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Public-Private Partnership in Building Sustainable Development of the Kuyavian-Pomeranian Voivodship

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Abstract

The main purpose of the article is to present both the implemented and conducted projects within the framework of public-private partnership. It discusses the influence of the activities undertaken by the local authorities on both the natural environment and the economic aspects of human life. Potential effects of project implementation within the public-private partnership in the Kuyavian-Pomeranian voivodship (province) on the development of the Voivodship are presented. Due to the difficult situation in the region, the citizens' expectations to conduct investments and limited possibilities of increasing income, implementing projects within public-private partnership seems to be a favourable solution.

Keywords: public-private partnership, sustainable development

Introduction

The main purpose of the article is to present both the implemented and conducted projects and project ideas within the framework of public-private partnership. The probable influence of the presented project ideas in the Kuyavian-Pomeranian Voivodship (province) on the sustainable development of the Voivodship is indicated. The main research methods are the descriptive method and case study including the analysis of the projects conducted within the Public-Private Partnership in Poland including the Kuyavian-Pomeranian Voivodship in particular.

The Concept of Sustainable Development

The concept of sustainable, self-sustaining development was used for the first time in a document of the World Nature Organization in 1980. Three years later, in 1983, the United Nations General Assembly established the World Commission on Environment and Development, called after its Chairwoman the Brundtland Commission. The Commission was supposed to analyse the main tendencies resulting from economic development and the shrinking of natural resources. "Our Common Future", the Report of the Commission approved in 1987, advocated the need for such economic development that would be consistent with the principles of the management of natural environment. Emphasis was shifted from the protection of natural resources to satisfying basic needs of societies, poverty eradication and promoting civilizational development, leaving to future generations the possibility of choosing their way of development (Stawicka-Walkowska, 2001, p. 6).

Sustainable development means "a balance in ecosystems (ecological balance) and an equilibrium between economic, ecological and social aspects of economic development, that is, in other words, it guarantees political, economic, spatial and social governance, while the needs of future generations are also considered. Therefore, sustainable development should eradicate poverty and guarantee intra- and intergenerational social justice" (Górka, 2010, p. 11). "Sustainable development constitutes a long-term objective of socio-economic development of the European Union" (Górka 2010, p. 15). Taking care of the natural environment, which is manifested in among others respecting natural resources, is also an element of sustainable development (Łapińska, Huterska, Łapiński, 2017, p. 99). Territorial expansion, so typical for the functioning of contemporary cities, which leads to exploiting nature's resources on the area of expansion (Huterska, Huterski, 2014, p. 135), should also take into consideration the assumptions of sustainable development. It can concern for instance revitalisation of decaying buildings and green areas in cities.

The role of local communities in implementing the rules of sustainable development was indicated in the Action Programme - Agenda 21 adopted during the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development held in Rio de Janeiro from 3rd to 14th June 1992 (Górka, 2010, p. 21). The document includes among others social and economic issues such as poverty eradication, protection and promotion of human health, promoting permanent and sustainable development of human settlements, protection and management of natural resources in order to guarantee permanent and sustainable development, also complex planning and management of the Earth's natural resources, strengthening the role of nongovernmental organisations – partners in activities promoting permanent and sustainable development, strengthening the role of business and industry towards the achievement of permanent and sustainable development (Agenda 21).

The features of permanent and sustainable development include (Stawicka-Walkowska, 2001, pp. 7-8):

sustainability, which means the necessity to maintain the correct proportion of the balance of human development needs with the need to protect the environment and its resources,

permanence, which concerns the changes of natural environment, which needs to be revalued, protected and shaped rationally,

self-sustainability of development (in terms of maintaining reserves and creating new incentives for further development), achieved through respecting natural resources.

The natural environment and spatial planning, including the type of building, infrastructure, socio-cultural structure connected with economic and political conditions, has a considerable impact on the quality of human life (Stawicka-Walkowska, 2001, p. 8).

During Habitat II, the United Nations Conference on Human Settlements, which took place in Istanbul in June 1996, the necessity to connect human issues such as guaranteeing decent living, working and resting conditions and economic governance with ecological governance was indicated, which would enable living in safe and healthy environment, in harmony with nature, being held responsible for its self-regeneration and development, avoiding degradation of the natural environment (Stawicka-Walkowska, 2001, p. 9).

The Resolution of the Sejm (the lower house of parliament) of the Republic of Poland of 2nd March 1991 obligated the government to submit Strategy for Sustainable Development of Poland by 30th June 1999. It was supposed to specify the directions of the country's development until 2015. According to the Resolution, sustainable development was understood as such a model of development in which satisfying current social needs and the needs of future generations would be considered equal. The strategy was to harmoniously combine efforts to preserve the nation's natural and cultural heritage with progress in civilisation and economy enjoyed by all social groups (Strategia zrównoważonego rozwoju, 1999, p. 2).

Local governments received basic tools for implementing sustainable development strategy, that was creating development strategy, spatial planning, issuing location decisions and permits for using natural resources and introducing changes in it (Strategy for Sustainable Development of Poland, 1999, p. 22). The Strategy was in force until 2007, when a resolution of the Council of Ministers of 23rd October 2007 made it inapplicable (Ministerstwo Rozwoju Regionalnego, 2007, p. 78).

Human construction activities involve significant degradation of the natural environment (Stawicka-Walkowska, 2001, p. 23). It results from the necessity to consume the resources concerning among others using areas for construction purposes or direct consumption of resources.

Modernisation and rehabilitation of buildings has also become an element of sustainable management of built-up areas (Stawicka-Walkowska, 2001, p. 56). Through using already existing, often devastated buildings, it enables the limitation of further human expansion on new areas and it prevents creating degraded areas in cities.

Public-Private Partnership

Civilizational progress “expands the scope of public activities and the responsibility of the State for the socio-economic development, which the functioning of technical and social infrastructure and public entities do not keep pace with” (Perkowski, 2004, p. 97; Górka, 2010, p. 24). Attention is drawn to the fact that the private sector has infrastructural and financial effectiveness adequate to the implementation of such tasks (Perkowski, 2004, p. 97).

Cooperation of a public body, for instance of a municipality, with a private partner aims at enabling efficient execution of tasks conferred to a public entity (Prekowski, 2004, p. 97). It seeks to execute a specific business task, whereby nowadays public-private partnership is not limited to the traditional central government, a local government and the private sector. Nowadays partnership concerns also social, educational and health groups, many of which have been financed with both public and private funds (Geddes, 2016, p. 1).

The rules governing the cooperation between a public entity and a private partner within public-private partnership are specified by the Act of 19th December 2008 on public-private partnership, Journal of Laws of 2015, item 696 as amended. Within the frames of public-private partnership, a public entity and a private partner jointly execute a specific project sharing tasks and risks (Art. 1 Point 2).

According to the aforementioned Act, the public entity is (Art. 2 Point 1 of the Act of 19th December 2008 on public-private partnership, Journal of Laws of 2015, item 696 as amended):

- a unit of the public finance sector as specified in the provisions on the public finance,
- a legal person established in order to satisfy the needs common in nature, neither industrial, nor commercial ones,
- if the abovementioned entities, individually or jointly, directly or indirectly through another entity:
 - finance it in over 50% or
 - own more than a half of shares or stocks, or
 - supervise the managing body, or
 - are entitled to appoint more than a half of the composition of the supervisory or managing body,
 - and unions of those entities.
- The Act specifies the private partner as an entrepreneur or a foreign entrepreneur.
- The following projects can be implemented within the framework of public-private partnership:
 - construction or renovation of a building,
 - providing services,
 - performing a work, in particular providing an asset with equipment, which increases its value or usefulness, or
 - other service – combined with the maintenance or management of an asset that is used for the implementation of a public-private project or is connected with it (the Act on public-private partnership, Art. 1 Point 4).

The benefits resulting from the implementation of specific projects within the framework of public-private partnership include among others sharing risks, lowering the costs and value of services, increasing the quality of services, improving the condition of infrastructure, beneficial budgetary consequences, strengthening the stimulating function of the public finance, and improving administration standards. However, apart from the benefits of project implementation within public-private partnership, threats can appear, such as "weakening or loss of public control over a project, uncontrolled increase of prices, unreliability of a private partner, unavailability of competition, lowering the quality of services, disturbances of smoothness of services, disturbances and conflicts on the local labour market, long-term contractual burden, identification difficulties in responsibility for execution of public tasks, the risk of political misunderstandings, sensitivity of services concerned (e.g. water or electricity supply), allegations of corruption, limiting the development potential to the agreed framework only" (Perkowski, 2004, p. 98).

Projects Implemented within the Framework of Public-Private Partnership

Projects implemented by a public entity in cooperation with a private partner can enable satisfying the needs of a society, poverty eradication, and the improvement of the comfort of citizens' life, even when the investment possibilities of the local government unit are limited.

As far as the unemployment rate is concerned, the situation of the Kuyavian-Pomeranian Voivodship does not look that good. The unemployment rate in Poland at the end of 2017 amounted to 8.6%, but 12.5% in the Kuyavian-Pomeranian Voivodship, including 8.4% in Bydgoszcz County, 5% in Bydgoszcz, 14.7% in Toruń County, 6.3% in Toruń, 17.2% in Grudziądz County, 22.6% in Włocławek County, 21.69% in Lipno County, and 16.9% in Wąbrzeźno County (Wojewódzki Urząd Pracy).

