeed unimaginable how many political and institutional factors and actors fail to understand (or ignore) liberal democracy, failing to consider the important principle that, "freedom is in its essence linked with the institutions and their proper functioning, that freedom is a tangible reality where institutions coo exit and dialog with and respect one another's independence, in order to create the legal mechanism of institutional synergies.*** Where the fundamental institutions of the state produce exclusion and antagonism and ignore the individual and his rights, such a reality shows that in that society democracy is at risk and the traces of totalitarian behaviors are still quite present.¹¹

III....

PERSONALIZATION OF INSTITUTIONS AND PERSONAL AUTHORITARIANISM...

Captured institutions and the personal power of their heads

The experience of Albanian transition has almost always shown that when someone comes to the head of a ministry as the next minister, that person shall make two changes: 1-Restore the building of the ministry he/she heads (meaning, allocates a large amount of money). 2- Amend the organic law governing the work of the institution with the only aim of enhancing his/her personal power and opportunities for profit-making. There is a philosophy of (un)institutional behavior of overpopulation with

¹¹ Hanna Arendt, *The Origins of Totalitarianism*: "The human being that has lost a place in the community, his political status in the efforts of his time and the legal personality that makes his actions and part of his destiny, one constant whole is bereft of those qualities that usually may be articulated only in the sphere of his private life and that need to remain uncodified, simple existence in all the issues of public interest. Equality, unlike what is entailed in mere existence, is not given to us, but is a consequence of the human organization so far, while being guided by the principle of justice. We are not born equal; we become equal as members of a group through the power of our thoughts in order to guarantee ourselves mutual equal rights. Our political life is based on the supposition that we may generate equality through organization," publisher DIJA, Pristine, 2002, pp. 391, 92.

legal acts and bylaws, while at the same time avoiding policies of actions and reforms. In fact, even the structural changes at the level of ministries (mergers or separations) become unmotivated, merely to enhance the control of and possibilities for decision-making, becoming a right in the hands of very few people. Albanian scholar Ylli Çabiri, former minister and now a highly even internationally esteemed expert, in his study on transition in Albania, dwells at length with arguments and statistical data and with graphs on this worrying reality. I quote, "... The negative record was reached in 2012, when almost all the draft laws tabled by the Council of Ministers and approved by the Assembly and then decreed by the President of the Republic are merely amendments of former laws, or laws on the adoption of international conventions and agreements. Such a thing unequivocally shows the lack of vision..., while we were waiting for decisions on reforms, the ministers did whatever came their way ...We have been systematically misled by the government speaking about hypothetical and ongoing reforms, where in reality, in the best case scenario, the ministers tried to learn the art of governing and did not carry out any reforms, or carried out reforms only in words, engaging only in politics, but without taking any decisions."¹²

Such a climate of negating what was done hitherto by constantly amending the laws misguides the dependent institutions, entities and individuals involved in this game. Suffice it to have a look at only one of them, the Law on Higher Education in the Republic of Albania, which aims at ensuring the real application of higher education in what has come to be known as the Bologna Process, the establishment of a qualitative education and guaranteeing the mobility in the European area of higher education and beyond. During a 10-year period of 2007-2017, this law was amended three times.¹³

The student protests at the end of December 2018 targeted also this law. It was clear that the students, the pedagogues, the political parties, and the commissioned media outlets lined up in the same trenches against the law on higher education. ***Nothing was said by them, and less so by the law, about the "Curriculum revolution", the new systems of teaching and scientific research which today are broadly experimented practices, as the case is, for example, with the trinomial science-technology-technical innovation, or about education through corporations or what is known as the STEM system (science-technology-energy-math). The law does not mention the millennium development goals even in the context of its objectives.***¹⁴

¹² Ylli Çabiri, "Albania can be built," Onufri publisher, 2018, pp. 373, 75.

¹³ Përparim Kabo, "...It should be made known what is the basis of the legal amendment that is recently proposed and if it is consistent with previous laws, because the law is not just a juridical matter, but also an institutional one. In any case, the progress of a work practice is an expression of the history of the legislation in force, which for better or for worse had until then been functioning, therefore it cannot be ignored. Since we are talking about higher education, the law should at all times take account also of the previous law on pre-university education and everything related to the continuous education of different age-groups, from the preschoolers to the post-university students. Where changes result in partial operations, no matter how positive they may be, they are not valid because they destroy the 'conveyer belt', resulting in the clash of opposite wings and the individuals who go through all the educational cycles may have to be subjected to different philosophies or, worse still, their path to education may now and again be fraught with many obstacles, because the laws of the same state on education are unable to interact, understand one another and create a climate of legal and institutional synergies," "Kuvendi" review no. 7/2017, p. 48.

¹⁴ The impasse of the Higher Education in the Republic of Albania and the (il)legal confusion become clear if we compare the principles and the objectives of the law with the universal principles of development of higher education in the 19th century. Let us refer to this document: "Trends in Global Higher Education: Tracking an Academic Revolution, a report prepared for the UNESCO 2009 World Conference on Higher Education." Përparim KABO, cited from "Kuvendi" review, no. 7, 2017, pp. 51,2,3,4,5,6.



Such an archaic mentality towards legality and institutionalism has caused great damage that needs to be addressed. Experts are unclear and unsure about what they say and suggest, being under the constant pressure of losing not only their jobs, but worse still, even their status, so necessary in decision-making. Technocrats feel misused in the expertise they provide, ignored in the drafting of strategies, and as primary factors in the formulation of policies of change and the relevant action plans.

Instead of science-technology-innovation and career technocrats leading the decision-making process, the opposite is happening. It is politics, partisanship, mediocre and (mis)used militants, the commissioned media outlets, and the street protests that determine the direction of change, the institutional policies and the duration of laws. History begins with those who come to power or in leadership, and who are guided by the mentality of “it is I/we who know how things are done”, and “those who were here before me, have gotten it wrong”. And worst of all is that even the technocrat experts are divided along partisan lines, as if science is not one, but two, as if constitution is not one, but two, and so on, as if European integration is not one but two, and the country’s development is not one but two different things. Unfortunately, we have built the sinister culture of discontinued and captured institutionalism that, no sooner out of the claws of the outgoing political party, is recaptured by the incoming party in the country’s leadership and governance.

We lack the criterion propounded by Max Weber that in the administrations it is necessary to have a sustainable anthropological mass of: *career managers, politicians who pass through the path of managers and the Erudite. Our institutions frightfully assume the face of and identify with their leaders, who entirely ignore tradition, institutional continuity, work in process, current obligations and contractual legal rules and liabilities.* “The current aspects of authoritarianism, considerably present in our institutions are linked with very essential elements like:

- The low cultural level of the leading individuals,
- Marked conceptual and decision-making weaknesses, not in line with the legal requirements and progressive technological developments,
- The rural and provincial origin of the leaders that keeps them hostages of regionalism, nepotism and impose on them tribal-like forms of behaviors,
- The doubtful education and scientific qualification of the leading staffs of the decision-making units,
- Rising above the institutions.
- An anthropological typology of deformed characters who quite openly use individual authoritarianism, and revengeful and denigrating attitudes towards brave individuals who are more cultured and progressive than them,
- Individual authoritarianism emerges where professional competence is missing and the person in leadership has a inconspicuous, incredible or even worse public persona, compromised in the eyes of the public and his/her associates,
- Personal authoritarianism is the feature of individuals who are unable to meet the challenges of development and cannot keep up with the pace of progress,
- Authoritarianism characterizes corrupt leaders whose style of work is characterized by dictate, pressure and authority.

Relation of the leader with the institution...Anthropology and institutionalism...

Personalization of institutions and personal authoritarianism is characterizing Albania’s very long transition. The leader has unrestricted freedom to exercise his/her broadest authority based on the laws that they themselves amend, but also through the use of the verbal order instrument, which obliges the institution and teams to implement the orders even when they are in excess of the law, do not comply with the rules in force, or run counter to the fundamental institutional statutes. At the same time, the same authority in power stifles others’ freedom, which is not respected and exercised, although recognized by their civil status and based on the law as a link in the institutional processes. *The mechanism in all its gears of institutional hierarchy is invalidated regularly, avoiding legal powers, divested of freedom based on legal norms, defunctionalized by the exercise of responsibilities that should be recognized as a right in all levels of leadership. There is only one scheme of operation: “The head (his/her order) on the one hand and frightened nullities that need to enforce the orders, on the other.”*