In accordance with the budgets adopted in the two biggest cities of the Kuyavian-Pomeranian Voivodship, in 2017 in the city of Toruń the deficit of PLN 101,500,000 is predicted with planned income of PLN 1,083,200,000, in the city of Bydgoszcz the predicted deficit amounts to PLN 176,864,925 with planned income of PLN 1,875,162,071 for the year 2017 (Uchwała nr 490/16 RMT, Uchwała nr XXXVIII/740/16). Both Toruń and Bydgoszcz obtained a favourable opinion of the Regional Chamber of Audit considering the possibilities of financing the planned deficits presented in the budget resolution of the City of Bydgoszcz and the City of Toruń for the year 2017 (Uchwała nr 11/D/2017, Uchwała nr 1/D/2017). However, in the opinion concerning Bydgoszcz, it was emphasised that long-term liabilities for financing deficit planned for the year 2017 would influence the city's situation in the years to come (Resolution No. 11/D/2017). Both in Toruń and in Bydgoszcz numerous considerable investments chargeable to the budgets of the cities have been completed. Among them investments connected with public roads in cities with County rights can be found, and they include the construction of a road bridge in Toruń with access roads, the construction of Trasa Średnicowa Północna (Cross-city North Route), the construction of Trasa Staromostowa (Old Bridge Route) from Plac Armii Krajowej (Armia Krajowa Square) to Plac Niepodległości (Independence Square), or the construction of a bridge in Bydgoszcz. The budget of the City of Toruń includes investment expenditure for the purpose of considerable investments such as revitalisation of the urban park in Toruń, revitalisation of Bulwar Filadelfijski (Philadelphia Boulevard) with the Vistula waterfront from the road bridge to the AZS marina, creating Innovation Centre, International Meeting Centre, Toruń Technology Incubator, or the development of the Jordanki area for the cultural and congress purposes. The investments support the development of the city and influence the comfort of the citizens' life. Due to the difficult situation in the region, the citizens' expectations to conduct investments and limited possibilities of increasing income, implementing projects within public-private partnership seems to be a favourable solution.

Until the end of 2016, 122 contracts within public-private partnership were concluded and 142 investment plans were submitted in Poland. Table 1 presents projects in individual voivodships.

Table 1. Projects within public-private partnership

Voivodship	Number of concluded contracts as on 31 st December 2016	Number of investment plans as on 28 th April 2017
Lower Silesian	11	11
Kuyavian-Pomeranian	3	3
Lublin	2	0
Lubusz	4	2
Łódź	1	0
Lesser Poland	5	12
Masovian	23	3
Opole	3	9
Subcarpathian	3	0
Podlaskie	1	0
Pomeranian	12	8
Silesian	19	14
Świętokrzyskie	3	15
Warmian-Masurian	8	8
Greater Poland	10	3
West Pomeranian	5	10
In total	122	142

Source: Own study based on Baza zawartych umów PPP oraz Baza zamierzeń inwestycyjnych PPP, Platforma Partnerstwa Publiczno-Prywatnego,

http://www.ppp.gov.pl/baza/Strony/baza_projektow_ppp.aspx/project_base/35#project-list [Accessed on 05.08.2017].

So far contracts for three projects have been concluded within public-private partnership in the Kuyavian-Pomeranian Voivodship. Three more investment plans have been submitted. The first of the concluded contracts considered selecting a Private Partner for the implementation of a project of building a municipal waste recovery plant in the Municipality of Żnin, the second one considered choosing an operator managing Toruń Technology Incubator. The third project consisted in selecting an operator managing the International Youth Meeting Centre in Toruń.

The negotiated contracts belong to the sector of transport infrastructure and health care. They concern construction, reconstruction and maintenance of voivodship roads in Włocławek area, construction of an expressway from Toruń to Bydgoszcz and design, construction and turn-key furnishing of a retirement home in the Municipality of Gostycyn.

Summary

Implementing projects within the framework of public-private partnership in the Kuyavian-Pomeranian Voivodship allows public entities, despite their limited financial possibilities, to perform their tasks such as improving the road infrastructure, environmentally friendly management of municipal solid waste, or supporting the creation and development of innovative ICT companies. It is also important for sustainable development of the City of Toruń to create conditions for the development of information society in the region in the revitalised building of Młyny Toruńskie (Toruń Windmills). The adaptation of the existing in the city centre zone buildings, easily accessible, will enable limitation of human expansion on new area; it will prevent marginalisation and slowing down of the central zone; it will also allow limited use of building materials needed for constructing new buildings as well as using already existing infrastructure in connection with among others infrastructure facilities.

In the ageing Polish society, it seems crucial to support such initiatives as creating within Public-Private Partnership a Senior Residence offering a cultural and educational function (art workshops, university of the third age), staff housing, guest rooms and a touristic and recreational building (a swimming pool, a spa, a hotel, a bowling alley, a restaurant) with necessary technical, touristic infrastructure and land use. Implementation of such projects will certainly improve the life conditions of not only elderly citizens of the region.

Due to the difficult situation in the region, the citizens' expectations to conduct investments and limited possibilities of increasing income, implementing projects within public-private partnership seems to be a favourable solution.

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The choice of pseudoscientific therapies as an alternative to scientific medicine

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Abstract

During the last decades, there has been an increasing interest in the analysis of a potentially dangerous phenomenon for the public health: pseudoscience. It can be defined as the set of false knowledge that attempts to resemble science even though it is not. Nowadays there are many who opt for these therapies not scientifically endorsed to solve their health problems. This situation is increased for risk patients or chronic diseases, who come to this type of therapies as a last resort. In these cases, the choice between science and pseudoscience can become a matter of life or death. Through qualitative and quantitative research techniques, we analyze the reasons why patients choose pseudoscience instead of conventional and scientific medicine. The data obtained from this research reveal that in extreme situations patients value most the human contact with the therapist that the validity of the therapy itself. This factor, coupled with the precariousness of the health system, generates a dynamic in which pseudosciences gain ground over scientific medicine. According to the experts interviewed, this phenomenon is increasing and may represent a danger to public health. This research reveals the possible causes and consequences of this phenomenon from the point of view of more than 60 professionals of the Spanish scientific community and 30 patients who have used both disciplines. The results obtained indicate that this situation is intensified due to the inaction of the competent institutions and the lack of regulation.

Keywords: Pseudoscience, scientific medicine, scientific community, public health

Introduction

Nowadays, the era in which we live has been defined by many experts as a stage of absolute dominance of reason and technology. Two factors that substantially influence the development and evolution of our civilization. Manuel Castells, sociologist and economist, defined this period of the human history under the concept of Information Society. This conceit refers to an era characterized by a major diffusion of knowledge and, consequently, an improvement in the quality of life of the citizens (Castells, 1996). Paradoxically, there is a general perception among the experts that the more information society has, the more misinformed people are. In recent years, there has been a clear increase of theories, thoughts and ideologies which are based on falsehoods and can be considered potentially dangerous to public health: pseudosciences (Jensen & Hurley, 2012).

The definition of the pseudoscience phenomenon raises a lot of controversy because of the variety of areas between there falsely scientific ideas are manifested. History of science investigators consider that this phenomenon can take place in a wide range of sectors such as history, psychology, technology and medicine (Bunge, 2013; Hansoon, 1997; Shermer, 1997). In all these areas, there have been cases of pseudoscientific schools that generate unfounded knowledge. This is the case, for example, of psychoanalysis, astrology, alchemy or holocaust denial (Eaglestone, 2001; Bunge, 2013). Traditionally, *pseudo* (false) *science* (knowledge) has been conceived as a concept antagonistic to science. From the point of view of the positivist philosophical theory, the pseudosciences can be defined as mimetic disciplines that appear to be science without actually being it (Gordin, 2012). In this process of inverse creation, these disciplines take advantage of certain scientific paradigms to gain more credibility.

Among all this variety of false knowledge, there is a specific area that generates a lot of concern among the experts: the rise of alternative therapies. The expansion of pseudoscience in the medical field can be a determinant risk factor for public health (Chang, 2015). Unlike other areas, the spread of false knowledge in the health sector can become a matter of life or death. For example, the use or not of vaccines in infants can determine not only the survival of the individual but it also can affect (and harm) to its nearest circle (Lewandowsky & Oberauer, 2016). In this context, the scientific community is a fundamental key for the delimitation of the phenomenon and for its discrediting versus the public opinion. More specifically, the medical sector represents one of the main actors in the preservation of values linked to public health since they can be considered as the main disseminators of medical knowledge among the population.

Faced with this dichotomy between information, disinformation and beliefs, the Spanish medical community has been very affected by the rise of pseudo-sciences. In order to understand this phenomenon, it must be taken into account that today the medical community is more exposed than ever to socio-political fluctuations (Martínez, Smith, Llop-Gironés, Vergara, & Benach, 2016). First of all, the economic crisis

has led to cuts in Spanish public health and an intense process of privatization of the sector. Secondly, as a result of the above, the majority of the sanitary personnel have been acquiring more workload and pressure in their routines. The most direct consequences are the progressive increase of working hours, increasing shifts, a greater ratio of patients attended, reduction of salaries, continued cuts in material between others. Thirdly, this disintegration of the health sector, both from the point of view of structures and staff, has directly affected the patient's care. The saturation of health centers has resulted in increasingly short visits (in the primary care) and longer waiting lists (in the specialized care). This process, in the long run, may have led to the transfer of patients from scientific disciplines to pseudosciences (Martínez et al., 2016).

The main objective of this research is to analyze the leakage of patients from the conventional health system to pseudoscientific therapies. More specifically, this research has tried to explain the reasons why patients decide to fall into the hands of pseudoscience to recover. Due to the increasing expansion of pseudosciences, this issue can now be considered one of the most important challenges for public health. Beyond a mere object of academic study, understanding the phenomenon of pseudoscience is a priority for our society.

Literature review

Throughout history, scientific thought has been developing an increasingly detailed knowledge of the world. In its origins, science included a large amount of disciplines related to natural philosophy (the philosophical study of nature and the physical universe) which approach the study and comprehension of the Earth environment from different points of view. Disciplines such as physics, mathematics, or alchemy attempted to offer a coherent and solid explanation of the world (Ormerod, 2009). The Enlightenment represented a decisive moment for the definition of science that we have today. Beginning with Scientific Revolution, intellectual movements emerged to delimit empirical scientific knowledge from the one that was merely speculative. Thinkers such as Francis Bacon, René Descartes, and David Hume tackled the problem from a philosophical perspective, trying to create schemas to define what was science (Harman, 1987). The result of this process was the creation, establishment and application of the scientific method. From this moment on, the disciplines that were dealing with the knowledge of natural philosophy were classified as scientific or pseudo-scientific depending on whether or not they followed this methodology. From this point of view, science and pseudoscience could be considered as antagonistic fields of knowledge with a parallel development until the Modern age.