Such a form of institutional ownership is protected against criticisms by means of propaganda. The attacks and insinuations made (not every critical remark is just, nevertheless what is said about the institutions needs to be grounded on arguments), the attacks against abusive leading individuals get mixed up deliberately with attacks against the institutions. (Read: if you attack me, you have attacked the institution). **Individual failure is sold by authorized officials as inherited institutional weaknesses.** Such kind of officials try to unify their weak personal, civic, cultural, scientific or institutional consciousness with the institutional consciousness of the team; and by so doing, they make also some minor sacrifices. Finally, they sell the dismissal of such people from their posts as a plot of politics against them, as a loss for the institution short of leading to “fatal circumstances of national catastrophe.” The other side of the medal in the general atmosphere of Albanian institutionalism is personal authoritarianism. It is manifested in the form of open disregard for legal attributes, institutional life and rules, dictate through personal authority, depersonalization of associates, and placing them under their control.”¹⁵

There is discrepancy between appearances and the real situation. “Albanian society continues to be held ransom by personalized institutions misused by subjective personal authoritarianism. ...On the surface of it... one may create illusions about the legal system and the rules of the state that seem to be functioning. In fact, their failure to function...accounts for the ordinary men and the mass of not highly cultured people resorting to the behaviors and mentality of feudal anthropology. This mentality is demonstrated through praises lavished at the “brave” (cult of the savior), the creation of utopist daydreaming relations (for the unfortunate), and the establishment of real business links, through profit making and favoritism (for the lucky ones), that help establish direct links with the individual- the heads of the state institution, the legislators, the decision makers, the financiers, the administrative leaders or the local

¹⁵ Përparim KABO, “Authoritarianism in Transition”- Albanian Anthropology through Globalisms, first edition, October 2006, p.223.

authorities.”^{16 17}

The other side of the medal is the restoration of the ministry buildings at soaring costs which every new minister who comes to office does or that results from the reshuffling of the ministries. It is therefore necessary to conduct a specialized audit and come up with general estimates of such costs. The figures that the State Audit Commission (KLSH) publishes now and again about expenses incurred by the central departments show that they are very inflated and unmotivated, almost hedonistic for a poor state. The report of the State Audit Commission for 2017 in its item “Reorganization of Ministries,” says: “The process of reshuffling has brought about changes to the Ministry of Finance and Economy, the Ministry of Health and Social Welfare, the Ministry of Tourism and Environment, the Ministry of Infrastructure and Energy, the Ministry for Europe and Foreign Affairs. From the audits conducted by the KLSH, it can be noted that the consolidation of financial statements and the budget process has been carried out only by the Ministry of Infrastructure and Energy, which was formed by the merger of the former Ministry of Energy and Industry, the former Ministry of Urban Development and the Ministry of Transport and Infrastructure, and the Ministry of Tourism and Environment.”¹⁸

The expenses for the qualification and specialization of the central departments and lower levels staff are not the main budget expense item. No priority investments are made for training the human resources and for building intellectual and technocratic capacities. There is no national strategy for the creation of technocratic elites, which may be sent abroad for more profound studies to establish the class of Eurocrats and globalocrats. The new technologies, both digital and artificial intelligence, are not part of a guided development of our country. Of course the necessary organization, management and decision-making that accompany such a new social, political and institutional culture are missing. We continue to witness hesitation, lawlessness, doubts and disregard for progressive change, typical of an oriental mentality inherited from the time of the Turkish-Ottoman occupation. Often for populist purposes, some people are dismissed from work and some others are collectively recruited, as the case was recently when Mr. Edi Rama ordered, on the basis of a government decree, that excellent students be employed in central government departments, infringing thus all the rules set for the recruitment of the staff in the civil administration.

“The basis of a pluralistic society is consensus about fundamental values

16 Ibid, p. 221.

17 For more detailed information on the same study titled: “Authoritarianism in Transition”- Albanian Anthropology through Globalisms, first edition, October 2006, p. 223. In this book, you may find also such exhaustive arguments as, “The State as Anthropol-Moral Curator of Society,” “Globalization to Open a Closed Mind,” “Democracy between Desire and Reality,” “Wounded Democracy,” “Snob Politics and Albanians’ Plight,” “Personalization of Institutions and Personal Authoritarianism.”