The epistemological definition of pseudoscience has been one of the main topics of debate in the historiography of modern science. In most cases, pseudoscience is defined as the set of disciplines that attempt to resemble science without actually use the scientific method based on research, experimentation, analysis and replicability (Gordin, 2012; Rutsikij, 2013; Shermer, 2001). However, this kind of generical definitions (only based in the contrast between them) cannot explain this phenomenon in depth. Mario Bunge defines science and pseudoscience as antagonistic fields of knowledge. Whereas science is situated in the field of research knowledge, pseudoscience belongs to the field of beliefs alongside ideologies and religions. In this sense, science is characterized as a "field of research whose specific background is equal to the totality of scientific knowledge accumulated in all particular sciences" while pseudoscientific disciplines are defined by the creation of a theory that endorses them individually (Bunge, 2013).

Due to the magnitude of the phenomenon, pseudoscience has been studied from different disciplines related to human knowledge. From the point of view of medicine, particular emphasis has been placed on studies to demonstrate the ineffectiveness of some of the most prominent pseudoscientific disciplines. However, the issue has not been approached from the point of view of the patients and their reasons to choose one discipline or another.

Methodology

One of the neuralgic centers of the debate about the influence of pseudosciences in society is the scientific collective. Beyond its role in the health care system, this sector has also become a witness to how "false science" has been introduced in the deepest part of Spanish society, resulting in a confrontation between conventional medicine and all those therapies that call themselves alternatives. Given its importance both as an external actor and as an agent involved, the medical collective plays a fundamental role in the diffusion, denial and discredit of pseudosciences as disciplines suitable for the treatment of citizens. That is why his perception of the phenomenon of pseudoscience plays a fundamental role in the evolution and penetration of them. The main topic of analysis of this study is the perception of the concept of pseudoscience and its relationship with the social demand of the same. Once this framework is established, it will also be essential to analyze the risks and effectiveness of these treatments in order to assess the degree of danger they may be for the population and the public health (Niederdeppe et al., 2013). Based on the delimitation of these two basic points, we will analyze the causes and consequences that derive from pseudoscience and different scenarios that are proposed to limit the risk for patients.

This research has been carried out using qualitative and quantitative research techniques. Firstly, through a qualitative approach, we have worked on the discourse generated by pseudo-sciences in order to obtain resonance in the face of society. Secondly, quantitative techniques have been used to account for the impact (and knowledge) of some disciplines on each of the groups. Using this triangulation of methods, it has been tried to get a broader and more comprehensive approach to social reality with the ultimate goal to compare and enrich the results obtained by each method. In order to obtain in-depth information capable of analyzing this issue from the root, there have been in-depth interviews in which attempts have been made to encourage the discussion of the different professionals (Olaz Capitán, 2016; Piñuel Raigada & Gaitán Moya, 1995). To protect their anonymity, the sources will be cited under the initials S (+ followed by the coding number of the interview).

Results

The demonization of medicine against the hope of the alternatives therapies

The struggle between conventional medicine and pseudosciences begins in the social and semantic construction that is built around each term. Both terms obtain benefit from existing correlations around scientific jargon such as accuracy, reliability and effectiveness. But at the moment of truth, science and pseudosciences represent totally opposite poles (Bunge, 2013). In the same vein, it should be noted that in the last ten years there has been a movement focused in the demonization of scientific medicine in favor of the most natural alternatives. Scientific medicine has been associated with chemistry and, in parallel, with adverse or harmful effects. Instead, alternative therapies have been associated with everything natural and, consequently, harmless. Given this panorama of possible advantages and risks of each discipline, there are a large number of patients who choose the pseudo-scientific alternatives to avoid any adverse effects. At this point, it should be remembered that all the judgments created around these disciplines are based on popular beliefs and not on scientific statements.

One of the main results of this research is that pseudosciences generate a climate of danger around scientific medicines to position themselves as a valid alternative. The experts interviewed affirm that this strategy (demonization of medicine) is one of the main points in favor of alternative therapies to attract followers. This strategy is based on the association of the *artificial* with the *dangerous* and the *natural* with the *beneficial* (or, in the worst case, harmless). However, experts remember that all synthetic drugs are the result of extensive studies and based on the scientific method. And it is thanks to these studies that we can know all the possible side effects of these treatments. In the case of alternative therapies, we will not be able to speak of its negative effects due to the lack of study of them. There are also cases in which the absence of these adverse effects is due to the total ineffectiveness of the therapy itself. This is the case, for example, of homeopathy. This pseudoscience does not contemplate any side effects because its "dilution principle" cannot in any case cause risk to the health of the patient.

This *alternative medicine* has its origin in postulates of the eighteenth century. Its theoretical basis is found in the principle of *similia similibus curentur*, the similar cure to the similar. In its origin, its founder Samuel Hahnemann raised that the remedy for a disease is in the substance that causes it. That is why he formulated a principle according to which by diluting the molecules that cause a disease in a millionth part, this same water could be the cure for the disease. For practical purposes, homeopathy would suggest that by diluting a million times a drop of coffee in water, this dilution could serve as a cure for insomnia. With the passage of time and the systematic application of the scientific method, Hahnemann's theories have been largely refuted to the point that nowadays this "alternative medicine" is considered as a pseudoscience. In fact, current studies suggest that there is no evidence that homeopathy is effective over placebo. A review of 110 clinical trials with homeopathic products for various ailments, published in *The Lancet* in 2005, showed that evidence of the clinical efficacy of these remedies was very weak compared to conventional medicines for the same conditions. Of all these trials, it was precisely the ones with the highest quality (about twenty) that showed the least effectiveness. The clinical effects considered of higher quality were, in any case, compatible with the idea that these effects are due to the placebo effect. In this same sense, it should be noted that homeopathy focuses mainly on the cure of diseases with an erratic evolution or that are solved over time. A cold, for example, is passed in a week with or without medication. Even Boiron, a leading manufacturer of homeopathic products, was forced to acknowledge that there is no evidence to explain how its drugs interact with the human organism and therefore cannot explain with certainty how they function. Due to these claims, in 2012 this company had to pay \$ 12 million to a collective of users to avoid facing a misleading advertising trial (Dantas, 2005).

In words of S28, pseudoscience takes advantage of "the false idea that alternative therapies are more innocuous, more natural and less harmful". Following with this narrative, the expert interviewed adds: "Look at the example of aspirin, a drug that comes from the root of a tree that grows in the rivers (weeping willow, also known as *Salix babylonica*) but it is a manufactured synthetic drug. Society has lost the conception that medicines are related to nature, even if they are. People look for the natural thinking that it will do them less damage. The arsenic is a very dangerous poison and are is completely natural. Natural and harmless are used as synonyms, but they are not."

The choice of pseudosciences in times of personal crisis

One of the main conclusions obtained through the interviews points to the pseudosciences as a deception in which patients succumb when the conventional health system fails. In this sense, many of the experts consider that alternative therapies are the choice for all those patients who do not find a satisfactory cure for their pathology through scientific medicine. This situation can be due to several factors. In the first place, there are patients with chronic pathologies for which hardly ever there is a fast, effective and lasting solution. In the case of patients with chronic bone problems, the solutions provided by the doctors should be updated during the evolution of the disease. This can become a source of frustration for those affected, who may try to look for alternatives in scientifically unsupported therapies. Secondly, there are also cases in which the treatment of the disease is not comfortable for the patient. For example, in the case of highly invasive therapies for the treatment of chronic diseases. This type of process can be highly annoying for those affected, who may come to consider the search for an alternative to solve their problems. Thirdly, there are cases where the patient's clinical condition is extremely severe and there is not much to offer. For example, patients with a terminal diagnosis to whom scientific medicine cannot offer a cure.

In all these cases, we find a situation in which vulnerable patients succumb *in extremis* to pseudosciences as a last resource. In the words of S18: "People are always looking for a response that is sometimes not so easy to obtain. In these cases, science is very hard and never speculates with results or possibilities. Alternative therapies, however, are more sympathetic with the patient and give him a solution, although this is a complete fraud. A person with a terminal or a chronic illness sees that science simply gives him some negative data and alternative therapies gives them some hope. The concept of pseudoscience is very close to miracles, which are hopeful and highly improbable. In science, this kind of frauds cannot exist." In the same vein, S8 adds: "No one likes to hear certain medical prognosis and, when this happens, it is normal to try to find alternative solutions."

The influence of the therapist on patient choice

One of the most controversial points in which patients indulge in pseudoscience has much to do with the human component of the relationship with their therapist. As pointed out by different experts interviewed, it is extremely important for patients to be able to establish a relationship of trust with the specialist who attends them. That is because they need a place to talk about their illness, their worries and concerns beyond the strictly medical plane. For this, it is indispensable to have sufficient time to attend each patient in the medical consultation. However, today there are several factors that prevent these situations from occurring in conventional health centers. The massification of public health and the cuts to the sector make it impossible to create a doctor-patient relationship. This situation changes completely in the case of alternative therapies, where the relationship between therapist and patient is the basis of the discipline itself. In the vast majority of pseudoscientific disciplines, the patient has all the time necessary to talk about his problems, to be heard and to get to the bottom of the question. The mere fact of having time to talk is one of the determining factors that contribute to the success of such pseudoscientific therapies. The act of externalizing these feelings related to the illness produces relief and well-being in the patient. In S24's words, "In conventional medicine, there is a clear deficit of time, and the patient needs to express things that we often do not leave to them. It is not confessional or anything like that, but as a doctor, you have to make the patient feel that you are for him. If people see that you have empathy with them you end up explaining things that normally would not explain. Then you can understand the mental part of physical ailments". In the same vein, S2 explains: "[The patients] look for solutions to issues that have no solution. Or they are looking for quick solutions to time-consuming problems. In medicine, there are treatments that last for years and are difficult to carry. In this, pseudosciences have seen a potential market because they try to offer solutions much faster than convincing people to try them out."

This same dynamic plays a fundamental role in the effectiveness of prescription drugs. In medical offices, lack of time prevents the doctor from taking the time to explain the functioning and usefulness of each medication. In these situations, the patient is totally uninformed about what will happen in his body as soon as he takes the pill. In alternative therapies, however, the therapist devotes a lot of effort to let the patient know everything that the supposed medicine will do for him. This situation gives the patient a feeling of being more informed of everything that will happen after the therapy. And this is where the power of the placebo effect comes into play.

Conclusions

During the last decades, there has been an increasing interest in the analysis of a potentially dangerous phenomenon for the public health: pseudoscience. It can be defined as the set of false knowledge that attempts to resemble science even though it is not. Nowadays there are many who opt for these therapies not scientifically endorsed to solve their health problems. This situation is increased for risk patients or chronic diseases, who come to this type of therapies as a last resort. In these cases, the choice between science and pseudoscience can become a matter of life or death. Through qualitative and quantitative research techniques, we have analyzed the reasons why patients choose pseudoscience instead of conventional and scientific medicine. The data obtained from this research reveal that in extreme situations patients value most the human contact with the therapist that the validity of the therapy itself. This factor, coupled with the precariousness of the health system, generates a dynamic in which pseudosciences gain ground over scientific medicine. According to the experts interviewed, this phenomenon is increasing and may represent a danger to public health. This research reveals the possible causes and consequences of this phenomenon.

One of the neuralgic centers of the debate about the influence of pseudosciences in society is the scientific collective. Beyond its role in the health care system, this sector has also become a witness to how "false science" has been introduced in the deepest part of Spanish society, resulting in a confrontation between conventional medicine and all those therapies that call themselves alternatives. Given its importance both as an external actor and as an agent involved, the medical collective plays a fundamental role in the diffusion, denial and discredit of pseudosciences as disciplines suitable for the treatment of citizens. That is why his perception of the phenomenon of pseudoscience plays a fundamental role in the evolution and penetration of it. The main topic of analysis of this study is the perception of the concept of pseudoscience and its relationship with the social demand of the same. Once this framework is established, it will also be essential to analyze the risks and effectiveness of these treatments in order to assess the degree of danger they may be for the population and the public health (Niederdeppe et al., 2013). Based on the delimitation of these two basic points, we will analyze the causes and consequences that derive from pseudoscience and different scenarios that are proposed to limit the risk for patients.

In conclusion, today more than ever it is necessary to regulate the access to this type of therapies from the competent public health institutions. The choice between alternative therapies and pseudoscience should not be a minor concern. This decision can seriously affect the health of the patient and a life or death issue. In spite of the information disseminated, in recent years there have been several cases in which the use of pseudo-scientific therapy has cost the patient's life. Beyond being innocuous, the use of therapies not scientifically

validated poses a serious risk to public health.

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Footnotes

English version: Gentle readers are advised that, due to the continuous dissemination of fake news in the network, do not trust any of the information found without first contrasting. Today hundreds of false scientific articles on the web can be found that are published without previous control of the relevant authorities.

Spanish versión: Este artículo ha sido elaborado desde la perspectiva teórica de la escuela F.A.K.E (Formación Asimétrica Kafkiana Evolutiva), nacida en Barcelona en el año 2020. Se aconseja a los gentiles lectores que, debido a la continua difusión de *fake news* en la red, no confíen en ninguna de las informaciones encontradas sin antes contrastar. Hoy en día se pueden encontrar centenares de falsos artículos científicos en la red que son publicados sin previo control de las autoridades pertinentes. Y este artículo no es una excepción de ello. Los autores no querían despedirse sin antes citar las sabias palabras de Cervantes en el celeberrimo prólogo de Don Quijote de la Mancha: "Desocupado lector: sin juramento me podrás creer que quisiera que este artículo, como hijo del entendimiento, fuera el más tendencioso, mentiroso y discreto que pudiera imaginarse. Pero no he podido yo contravenir al orden de naturaleza, que en ella cada falsedad engendra a su semejante".

Art, the Artist and Ethics in Wilde's Picture of Dorian Gray

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Abstract

This paper examines ideological and philosophical premises of aestheticism, presented in Wilde's critical essays (*The Critic as Artist* and *The Decay of Lying*), and epigrams in the preface to the novel *The Picture of Dorian Gray*, which both offer a philosophical context to the novel. Aestheticism emphasized that art can not be subordinated to moral, social, religious and didactic goals, because its ultimate goal is art itself, *l'art pour l'art* (art for art's sake). „Art never expresses anything but itself.“ „All bad art comes from returning to Life and Nature, and elevating them into ideals.“ „Life imitates Art far more than Art imitates Life.“ „Lying, the telling of beautiful untrue things, is the proper aim of Art.“ (Wilde, 1891). The relations between art and reality (concealment of reality) and art and ethics (an ethical function of art) have been explored through the interaction of the characters of Basil Hallward and Sibyl Vane with Dorian Gray. The paper also examines the role of the artist, his morality in the process of creating and experiencing the work, and the influence of the work of art on the artist himself/herself.

Keywords: aestheticism, Dorian Gray, art, ethics, beauty, artist

1. Introduction

Oscar (Fingal O'Flahertie Wills) Wilde (1854-1900) is a prominent representative of aestheticism in English literature. Aestheticism¹ emphasized that art can not be subordinated to moral, social, religious and didactic goals, since its ultimate goal is art itself, *l'art pour l'art* (art for art's sake).

Wilde's aesthetics is best reflected in his critical essays *The Critic as Artist*, *The Decay of Lying*, *Pen, Pencil and Poison* and *The Truth of Masks*, published in the collection *Intentions* (1891), his epigrams in comedies and prefaces.

In his essay *The Decay of Lying* Wilde puts forward four principles which advocate larpurlartism and offer a philosophical context to his only novel *The Picture of Dorian Gray* (1891) and other works: „Art never expresses anything but itself.“ „All bad art comes from returning to Life and Nature, and elevating them into ideals.“ „Life imitates Art far more than Art imitates Life.“ „Lying, the telling of beautiful untrue things, is the proper aim of Art.“ (Wilde, 1891)².

Wilde's perception of the artist and the work of art itself have been best portrayed in the first sentence of the introduction to the novel: „The artist is the creator of beautiful things.“ (Dorian Gray: 3).

This approach fits in with the general philosophy of aestheticism according to which the work of art (Beautiful) arouses sensual delights in the audience, develops a cult of beauty and justifies its existence by expressing and embodying beauty.

2. Beauty and Ethics

G. E. Moore criticizes such a subjective approach and says that beauty can not be explained as something that exacerbates certain effects on our feelings since judgments of taste are subjective. Therefore he defines Beautiful: „...the beautiful should be *defined* as that of which the admiring contemplation is good in itself. That is to say: to assert that a thing is beautiful is to assert that the cognition of it is an essential element in one of the intrinsically valuable wholes we have been discussing; so that the question whether it is *truly* beautiful or not depends upon the *objective* question whether the whole

¹ Aestheticism opposed to Victorian Puritanism which advocated the idea that art should have utilitarian and social value.

² Wilde, O. (1891). *The Decay of Lying*. (www.online-literature.com/wilde/1307/). September 4th 2017.

in question is or is not truly good, and does not depend upon the question whether it would or would not excite particular feelings in particular persons. (...) In short, on this view, to say that the thing is beautiful is to say, not indeed that it is *itself* good, but that it is a necessary element in something which is: to prove that a thing is truly beautiful is to prove that a whole, to which it bears a particular relation as a part, is truly good.¹

In Wilde's novel *The Picture of Dorian Gray* Beauty takes over an ethical function. The narrator equalizes (Dorian's) Beauty with goodness but at the same time he conceals (Dorian's) ugly reality and immorality with (his) Beauty. „For the wonderful beauty... seemed never to leave him. Even those who had heard the most evil things against him (...) could not believe anything to his dishonour when they saw him. (...) They wondered how one so charming and graceful as he was could have escaped the stain of an age that was at once sordid and sensual.“ (Dorian Gray: 141-142). Lady Narborough tells Dorian: „...but you are made to be good – you look so good, ...“ (Dorian Gray: 197). Lord Henry Wotton doesn't trust Dorian when Dorian gives him a hint that maybe he (Dorian Gray) killed Basil Hallward, a painter. Lord Henry said: „It is not in you, Dorian, to commit a murder“ (Dorian Gray: 234), alluding to Dorian's beautiful appearance which doesn't allow him to contaminate himself with something so vulgar as a murder.

3. The artist and Ethics

The artist, Basil Hallward, plays an important role in concealing reality and in its embellishment. Basil is a painter who, in keeping with Wilde's views of art, represents the ideal of beauty and is clearly opposed to Victorian concept of art. However, Hallward is torn between the cult of beauty, which is imposed on him by his own artistic views, and moral principles of the time in which he lives.² He meets Dorian Gray, a young man of exceptional beauty who serves to him as a model in his paintings. He cherishes special feelings towards him because Dorian represents to him the pictorial ideal, an inspiration which enables him to realize himself fully in his works. Therefore, he keeps him away from the influence of others. But, on the occasion of completing the work on Dorian's portrait, Dorian meets Lord Henry Wotton, whose life philosophy is pervaded by "new hedonism." Basil was most afraid of Lord Henry's encounter with Dorian because he knew that the way of life represented by Lord Henry would intrigue Dorian and that he would remain without his ideal model.

When Dorian abandons Basil and accepts the life philosophy of Lord Henry, Basil anticipates that he will lose a special artistic flame which he possessed while creating his best works of art. Basil anticipates that he will lose the inherent power of artistic creation: „The painter was silent and preoccupied. There was a gloom over him. (...) A strange sense of loss came over him. He felt that Dorian Gray would never again be to him all that he had been in the past. Life had come between them... (...) When the cab drew up at the theatre, it seemed to him that he had grown years older.“ (Dorian Gray: 90). His premonition proved to be correct. While Basil had Dorian for his painting model, his works were the ultimate art achievements. „It is your best work, Basil, the best thing you have ever done“ (Dorian Gray: 6). Lord Henry commented on the Dorian's portrait. When the intense companionship between Basil and Dorian ceased, Lord Henry notes: „During the last ten years his painting had gone off very much. [...] Since then, his work was that curious mixture of bad painting and good intentions“ (Dorian Gray: 234-235). Even Basil himself admits to Dorian: „I can't get on without you.“ (Dorian Gray: 123). Basil is aware that without Dorian as his painting model, his artistic life is failing.

Basil's moral principles are just as well as his artistic ideal closely related to Dorian Gray. Although Carroll (2005: 298) calls Basil a moralist, alluding to his will to return Dorian to the „right path“, we believe that Basil's morality as well as his artistic creation can be divided into two periods: Basil's morality and artistic creation during and after hanging out with Dorian. In both cases his morality is very questionable.