18 Fragments from KLSH Report, “... The Ministry of Finance and Economy which took over part of the former Ministry of Economic Development, Tourism, Trade and Entrepreneurship (MZHETTS) and part of the former Ministry of Social Wellbeing and Youth (MMS) did not carry out the consolidation process both in terms of financial position and performance. Although the former MZHETTS staff had drafted the list of assets, it was not consolidated and accounted the financial statements of the MFE apparatus for 2017, worth some ALL300 million. The same act made it mandatory to consolidate the assets of the former MMSR according to its areas of responsibilities, which it had been granted under specific programs, but which turns out not to have been implemented due to lack of cooperation by the representative of the former MMSR (in MSHMS) with the group assigned to execute the order. www.klsh.org.al

that clearly define the boundaries of the claims of individuals or rival groups,”¹⁹
says Henry Kissinger...

But are there in our society fundamental political values on the basis of which people can work to find consensus? Unfortunately, there are not! Lack of national strategies that are accepted by all and are coordinated with the political parties as strong foundations for development, clearly shows that in our reality exclusion continues to prevail. **The fundamental value should have been “Democracy through the law,”** but we failed to implement it and there is still a very long way to go; although it is almost three decades that we are in transition. *The law was traded in the market for as long as the courts became corrupt and today are undergoing a vetting process under international monitoring. Democracy was also traded in the market in so far as freedom is being exchanged for material effects, and instead of functional democracy, policymaking is offering the citizens material effects. Democracy through the law was heavily shaken in so far as in parliament the people were represented by criminals and it was necessary to draft a law to decriminalize it. The value of a pluralistic society lies in a political culture in plural and in political coexistence, but this too was not properly done in our very long transition.*

In our political, institutional and civil society and in the community life, **hatred and exclusion are still present. A consensual value in a liberal democratic society is the care that should be taken for the state not to be dehumanized and abandon the public interest (or even worse to sell or replace it with the private interest).** But this too is nonexistent in the Albanian society. **The corridors of politics have been occupied by the market oligarchs. They are the ones that order lawmaking.** The fundamental values should have been general development, prosperity and quality economic changes that can bring about the wellbeing of all the strata of the society **in order to guarantee a welfare society. In fact, we have a society in need, that is, a para-political society.** Values determine the boundaries of individuals, who are different but have things in common; and still during the years of democracy we could not build the institution of the individual.

The individual was not provided what Anthony Giddens says, “...the possibility for self-change.” Man was left so to say in the street, or to become an ordered “pion”; or was left seated on the chair to take selfies on the orders of the leader.²⁰...Values determine also the boundaries of rival groups but here with us, instead of rivalries with political alternatives, there is antagonism, which feeds also on historical roots from the former systems and times. Although it is three decades now that communism was overthrown, in our mentality we have not yet outgrown it. **As society, we are a social group without any interest in the values uniting us. Disoriented, we merely toe the line of the “muezzin” from the political party temple. Are we therefore a society of European values? This question needs to be modified. How much time do we need to become such...???** **A long time, unfortunately a very very long time...!!!**

Misunderstanding with and about property

19 Henry Kissinger, “Diplomacy,” (1994), p. 665.

20 During a rally held in Tirana on March 2019, Prime Minister Edi Rama told the participants, bring your mobile phones, take photos and upload them in your online accounts to show how many we are.

The long transition is the byproduct of the situation created as a result of the misunderstanding of freedom but also as a result of the approach to property. We do not yet have a clear concept of the terms, “free market initiative,” “the visa free movement” and “freedom in a liberal democratic society.” Anarchy regarding the issue of property is the worst one. Internal mobility has been coupled with usurpation and capture of public and private properties. Such a conduct which violated one of the three fundamental freedoms, as John Lock defines it (freedom of life, freedom of property and freedom of expression) was transformed into a collective pathology that has spread almost across the country’s territory. From the Old Gospel, property was considered 9/10 law and 1/10 asset. Such a juridical and moral meaning was not valid for the Albanian society in democracy. Destruction of national assets, public and individual properties have caused damages not merely to the assets but also to relationships because:

Denaturalization of national wealth, its transfer from the people to the privates, who either grabbed it or it was given to them by political decision-making, on the condition that profit is divided, resulted in a minority of people getting extraordinary rich and the majority of the people remaining poor.

Alienation of public assets has led to their reduction and to their survival being conditioned by private management, with the public decision-making institutions playing the role of the go-between and to the creation of a climate where it is believed that public interest is not the main obligation of the state.

Willingly or unwillingly a populist anarchy was created for the plunder of public spaces and mostly of private properties, fostering thus collective informality, a reality that overthrew the rule of law and established a compromise between the state brought to its knees and informality, which enjoys the respect of the state thanks to the legitimization of the illegitimate. ...

When the situation became alarming, the state launched the legalization process, taking case of informality first and then, where it could, of the legitimate owners. To make laws and bylaws that help those who steal others’ properties or public properties legalize their stolen properties and to be unable to find a legal remedy for the legitimate owners to enjoy their inherited properties, this is called state condoned informality and institutionalization of anarchy and plunder.²¹

In such circumstances of Albanian transition it is hard to find a correct answer about what shall happen with the citizen’s sovereignty. Is it the individual, the citizen, the voter or the community that are endowed with the primary right of exercising delegated power, or those that after taking such a sovereignty by virtue of the vote, forget that they are there to serve and not to lead; or worse still, not to give commands? In communism, this right was trampled underfoot through collectivized conscience. In democracy it is being misused due to privatized conscience. Several generations have experienced disillusionment from their state and the branches of power. *The state has surrendered to informality on the one hand, and the interests of the oligarchs on the*

21 <http://www.aluizni.gov.al/blog/2014/06/27/hyn-ne-fuqi-ligji-i-ri-per-per-legalizimin-urbanizimin-dhe-integrimin-e-nderitimeve-pa-leje-te-ndryshuar/> In this link, you will find data on the law on legalizations and the government decisions on the compensations made.

*other. Such a situation has created disillusionment and undermined the agreement of trust between the **citizens and the powers elected with their votes.***

“Every power is given on trust that it is going to achieve a certain objective and that it shall be restricted by that objective. Where we openly ignore or contradict such an objective, trust is certainly lost and power is returned to the hands of the voters that gave it away and who can give it away again, when they think that this is best for their own security and wellbeing. Thus, the community always holds the supreme power to withstand the temptations and oppose the aims of whoever it may be, even their own legislators when they are so crazy or sinister as to draw up and implement plans against the freedom and properties of the citizens.”²²

Unfortunately, this is how far democracy has gone in Albania. Freedom and property are not respected. In order to cover up such a situation, populism is being fostered in two possible ways. Populism in the streets and populism in the meetings held in halls, or institutional populism. Crowds taking to the streets are a manifestation of ochlocracy, while the crowds of organized meetings pose as alleged law abiding citizens. The former are those who protest and commit violations and the latter who keep silent and listen to their leader. How does such a mechanism operate in the transition Albania? While in the communist-type populism of the past, they used to speak about the legendary leader and the working masses, about the unmistakable Marxist-Leninist and the heroic people, now they speak about the anti-corruption crowds and the political leader in office. In the totalitarian system, meeting halls were filled with ideologically modified people who, as if by a magic wand, burst out in applause and ovations, in shouts and best wishes for the leader, glorifying his figure. Even now, in the transition period, in closed halls or in the open air, militants or public servants working in the administration seem to listen in awe to the leader, burst out in constrained laughs at his repartees, put up with all sorts of prattle and burst out in ovations, and even call their leader a modern national hero, the Scanderbeg of our time.²³ How does such a mechanism operate? Let us have a closer look at it.

Institutional populism has been used by all the political wings in Albania. The way how it works is more or less like this. The need for change is initially propagated as an anthropological demand and pressure coming from bottom up, from the people, from those who are worried, from the interested community. Then, as a pressure exerted by the whole society.²⁴ This situation is played up in the media through publications, interviews, meetings, at some alleged roundtables of talks, in seminars or conferences, sowing thus the seed. Further down the road, the project is forgotten, some hazy words are said about the identified policies of actions and quickly “the working group” is set up, the “ordered workers” who draft the reform. The second act is allegedly linked

22 John Locke: “Second Treatise on Governance,” Albanian edition, 2000, p. 176.

23 George Castrioti Scanderbeg (6 May 1405-17 January 1468), our national hero, a medieval prince who fought against the Ottoman Turks in defense of Christianity and who was proclaimed by the Pope as the Captain General of the Holy See. The Democratic Party supporters have called Sali Berisha Scanderbeg, the Socialist Party supporters too have called Edi Rama as their own Scanderbeg.