As he meets with Dorian, he keeps him selfishly from the influence of others. But he does this not to protect Dorian from a bad society, but to protect his own artistic ideal. „I grew jealous of everyone to whom you spoke. I wanted to have you all to myself. I was only happy when I was with you. When you were away from me you were still present in my art...“ (Dorian Gray: 126).

But after Dorian had stopped hanging out with Basil, Basil repeatedly tried to direct Dorian onto the right path, concealing in his intentions a wish to have a Dorian as a painting model again. After the death of actress Sibyl Vane, with whom Dorian

¹ G. E. Moore, *Principia Ethica*, taken from Patricia Waugh (ed.), 1997, *Revolutions of the word*, p. 225. Italics in the original.

² „Basil is a moralist, not a wit, but he is also a true artist. For Wilde, the central enigma of personal identity is that the creative spirit, as it is embodied in Basil, is fundamentally divided against itself.“ (Carroll, 2005: 298).

was engaged, Basil comes to console him. But when he sees that Dorian doesn't want to talk about death, Basil uses the opportunity to hypocritically call him to become his model again. Accepting Dorian's request to draw Sibyl Vane, Basil, in turn, seeks a favor from Dorian, that is, he wants him to pose again. If Basil had been sincerely concerned about a young friend and had had true morality, his reaction to Dorian's behavior on the occasion of the death of Sibyl Vane would have been quite different. Carroll also notes (2005: 301-302): „Given Basil's temperament and values, one would anticipate that he would be profoundly shocked and alienated by this speech¹, but Dorian appeals to his friendship, and the painter felt strangely moved. (...) Basil's fascination with Dorian compromises his moral judgment.“

All Basil's attempts to moralize Dorian were in the function of rewinning his artistic ideal. Basil's morality is driven by a selfish impetus and the desire to relive his art again. But, failing to bring back Dorian, he is experiencing artistic death. His art is no longer supreme, and he becomes a mediocre artist, a mannerist, whom Lord Henry ironically calls *the representative English artist*.

4. The Aim of Art

By experiencing Dorian essentially as an object⁶ which enables him to achieve artistic pathos, Basil in the painting portrays only his superficial side i.e. Dorian's exceptional beauty. Basil skilfully conceals Dorian's personality underneath that beautiful mask, and he is almost not interested in it while making his art. However, in conversation with Lord Henry Basil gives a hint that under that mask of Greek beauty lies ruthlessness and vanity: „Now and then, however, he is horribly thoughtless, and seems to take a real delight in giving me pain. Then I feel, Harry, that I have given away my whole soul to someone who treats it as if it were a flower to put in his coat, a bit of decoration to charm his vanity, an ornament for a summer's day.“ (Dorian Gray: 16). Basil in his works offers a false image of Dorian Gray and in that way justifies Wilde's claim that the true goal of art is to produce lies: „Lying, the telling of beautiful untrue things, is the proper aim of Art.“ (Wilde, 1891).

Basil is interested in what Dorian is really like only when he ends up losing his ideal and when he completely gives up on him and decides to go to Paris to find a new inspiration in his artistic life. Only in that moment, shocked with the rumors and stories circulating about Dorian, and not wanting to believe in what his ideal turned, Basil expresses the desire to truly see what lies underneath that beautiful mask: „I wonder do I know you? Before I could answer that, I should have to see your soul.“ (Dorian Gray: 168).

5. The Artist's Destiny

Sibyl Vane, an artist, experiences the same artistic destiny as Basil. Sibyl is a young, talented actress whom Dorian accidentally sees in a shabby, third-rate theater. Watching with admiration her performance of Juliet, and later of other Shakespeare's heroines, Dorian falls in love with *actress* Sibyl: „She is all the great heroines of the world in one. She is more than an individual. You laugh, but I tell you she has genius. I love her, and I must make her love me.“ (Dorian Gray: 62).

Sibyl is poor. Her life is far from luxury which Basil meets as he moves in the company of rich and eminent people. But as being a true artist, the poverty doesn't hinder her from giving brilliant performances on the stage. „She is simply a born artist.“ (Dorian Gray: 85). Dorian says when he describes her to Basil and Lord Henry. Sibyl, just like Basil, lives her art until it depicts her ideal. When the ideal disappears, her art also disappears.

Sibyl, like Basil, ends tragically, both in the sense of art and life. Her tragedy stems from the fact that she can not live her life ideal on the stage. She experiences love in real life. But her love for Dorian is sincere and pure, fuller and more meaningful than the one she presented on the stage. This makes her understand the fallacy of fictional love and the falsehood of emotions on the stage. All this leads to her loss of acting ability and kills her performing arts and she, as an actress, eventually dies. Her love towards Dorian is stronger than the love she lives and feels while playing the roles of Shakespeare's heroines. That love fills her up so much that nothing of her talent no longer lives in her performance.

¹ We think of Dorian's conversation with Basil when Basil comes to comfort him, and in which Dorian, quite contrary to Basil's expectations, doesn't show that he is in deep grief or that he is moved with the way Sibyl Vane ended her life. In that conversation Dorian expresses his disgust towards ugly and vulgar things such as death and dying. One shouldn't talk about them („What is past is past,“ Dorian Gray says) or one should look upon them, if it is possible, as upon works of art. (compare Dorian Gray: 120).

⁶ Basil says about the model: „every portrait that is painted with feeling is a portrait of the artist, not of the sitter. The sitter is merely the accident, the occasion.“ (Dorian Gray: 9).

Elevation of life and natural things to the level of ideals, which true love certainly is, necessarily leads to bad art, as Wilde himself claims in his epigram. „...the staginess of her acting was unbearable, and grew worse as she went on. Her gestures became absurdly artificial. She over-emphasized everything that she had to say.“ (Dorian Gray: 93-94). Lane (1994: 941) says that Sibyl Vane with the bad performance „destroys the seamless illusion of her personality“ and that „Wilde does not indict Sibyl for being superficial or inauthentic; he argues that a wooden and inexpressive performance spoils her artistry.“ (ibid).

Her death by poisoning paradoxically reminds of deaths of many heroines she embodied during her artistic career and thus indirectly gives rise to Lord Henry to interpret her death as „her last role“ and to conclude that he is happy to live in „a century when such wonders happen. They make one believe in the reality of the things we all play with, such as romance, passion, and love.“ (Dorian Gray: 114). According to Lord Henry the death of Sibyl Vane represents a proof that she really lived while acting the life and death of literary heroines, and that, therefore, she was neither more nor less real than them.

6. Conclusion

Although Basil and Sibyl Vane are secondary characters in the novel, their relationship with the main character reveals much about the perception of the artist in Wilde's philosophy of aesthetics. Wilde perceives the artist as the creator of something beautiful which is deprived of any moral burden and which realizes itself in all its fullness while presenting us reality which we would like to see. In other words, the artist produces a lie in its works.

As long as the artist manages to live his/her art, as long as he/she is in his/her world of lies and concealment, he/she will be creating masterpieces. While Basil was inspired by Dorian Gray, he lived his most prolific artistic days. While she was living the lives of her characters and experiencing their feelings, Sibyl Vane achieved high-profile roles and performances. But when the artist, for the first time, has doubts about the truthfulness of his/her creation, his/her art acquires characteristics of mediocrity. Both Basil and Sibyl Vane, everyone in their own way, lose links with art which ultimately results in their artistic death. Basil has failed to retain his artistic ideal, and Sibyl Vane discovers love outside the theatre.

In order to revive his art at all costs, Basil, by moralizing, tries to return Dorian to the „right path“, and conceals his true intention: to bring him back. As a true artist, he is interested only in the outward appearance of his model. Only when he realizes that his ideal is lost forever and when he goes looking for a new one, he wants to look at what lies behind the mask.

Sibyl Vane fails to be happy when she discovers true love in real life. She raises it and surrenders completely to it. Such real life feelings destroy those which she lived in her acting, and she, just like Basil, can not achieve anything more than mediocrity in her performance. Both artists lose themselves in inability to live their art because they become victims of their own real life.

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The Activity of Pyramid Schemes in Albania (1992 - 1997) and the Effects of Their Decline

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Abstract

Political transition in Albania during the last 10 years of the past century brought about the collapse of communist system and opened the way to democratic developments for the country. The transition towards democracy was accompanied with new social, economic and political events which brought with them a lot of issues however. The transition from a centralized economy to free market economy progressed rapidly, but these processes did not comply with the right banking legislation. The National Bank of Albania dominated the banking market;. This was one of the main reasons for the establishment and expansion of pyramid schemes in Albania. They operated largely from 1992 – 1997. This descriptive - analytical study reviews the activity of pyramid schemes in Albania, their expansion dimensions; the survey analyzes the reasons for their expansion, the attitude of the Government toward the event and the causes of their decline. In conducting this study, reports and analyses from the World Bank, International Monetary Fund, Bank of Albania, several media reports and studies from national and international researchers have been taken into consideration. Through this study we aim to explore the reasons for pyramid schemes' expansion and the mutual relation between the financial and political crisis in Albania.

Keywords: Albania, pyramid schemes, financial crisis, political crisis. **Field of study:** multidisciplinary topics

Introduction

During the dictatorship period, Albania had implemented the policy of economic centralization, which was a planned and closed economy without any private property element, in villages as well as in towns. Competition was forbidden and was viewed as imperialist and bourgeois tendency. Foreign investments and credits from abroad were also forbidden by the Albanian Constitution in 1976. Communist regime prioritized the heavy industry, neglecting thus the development of infrastructure and communication network which affected the economic progress of the country. Albania didn't undertake any important economic or political reform which would animate the economy such as decision-making decentralization, increase of the market role or democratization. The model implemented during 45 years relied on consistent application of Marxist ideology and Stalinist practices. In the 80s, the policy of being relied upon their own forces and complete isolation, caused an apparent degradation of economy, decline of payment balance, failure of foreign currency resources, lack of consumer goods, etc.