24 They did the same in communism, when they closed down the churches and mosques, they said that it was the people that had demanded their closure, and that allegedly the students of the “Naim Frasheri” high school in Durres had risen against them. That was followed by organized meetings in the presence of the print media and the radio and everything was covered by the media to form an opinion.



with the interest groups. The parties are engaged in an incredible game. Those who are invited to voice their opinions, do not even look at the written materials, or cast a bird's eye view of them and pretend to come up with some criticisms. Then the "passe partout"²⁵ persons are found who give panageeric speeches in support of the reform and point out the leadership's farsightedness, throw some fireworks against the government, feign hypocritical surprise at the expected "revolution" and finally, pour the last drop of energy, saying, "Thank God this day came and we are realizing the overthrow we could hardly wait to see."

Nothing concrete comes out of such meetings. Everything is being instrumentalized in the conformist scheme that leadership knows everything. There is no reference model. No questions are asked about other models. What are the objectives and how do they compare with the universal principles of development? How can budget be raised and human resources have a higher level of qualification. How can the opinions of outstanding experts be drawn and coexistence ensured in a multitude of alternatives? What are the expected potential scenarios of development? Nobody bothers to deal with such things. Some meetings are held with a large presence of audiovisual media outlets, some television talk shows at the peak hours and then, they pass on to meetings organized in large halls where obedient crowds gather just to listen and not speak or ask questions, simply to keep silent and accept everything being said to them. The only thing they do not forget to do is to clap their hands.

In parliamentary commissions where draft laws are debated, nothing is taken seriously, some mots are exchanged, the parties take their respective political stands, some experts pretend to speak and then one of the party wings leaves the room and the remaining wing votes, the draft is submitted to the plenary debate and approved by parliament without any debate, without reading it at all, or misinterpreting it. There is more propaganda than real discussions. The political wing that is against it, declares that when it is coming to power, it shall repeal that law. Such a situation is reflected in some forms of hesitation in the society. Where the law is expected to be implemented, there is hesitation. People ask whether they need to implement that legal amendment?! Will it withstand the time or after the other party comes to power, everything will be overturned and we shall have a new law?! The other populist approach is that of street protest. When the Democratic Party wanted to oppose the law on Higher Education, this is what it did. It got together some students in the street, students who are members of the opposition party youth forum. They were instigated to attack the authorities, to pelt the prime minister with eggs, and to throw tomato sauce to the dyed hairs of the minister of education.

Some pedagogues inspired by their lack of reason dance to the revolutionization of the streets and squares instead of taking part in professional roundtables of experts. This is how a cause is built. Then the street crowds are joined by the opposition emissaries, the "competent" deputies of this field. They are joined also by the media outlets that have no work and no principles and whose owners have a stake only in the market and who are devoid of any public interest and the play ends with some television talk show. Neither the host of the show, nor the guests in the studio have

25 Passe-partout- comes from French, meaning a master key that can open all doors.

read the draft laws or by now the newly adopted law. With their hands in their pockets and with "powder" in their mind, they only speak ill of and stand up against the law. To make the show a semblance of a debate, they invite representatives from both the political wings who start hurling endless insults at each other. They may also find some naïve or cunning foreigner, whom they pay to speak against the draft-law. Meanwhile the crowd remains in the streets and continues its protests even when the law approved by parliament is sent to the Constitutional Court which proclaims it in compliance with the Constitution of the Republic of Albania.

At first sight, it appears as if institutional populism triumphs over street populism, but in the meantime, the law has not been read or studied by either party. Those who keep their eyes wide shut should enforce it, those of the street protests who have their eyes open neither wish to nor should they read it. Human reality is likewise split and divided. One horde of people is with the left, the other horde with the army of the right. One mass of people in the forum of one party, the other in the forum of the opposing party, like soldiers pitted against each other on a battlefield. Even those who are elected to non party forums, where they are required to be politically neutral, objective and with integrity, openly side with the one, or the other party. They can under no circumstances be independent and free. This kind of freedom is still a sacrilege in the reality of Albanian democracy. The only freedom-anarchy that functions is that of the party in power having docile soldiers of instrumentalized institutional populism. In the meantime, the other party wing is on the streets. Next time they change places, those of the street enter into halls, the others flood the protests like an indignant crowd that demands the lacking justice. This is misused energy, lost time, misunderstood and trampled underfoot democracy. This is why transition in Albania is a closed cycle that recycles the same people, the same mentality, and the same problems. As Erich Fromm said, the people who do not look towards the future, and deal only with the past, are afraid of Freedom!

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- 2-Albert Camus, "The Rebel," Albanian edition, 2017, p.11.
- 3-George Soros, the Soros Lectures: At the Central European University, 2010. This reference has been taken from its Albanian translation, pp. 87, 90. IIS Publication (Institute of International Studies), ISBN 978-9928-195-036.
- 4-Note: In this regard, it is of interest to see also the study by Nobelist Joseph Stiglitz. In his book titled: "Ethics, Market and Government Failure, and Globalization", he states right in its introduction that: "Industrialized countries have given globalism a structure that infringes some of the basic principles of ethics,"... In another place, when elaborating this argument, he says that, "extreme egotism runs counter ethical interests," underlining that, "It is the moral responsibility of everyone to think about the consequences his actions may have on the others, including the poor, and the impossibility to do that is an ethical gap." This reference is taken from the Italian version of the book, titled: LA BUSSOLA IMPRECISA-L'etica Nel Mondo Della Finanza



Globalizzata, 2018, pp. 5, 9.

5- Joseph E. Stiglitz, *The Price of Inequality-How today's divided society endangers our future*. "Not just in the United States but also around the world, there is mounting concern about the increase in inequality and about the lack of opportunities and how these twin trends are changing our economies, our democratic politics, and our societies, 2012, 1st page of the Preface.

6- Fareed Zakaria, *"The Future of Freedom"- Illiberal Democracy at Home and Abroad*, Albanian edition, publisher Institute of Dialogue and Communication, 2006, p. 93.

7- George Soros, cited book, p.69. The manipulative function of reality has become a global disease. "The theory of representative democracy implies that candidates present themselves and their programs, and the electorate elect those they like more; it does not foresee that the candidates would study the public opinion and then tell the electorate what they wish to hear," p.70.

8- Fareed Zakaria, *"The Future of Freedom"- Illiberal Democracy at Home and Abroad*, Albanian edition, publisher Institute of Dialogue and Communication, 2006, p. 101.

9- In 1844, Spencer published four essays in the Contemporary Review, which he later collected in his masterpiece, "Man versus the State". In relation to the topic we are exploring, of interest is the essay titled, "The Great Political Superstition". It is a fact that the royal power was based on superstitions, because the royal power was believed to be delegated from God and royal blood to be blue blood. In fact in a ceremony that began in the year 800, Pope Leo III for the first time crowned Charlemagne the Holy Emperor of Rome. Oliver Cromwell sent the king to the guillotine and, after smearing his palm with the king's blood, he addressed the people with these demystifying words, "Do you see, it is red, not blue." But the person who ignored somewhat this ceremony was Napoleon who told the Pope: "I shall put the crown myself." Spencer warned that even the legislative powers may end up in superstitions: "The great superstition of the past is the divine right of monarchs. The great current superstition is the divine right of parliaments. It seems as if this holy oil has flown unnoticed from a man's head (The One) to the heads of a multitude of individuals, giving them and their decrees divine power." "<http://opinione-ese-komente.blogspot.com/2010/05/antropologjia-e-turmes.html>"

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11- Hannah Arendt, *The origins of totalitarianism*. "The human being who has lost his place in the community, his political status in the efforts of his time and the legal personality that makes his actions and part of his fate one consistent whole, is bereft of those qualities that usually may be articulated only in the sphere of private life and that need to remain unclassified, as mere existence in all issues of public interest. Equality, unlike what is entailed in mere existence, is not a given, but it is the result of human organization until now, guided by the principle of justice. We are not born equal; we become equal as members of a group through the power of our thoughts to guarantee ourselves reciprocal equal rights. Our political life is based on the supposition that we may generate equality through organization," published by DIJA, Pristine, 2002, pp. 91, 92.

12- Ylli Çabiri, "Albania can be made," Onufri publisher, 2018, p. 373, 75.