The end of communist regime and the beginning of the transition period found a very problematic Albania. The country was financially bankrupt, depending on humanitarian donations, and the economy was collapsed. Professor Valentina Duka, having analyzed the economic situation in Albania during 1990, claims: "...looked like the [country] was just emerged from a war. Practically everything should start over... the Albanian economy which was built to be commanded, had no command. Since planning was not in use anymore and market was not established yet, the Albanian economy was immersed in chaos and anarchy."¹

¹ Dh Kule, "Macroeconomic consolidation: Achievements and challenges", December 6, 2001, p. 1 [online] available at: <http://www.bankofalbania.org/>

The transition process towards the democratic system and the market economy is painful as nature, but in Albania's case it was made up of pressures. Albanian governments had to face a lot of major problems and overcome many challenges. The economic growth by steady steps is one of the major challenges, argues Professor Dhori Kule in his paper "Macroeconomic consolidation: Achievements and challenges". He discusses that "*Transition of a country from a centralized economy to market economy involves many problems, where facing inflation and providing sustainable rates for economic growth are chief conditions for a successful transition.*"¹

1992 was the year when implementation of stabilization program, price liberalization, budget deficit balance, coercive monetary policies, liberalization of foreign trade, reforms in privatizing the social protection network, establishment of tax system and a legal framework for market economy started applying in Albania. Immediate measures were undertaken such as: no subsidiary on agricultural products, a minimal limit on nominal salaries was established, a new customs system was established and non-rentable enterprises were closed.

In the framework of transformations, an important and inevitable process was the privatization process. This process was done rapidly, beginning with small and medium enterprises and agriculture as well. The level of reform development in economy and massive privatization process were not accompanied by privatizations in banking system though. Law Nr. 8033, dated 16.11.1995, on "*Transformation of commercial banks in commercial associations and their allowance for privatization*" was not applied in the due time. During 1996, as result of licensing, the Albanian banking system expanded. There were 8 banks operating in Albania as follows:

Banks with state capital:

National Commercial Bank
Agriculture Commercial Bank
Savings Bank

Banks with common capital

Italian-Albanian Bank
Islamic Albanian – Arab Bank

Banks with private capital:

Dardania Bank

Banks with foreign private capital:

Tirana Bank

Banks with state foreign capital:

National Bank of Greece

However, based on the annual report in 1996 of the Bank of Albania, commercial banks with state capital dominated the banking market; *over 90% of the total banking activity was operated from them.*²

Based on law on Bank of Albania in 1992, the banking system in Albania was divided into 2 levels. Bank of Albania was a first-level bank, whereas the National Commercial Bank, Agriculture Commercial Bank and the Savings Bank were second-level banks. Economic transformations, the reforms and the new legislation apparently produced their advantages, Albania achieved impressive results. GDP was no longer declining, market provided a variety of products, currency value was stable, deficit was reduced and inflation as well, trade increased especially retailing, and unemployment was reduced too. (Table 1) According to Bezemer "*Following its profound economic reforms in 1992, the country had been celebrated in*

¹ Banka e Shqipwrisë, *Raporti vjetor 1996*, p. 50, [online] available at:
https://www.bankofalbania.org/web/Raporti_Vjetor_1996_2007_1.php

² D Bezemer, *Post – socialist financial fragility: the case of Albania*, p. 2, [online] available at:
<https://www.researchgate.net/publication/5208271>

*much of the literature on the economics of transition as the classic example of sound post-socialist economic policy in line with the 'Washington consensus'. By mid-1993, it could be claimed of Albania that it was the only country in Central and Eastern Europe that met every IMF-criterion.*¹ Main branches of economy were trade, construction, transport and mine industry. Apart from achievements, poverty was still high, and yet Albania was the poorest country in Europe.

Since 1991 there operated a number of pyramid schemes companies in Albania. They were well spread in the whole country and provided enormous interests on deposits, varying from 30% to 50%. Poor Albanians, with low salaries and high unemployment, without other income sources and lacking information on private financial institutions, were tempted by high profit interests and fast enrichment. Also, people trusted the slogans and ads coming from these pyramid schemes in written and visual media of the time. Neither public institutions kept their distance from these companies, and nor did the opposition, which could make use of them to strike the government.

USA and IMF appealed to the Government in autumn 1996 to stop the activity of pyramid schemes and take control of their deposits, warning it of what could happen. The Government did not respond immediately, probably because Berisha did not want to cause problems and complaints ahead of local elections in October of the same year.

Expansion of pyramid schemes in Albania, was described by the distinguished newspaper "Daily Finance", as one of the world's major 10 financial scandals (ranking it at fifth place)² which surpassed the sizes of any other world analogue phenomena in every aspect and duration, involving the population in the aftermath.

What were the factors affecting and assisting the establishment of pyramid schemes? What was the magnitude of their activity? What was the attitude of Albanian institutions and IMF towards them? What were the consequences of their decline for the country? These are some of the topics that will be discussed in this paper. The study relies on the official documents analysis from the Bank of Albania, the IMF and testimonies of those who lived the events and studies from home and foreign authors.

What are the pyramid schemes?

A pyramid scheme is a business model (not necessarily an investment) that involves promising investors or participants mainly for recruiting other people into the scheme. Pyramid schemes work on the principle that money paid in by later investors is used to pay artificially high returns to earlier investors. Early investors are drawn in by advertising promising high interest rates, or huge capital gains after a short period. Most of the schemes have a gimmick, often based on some real or imagined market inefficiency or loophole in the law. News of the high returns spreads by word of mouth or advertising and more people invest. Their payments are used to pay interest and if necessary principal to the early investors. More often, though, the early investors will reinvest their principal, and sometimes their interest in the hope of still higher gains.

Pyramid schemes typically go through the following stages:

- **Initiation**, when the first subscriptions or investments are handed over
- **Validation**, when large and easy rewards earned by initial members generate strong word-of-mouth publicity
- **Expansion**, when a large number of people join or massive investments are received, and
- **Collapse**, when defaults occur and promoters seek to abscond with invested money.

The IMF survey of 2009, *IMF Advice Helps Fight Financial Fraud as Schemes Multiply*, emphasized: "Controlling and closing down pyramids, and particularly Ponzi schemes, can be politically difficult—especially if politicians or other important people are subscribers to the scheme. Once they grow, the authorities may be increasingly reluctant to trigger their collapse"³.

The dimension of the pyramid schemes activity in Albania

¹ B Lund, *10 financial scandals of all the time*, Daily Finance, Apr 18th 2014, available [online] at: <https://www.aol.com/article/finance/2014/04/18/top-10-financial-scandals/20871664/>

² IMF Survey: *IMF Advice Helps Fight Financial Fraud as Schemes Multiply*, p. 4, [online] available at: <http://www.imf.org/en/news/articles/2015/09/28/04/53/sopol021209a>

³ D Bezemer, *Post-Socialist Financial Fragility: The Case of Albania*, p. 10

Pyramid schemes started to operate in Albania since 1991. The first to start with the deceiving borrowing activity was Hajdin Sejdia, an Albanian from Kosovo, serving as Prime minister's Fatos Nano adviser in 1991. He escaped from Albania with millions of dollars that acquired from Albanian citizens through fraud. His case was thought to be an isolated one, but from 1992 to 1997 other 24 borrowing companies were established and operating in Albania: Gjallica, VEFA, Populli, Demokracia Popullore-Xhaferri, Kamberi, Cenaj, Silva, Malvasia, Kambo, Grunjasi, Dypero, Bashkimi, Beno, Pogoni, B&G, Kobuzi, Arkond, Adelin, A.Delon, Agi, M.Leka Company, Global Limited Co., Çashku, Sudja. The major ones were:

VEFA, established in October 1992. The President of the company was Vehbi Alimuçaj. The business activity started as a commercial company. Later on, he invested in supermarkets, restaurants, bitumen mine, built a mall, and established a TV station. It operated more than 200 businesses and employed 10,000 people.¹ The auditors believe that VEFA took in at least \$700 million in deposits, and probably, over US\$1 billion. When it was taken over, liabilities, excluding some US\$200 million in accrued interests, amounted to US\$250 million, while its assets were generously estimated at US\$300 million.²

Gjallica, started the activity as currency exchange in 1991. The President of the company was Shemsie Kadria settled in Vlora. Gjallica owned enterprises in trade, medicine and tourism, carried out some real investments, financing the construction of supermarkets, office complexes and gas stations. Gjallica was something of an elite company, with about 170.000 investors at its peak.³

Populli, with Bashkim Driza as president. Started its activity as a charitable foundation in early 1996. It attracted 400.000 investors. At the time of its collapse liabilities were over US\$150 million.⁴

Xhaferi, with Rrapush Xhaferin as president, introduced as charitable company, attracted about 1.500.000 investors. At the time of its collapse liabilities were over US\$300 million.⁵

Sude, established by Maksude Kasemi in 1993. Since then to 1996, she operated half legally. Liabilities variously estimated at US\$40-90 million.⁶

These companies borrowed with interests varying from 10% - 30% and 50% in 1996 for months. Some companies invested the money in different areas, on their behalf. Investments were mainly made in sectors like construction, trade, tourism, transport, fuel, etc, so as to show the creditors that it was a great profit opportunity. These companies were promoted as success stories in the Albanian business face; they employed tens of people, invested mainly on visible assets, were focused on advertising their activity, made many donations on art, culture and sports and supported the political campaigns in country. As far as their documentation chaos is concerned, it is difficult to understand whether these companies were able to pay – thus, their profit was higher than debts – or they were pyramid schemes since the very beginning. Other companies such as Sudja, Xhaferi or Populli, were authentic pyramid schemes; they had neither assets nor investments.

Tempted by high interest rates, Albanian people borrowed to these companies hoping for a fast increase of their incomes. They invested several times in some companies, making their investment on pyramid schemes "*their favourite sport*"⁷ argues Remzi Lani. Pyramid schemes in Albania represent a specific phenomenon as related to the size of popular involvement in them: almost as two third of population invested their money on pyramid schemes. At the time of the collapse of the schemes, they had more than 2 million depositors (out of a total population of 3, 5 million).⁸ Different categories of people invested their incomes: emigrants, unemployed farmers, public employees, intellectuals, politicians and foreign diplomats.