13-Përparim Kabo,"...It should be made known where the legal amendment that is recently proposed is based and how much integrity is kept because the law is not only a juridical matter, but also institutional one. In any case the reality of a work practice is an expression of the history of legislation in force, which for better or for worse has functioned, therefore it cannot be ignored. Since it is a matter related to higher education, the law should at all times take account also of the preceding reality, the law on pre university education and everything that has to do with the continuous education of all age-groups from the preschool to pas university education. Where changes result in partial operations, no matter how positive, they are not valid, because they destroy the 'conveyer belt' and may happen that the wings may clash and the individual who will go through all the educational cycles, shall be faced with different philosophies or worse still, his path of education shall be full of constant obstacles, because the laws of the same state on education cannot interact, understand each other and create a climate of legal and institutional synergy. Review "Kuvendi", No. 7/2017, p.48.

14-The impasse of the Higher Education in the Republic of Albania and the (il) legal confusion shall appear if we confront the principles and the objectives of the law with the universal principles of development of education in the 21st century. Let us refer to this document: "Trends in Global Higher Education: Tracking an Academic Revolution. A Report Prepared for the UNESCO 2009 World Conference on Higher Education." Përparim KABO, cited article published in "Kuvendi" Review, no.7, 2017, p. 51,2,3,4,5,6.

15-Përparim Kabo, "Authoritarianism in Transition," – Albanian Anthropology through Globalism, first publication, October 2006, p. 223.

16-Ibidem, p. 221.

17- For more detailed information on this study titled "Authoritarianism in Transition,"-Albanian Anthropology through globalism. First published in October 2006, p.223. In this book by author Përparim Kabo, find also such exhaustive arguments. I quote, "The state as moral anthropological curator of society," pp. 145,46,47,48,49,50,51,52,53,54,55,56,57,58,59,60. "Globalism opening a closed mind,"pp.175,76,77,78,79,80,81,82,83,84,85. "Democracy between desire and reality". 186,87,88,89,90,91. "Wounded Democracy," pp. 192,93,94,95,96,97,98. "Snobpolitics and the plight of Albanians," pp. 211,12,13,14,15,16, 17, 18, 19,20. "Personalization of institutions and personal authoritarianism," pp. 221, 22, 23, 24, 25.

18- Excerpts from KLSH report,"... The Ministry of Finance and Economy which took over part of the former MZHE/TTS (Ministry of Economic Development, Tourism, Trade and Entrepreneurship) and part of the former MMSR(Ministry of Social Well-being and Youth) did not carry out the consolidation process in relation to the position and the financial performance direction. Although the apparatus of the former MZHE/TTS drafted the list of assets, it was not consolidated and not accounted in the financial statements of the MFE apparatus for 2017, with an implication of some ALL300 million, although the same act ordered also the consolidation of the assets of the former MMSR, pursuant to the fields of responsibilities taken over according to specific programs. It is not executed due to the lack of cooperation on the

part of the former MMSR (in MSHMS) with the group assigned to enforce the order.
www.klsh.org.al

19-Henry Kissinger; "Diplomacy" book, 1994, p. 665.

20-In the rally of March 2019 held in Tirana, Prime Minister Edi Rama called on the participants to get their mobile phones, take photos and record videos and to upload them in their online pages in order to show how many we are.

21-Muezzin is the person who calls people to pray from the minaret of a mosque.

22-<http://www.aluizni.gov.al/blog/2014/06/27/hyn-ne-fuqi-ligji-i-ri-per-per-legalizimin-urbanizimin-dhe-integrimin-e-ndertimeve-pa-leje-te-ndryshuar/>. In this link you will find data on the law on legalizations and government decisions for the compensations made.

23-John Locke: "The Second Treaty on Governance," Dita, 2000, p.176.

24-George Castrioti Scanderbeg (6 May 1405-17 January 1468), our national hero, a medieval prince who fought against the Ottoman Turks in defense of Christianity and who was proclaimed by Pope Calixtus III the "Captain General of the Holy See." The supporters of the Democratic Party have referred to Sali Berisha as Scanderbeg, the followers of the Socialist Party have likewise proclaimed Edi Rama as their Scanderbeg.

25-They did the same in communism, when they closed down the churches and mosques, saying that the people had demanded their closure, and that allegedly the students of the high school "Naim Frashëri" in Durrës had risen against them. Then, they staged meetings in the presence of the media and the radio representatives and everything was covered to create an opinion.

26-Passe-partout- is a French word, meaning a master key that opens all doors.



Tiranë, 2020

Shtypur në Shqipëri


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