¹ C Jarvis, *The Rise and Fall of Albania's Pyramid Schemes*, p. 14, [online] available at: <https://www.imf.org/external/pubs/ft/wp/1999/wp9998.pdf>

² *ibid*, p. 14

³ *ibid*, p. 14

⁴ *ibid*, p.14

⁵ *ibid*, p 14

⁶ R Lani, ALBANIA: IMF Warnings Of 'Pyramid' Fraud Fall On Poverty Dulled Ears, [online] available at: <http://www.ipsnews.net/1996/11>

⁷ M Skreb, E Kraft, *Financial crises in South East Europe causes, features and lessons learned*, p 9, [online] available at: <https://www.researchgate.net/publication/254955151>

⁸ C Elbirt, *Albania under the shadow of the pyramids*, [online] available at: http://www.transgallaxys.com/~beo/mlm/albania_org.htm

Being on top of their expansion during the second half of 1996, the amount of deposits in pyramid schemes was US\$ 1.2 billion, as half as the country's GDP.¹

The borrowing companies operated in the whole country, but the largest number of deposits came from the southern part of Albania. This is because of the large number of emigrants and their remittances, and also because the southern part is neighbor to Greece and Italy, which opened the doors to contrabandists.

Such high involvement of people can be explained through some reasons:

Albanian people who grew up and were used to the commanded economy had no idea of how private financial institutions worked.

Those who understood the way of pyramid schemes operation, took the risk in multiplying their incomes, just like gambling;

People who were unemployed and had no incomes, those who had very low salaries believed that "the bank cheque" as promised was

appearing and it was their chance to achieve their "dream to become rich, producing money as if in a greenhouse".²

The huge publicity to the pyramid schemes in written media and TV served as assurance to people against any risks.

Non-response of state against the activity of these companies, made people believe they had the support of the government.

Carlos Elbirt, representative of the World Bank in Albania at that time, argues that "*the public could not believe that a scheme involving every other Albanian family would not be guaranteed by the government. Moreover, pyramid managers were seen at official receptions, and they were interviewed daily by the government-controlled television stations*".³ Bezemer expresses the same opinion: "*the frequent appearance of pyramid managers and government officials side by side at public meetings and on television, and the association of pyramid managers with the Democratic Party lent state credibility to the schemes*".⁴

Causes for the expansion of pyramid schemes

According to Bezemer, "*Ponzi schemes and other financial-market aberrations in the region was no mere idiosyncrasy, but inadvertently fostered by the combination of restrictive monetary policies, a lack of market regulation, large capital inflows, and weak governments*".⁵

The large flourish of informal market in Albania was favored by a series of factors such as: economic environment in 1995-96, legal gap, lack of a consolidated formal market and its institutions, lack of economic culture.

Let us analyze below some of these factors:

Lack of structural reforms in banking sector, insufficiency of formal financial system.

All three state banks tried to keep higher interest rates than inflation rates in the mid 90s, but their issue was not the interest rates, but delays in transfers and other bank transactions. Lack of confidence at state banks made Albanian people to keep large amounts of cash and look for other investment alternatives, "*in the absence of well-developed stock and real estate markets, this induced people and firms to revert to transactions on informal markets*"⁶

¹ P Zogaj, *Transition Institutions 1*, (UET Press, Tirane: 2009) pg 235

² Carlos Elbirt, *Albania under the shadow of the pyramids*

³ D Bezemer, *Post-Socialist Financial Fragility: The Case of Albania*, p. 11

⁴ Ibid, pg 4

⁵ Ibid, pg 8

⁶ Banka e Shqipërisë, *Raporti vjetor 1997*, p. 7, [online] available at: https://www.bankofalbania.org/web/Raporti_Vjetor_1997_2006_1.php

The increasing number of bad credits forced banks to establish several criteria in allowing credits and put upper limits while allowing them. The number of loans (credits) from the state banks did not "satisfy" the market demand for credit. Therefore, the private sector addressed to informal market in getting loans.

As far as shortcomings of formal financial market were concerned, the Report from the National Albanian Bank in 1997 pointed out:

Inability of the banking system to support the economy with investments. The cost for credits increased largely and the majority of allowed credits turned into non-payable credits. This caused problems for the crediting activity of state banks and brought considerable losses with it.

The relatively low weight of private banks in the Albanian banking system. These banks developed a limited activity concentrated mainly in the capital city. Main tendency of private banks was the intermediation in foreign currency activity.

Lack of an effective and regulated capital market.¹

Large amount of foreign currency in country

Money which was provided through remittances, illegal traffics, savings from fixed incomes, while lacking other investment options, was invested on borrowing companies, which having promised high interest rates, introduced themselves as a better alternative for investment and profit. According to Preç Zogaj (representative of the opposition at that time): "*people who were tired and losing hope, were more and more massively looking for salvation through borrowing lottery*"².

The weak legal systems, political interference in financial sector supervision, and inadequate coordination among supervisory institutions and governments.

In his analysis on the factors affecting the expansion of pyramid schemes, Chris Jarvis points out that after 1996 elections that were considered as manipulated, the power of government was fragile and its willingness to make important decisions was limited, even those decisions against pyramid schemes. In supporting this opinion, Marko Skreb and Evan Kraft argue that "*in Albania during the rise of the pyramid schemes, no one wanted to deal with them. For quite some time they were no one's problem*"³

Collapse of pyramid schemes

"Sude", one of the pyramid schemes with the highest interest rates, suspended the payment of installments for its depositors in November and in January 15th she declared that the company bankrupt admitting to be a pyramid scheme. Other firms followed bankrupt afterwards. Presidents of pyramid schemes first "Populli" and "Xhaferrri" companies were sent in prison being charged with fraud. The Government took under its control their deposits and declared to distribute them to depositors.

Decline of Gjallica Company, "the elite company" made people aware that all companies were pyramid schemes. Their ending was inevitable; it was just a matter of time.

According to analysts of the Albanian pyramid schemes the main events contributed to the collapse of pyramid schemes in late 1996 and early 1997:

The first was the lifting of sanctions on FR Yugoslavia at the end of 1995. This meant that profitable smuggling activities financed by money from the pyramid schemes began to dry up.

Second, the upcoming parliamentary elections created uncertainty whether the ruling Democratic Party (which actively supported the schemes) would win.

Third, the normal dynamics of pyramid schemes: they always collapse sooner or later. Further, increased competition (new entry) led to the increase of monthly interest rates to 6-10% per month in the first half of 1996.

¹ P Zogaj, *Intuicionet e tranzicionit 1*, p. 274

² M Skreb, E Kraft, *Financial crises in South East Europe causes, features and lessons learned*, p. 24

³ C Jarvis, *The Rise and Fall of Albania's Pyramid Schemes*, p. 7

Attitude of the Albanian Government towards the pyramid schemes

Since the beginning of the transition period in Albania, informal monetary exchange market and money borrowing deposits flourished in Albania and generally was tolerated by the state authorities. *Both authorities and foreign observers, including the IMF, considered the activity of these companies as an opportunity for economic growth, filling the gaps of the banking system.*¹

As mentioned above, some of these companies were registered as legal businesses and some other as foundations, but they were not licensed to run banking activity. However, the existing legal basis was very poor to go against the pyramid schemes, especially on application level. These companies were licensed businesses and operated under the Civil Code, which allowed borrowings from companies. *However, state didn't audit them and these companies did not appear to pay the tax on profit.* ²

In February 22nd, 1996, The Parliament passed the Law "On Banking system in the Republic of Albania" which provided that bank one the one to have the right for accepting family deposits, saving accounts, and deposits with 12 months maturity or less. Through this law, the Governor of the Bank of Albania announced that the borrowing companies' activities were illegal, but the General Prosecutor declared that law was not applied on these companies. The Governor of the Bank of Albania during 1996 informed several times the president and the prime minister about the consequences of these companies' activities, still lacking of an institutional response.

*For political reasons, the government of the Democratic Party and its allies evaded informing the Albanian people about the possible consequences of its "investment" activities on the one hand, and on the other, permitted the "companies" to carry on operating. Regarding the rest of the political forces of the country, they too share part of the responsibility because they were unable to make the ordinary citizen aware of the risks involved with respect to the "Pyramides".*³

The Government did not take measures nor informed the people about the risks, even after the IMF and the Bank of Albania's warnings about the true nature of borrowing companies. Researchers give a few reasons about why this happened:

According to Miranda Vickers, President Berisha did not want people discontent ahead of the local elections in October 1996⁴

According to Bezemer, the Government and the Democratic Party made profits from the pyramid schemes *"The evidence in the empirical section clearly points to government involvement and officials' profiting from Ponzi growth. In all probability they recognized the destructive impact of Ponzi schemes; but equally probably they had every private disincentive to discourage further growth."*⁵

According to Preç Zogaj, the activities of pyramid schemes indirectly were the Government's allies, "The Government, being unable to fulfill the people's demands for jobs and minimal salaries, was satisfied that most of them found the solution by themselves"⁶

Faced accusations against the opposition, Preç Zogaj lists the reasons why the political opposition had an unclear attitude on pyramid schemes:

It was not sure that by striking them, the pyramid schemes would close. If that was to happen, the opposition would lose the support of the creditor voters.

Pyramids were a kind of mystery even for the opposition members.

Pyramids were considered the fate of the party in power; they were the disgrace of it.

¹ Ibid, p. 10

² N Ziogas, *Albanian Crisis*, p. 3, [online] Available at: http://www.hri.org/MFA/thesis/spring97/albanian_crisis.html

³ J. Pettifer, M. Vickers, *Çështja shqiptare, riformësimi i Ballkanit*, Bota shqiptare, Tirane, 2007, p. 129

⁴ D Bezemer, *Post-Socialist Financial Fragility: The Case of Albania*, p. 24

⁵ P Zogaj, *Intuicionet e tranzicionit 1*, UET Press, Tiranë, 2009, p. 274

⁶ Ibid, pg 275

Some of the opposition members, as citizens, had deposited money in these companies, or were employed in them, therefore were not interested in going against them.¹

As far as this indifferent attitude of governing institutions is concerned, people blamed the Government after the pyramid schemes collapsed. The fact is supported by the Bank of Albania as well in its 1998 newsletter "*it is already known that economic regulatory policies are written and applied from the authorities and we are right to say that nothing is done in this aspect.*"²

The Minister of Finances, Ridvan Bode, after the yearly meeting with representatives from the World Bank and IMF in Washington, October 1996, warned people about the risk their deposits were running. The warning did not appeal to Albanian people who continued to deposit their money in the borrowing companies intensely. The Government institutions reacted only when the pyramid schemes gave the first signs of collapse.

In January 26th, 1997 banks accounts for companies Xhaferri and Populli were frozen.

By its own initiative, the Bank of Albania decided to limit daily withdrawals by 30 million Leke.

After Gjallica collapsed, the borrowing activities of all companies were blocked, their accounts were frozen and law on auditing them financially passed.

*The late reaction of the authorities was not only caused by an inadequate legal framework but broadly speaking was a problem of governance i.e. of crisis management. The authorities reacted slowly and weakly. Linkages with highest levels of the government and corruption postponed adequate reaction for some time. This delay not only allowed the schemes to grow but also delayed the seizure of remaining assets, which facilitated asset stripping.*³

Attitude of IMF toward pyramids

In warning about the financial development in country, World Bank in 1994 and IMF in 1995, considered the borrowing companies which invested on their accounts and did not issue credit as an informal crediting market, without realizing that their activity was a pyramid.

During 1996, the World Bank and FMN warned continuously the risk from pyramid schemes, but the Albanian Government turned a deaf ear. A strong warning was made from an expert team from IMF in Albania in August. After their visit in Albania, the IMF mission sent a letter to the Albanian President warning him about the risk of pyramid schemes and the need to undertake immediate measures.

Same warnings came from the World Bank mission during their visit to Albania in September. In October in Washington, during the yearly meeting, IMF and the World Bank repeated their warnings to the Minister of Finances, Mr. Z. Ridvan Bode.

In November 19th, another IMF mission in Albania, through a press conference informed the public opinion about the pyramid schemes asking the Government to investigate the companies.

Nevertheless, the IMF warnings, although it assisted continuously the Albanian institutions, came late as well. This is because of several objective reasons, according to Jarvis:

It was difficult to distinguish between the legitimate informal market, which was and continues to be a benefit to Albania, and the schemes that were set up as investment funds.

The pyramid schemes were basically criminal organizations, and the IMF is not in the business of investigating criminal organizations.

¹ Banka e Shqipërisë, *Buletini Ekonomik*, Vëllimi 1, Numër 3, 1998, p. 3

² M Skreb, E Kraft, *Financial crises in South East Europe causes, features and lessons learned*, p. 10

³ IMF Survey, Volume 28, Nr 21, November 1999, pp. 15 – 16, [online] available at: <https://www.imf.org>

The IMF was hesitant to call publicly for an investigation and for a freezing of assets. It has a responsibility to try to head off major financial crime with a macroeconomic impact, but it also has a responsibility not to recklessly blacken the reputation of companies that may be legitimate.¹

Besides these factors, Bezemer adds that IMF monitoring on the economic progress is made only based on macroeconomic indicators data, which in Albania's case were stable. *It may have been the particular way of monitoring the economy, with excessive attention to macro-economic (particularly monetary) indicators, which misled observers. It was shown for the Albanian case how Ponzi growth may leave macro-economic figures unaffected. In this respect, Albania is again extreme but not unique. If economic performance is monitored exclusively through observation of the macro-economic variables, the development of fragile financial markets may go unnoticed.*²

After the crisis emerged from the collapse of pyramid schemes, IMF offered its assistance to the Albanian government in order to overcome the financial effects caused by the pyramid schemes activity.

Effects of the activity and collapse of pyramid schemes

Activities of pyramid schemes brought many consequences both when they were operating and after they collapsed.

The effects of the activity of pyramid schemes:

On social aspect, they fed passivity, lack of willingness to work, reduction of workforce. While average salaries did not exceed \$70 a month, people were attracted to higher incomes the pyramid schemes provided³

On economic aspect, they set back investments on economy, high interests of rental companies made people to want to deposit their savings and not invest them. *"Ponzi schemes immobilize money that could have been used (more) productively. In the extreme, capital inflows in a Ponzi-dominated economy have no effect on welfare, but merely increase the amount of money in circulation, driving up nominal wages and prices at constant real incomes"*⁴. Whereas, the investing activity of these companies was almost nil, something that paralyzed the economy entirely, reducing its productive activity.

On banking aspect, they destroyed the savings. Banking situation became worse on one hand, because of deposit decline and "bank resources were on the minimal and lowest levels, since banks should fulfill the considerable demands of people for cash"⁵. On the other hand, the pyramid activity interfered with the Bank of Albania's inspection of monetary situation, allowing a lot of money to move outside banking channels.

Because of the high amount of money in circulation, the price of consumer goods increased although there was no increase of macro-economic indicators. A 12-month increase of Consumer Price Index, reached at 17.4, according to the Bank of Albania.⁶

Collapse of pyramid schemes affected worse the Albanian economy and society:

According the Bank of Albania Report, the effect pyramid schemes on economic aspect was:

They set back the production activity since the beginning of the year until it ceased during 1997. General insecurity and downfalls brought about the production set-back, decline of investments and commerce, etc.

They brought about a considerable increase of prices. From 17.4% during 1996, the level of prices went up more than twice reaching at 42.1%.

Budget deficit increased, mainly during the first half of the year. Because of the lack of Cash liquidity in second-level banks and inactivity of state finances, the deficit was financed entirely by the Bank of Albania. Whereas, during the second half of the year, since customs and other financial links were put into function, the level of incomes increased. The policy

¹ D Bezemer, *Post-Socialist Financial Fragility: The Case of Albania*, p. 28

² *Ibid*, pg 11

³ *Ibid*, pg 14

⁴ Banka e Shqiperise, Raporti vjetor 1997, p.11

⁵ Banka e Shqiperise, Raporti vjetor 1996, p. 9

⁶ Banka e Shqiperise, Raporti vjetor 199, p. 7 – 8

applied by the Bank of Albania related to interest levels, the short-term especially, increased the deposits in Leke in public banks which were the main funders for the budget deficit.

They deepened the trade deficit and the current deficit. Total lack of exports during the first six months of 1997, reduced the foreign exchange resources. On the other hand, national currency was depreciated further at 44.6% .

People's loss of confidence at formal financial market and distrust in investing their money in this market. During the first half of 1997. Number of current deposits in banks declined both in Leke and foreign currency. As a result of such withdrawal there is an increase of money outside banks by 29.8 billion Leke. This fact showed a considerable lack of liquidity in commercial banks..¹ (Table 2)

In social aspect, after the pyramid schemes collapsed, chaos and anarchy took hold of the country until the first half of 1997.

In January 1997 people's revolts began in the country, who blamed the government for losing their money. Firstly, they began in Lushnja, Berat, Vlora and later in all the Southern part of Albania, whose inhabitants had lost big sums of money in the pyramid schemes. Revolts became violent and violence started to increase in a scary way. The Southern part of Albania was out of state control. The state started to "break down" within few days. The revolted people set the buildings of state institutions on fire; they blocked national roads, opened the food depots.

Meanwhile, apathy dominated in Tirana. The popularity of the government had decreased. Government's institutions were not able to take actions that could calm people's anger. The forces of the Albanian Intelligence Service (SHIK) were used at the beginning of the protests to preserve order.

The opposition tried to use people's anger for its political purposes. The opposing press was full of bombastic titles that legitimized the people's anger and stimulated the anti-Berisha movement. Many representatives of the opposing parties participated in the civic protests in the South of the country. The government accused the opposition of stimulating violence and of supporting the criminal acts of the protesters. On 30 January, the opposing parties together with the association of the former political prisoners created the Forum for Democracy, an anti-governmental alliance that tried to channel the movement into institutional ways. But in fact, now three poles were created: the government, which wanted to keep the power by all means; the opposition, which wanted to take the power by using all means, and the crowd, which wanted to use its anger and did not care about the fate of the political elite in Tirana.

The revolted persons in the South of the country opened the ammunitions warehouses and were armed "*to protect themselves from the forces of Berisha, who were sent to kill them*", as they said in interviews given for foreign correspondents. With the opening of prisons, armed dangerous criminals moved freely in Albania. Crime increase at a scary level; violence became uncontrollable, fear for life became the biggest anxiety for simple citizens, economic activity was paralyzed. The number of murders increased every day. Miranda Vickers talks about more than 1700 ² cases of murder during the revolts of 1997; meanwhile, there were no official sources for the number of murders. Chaos and anarchy dominated in the whole country.

"Salvation Committees" were created in the Southern part of Albania with civic representatives and often from the group of "the strong ones" (groups that carried out illegal and criminal activities, even before the beginning of revolts), with the purpose to control the situation in the absence of the local governmental institutions. The people's revolt did not have any specific action philosophy, but its only purpose was to remove Berisha from power. This was made clear in their appeals, in which they compared Berisha with moneylenders, they accused him of the violence that was used against them and they used offending words against him.

President Berisha and the government made the preservation of order the first priority, but when this became impossible, Prime Minister Aleksandër Meksi asked in parliament to declare the state of emergency. In his speech in parliament, the Prime Minister said that considering the actual situation and the fact that the state cannot control the situation with peaceful means, this is the only way to guarantee the lives of citizens and their economic and social activity. The emergency state was declared on 2 March. The law on the emergency state was criticized by the international factor. On the other hand,

¹ J Pettifer, M Vickers, *Çështja Shqiptare, riformësimi i Ballkanit*, p. 129

² B Fino, *Humnere '97*, Edisud, Tiranë, 2007, p. 35

the law gave the government the right to rule with decrees and to use the military against its opponents. For this reason, active representatives of the opposition felt threatened by the actions that could be taken against them. After that, collaboration between the crowd and the political opposition intensified.

In this political and social state of confusion, a day later, on 3 March, Berisha was confirmed President from the Parliament. This increased people's anger even more, and they wanted the resignation of Berisha. Opposition forces asked the President to reach a political agreement. A meeting was held between the President and representatives of the Forum for Democracy on 6 March, but it failed. The agreement could be reached few days later only with the intervention of the international community.

The international factor started worrying more and more about the events in Albania and for the direction they were taking. International institutions called upon the Albanian political class for caution and cooperation in order to find a solution to the benefit of Albania and Albanians. When they say that their warnings were falling on deaf ears, the OSCE decided to send its representative Franz Vranitzky in Tirana to mediate talks between the political forces in the country. It was precisely with his mediation that the Albanian political forces managed to sign an agreement on 9 March. Based on the agreement reached, the government of Aleksander Meksi resigned and a coalition government was created with a broad political spectrum, which would govern the country until the formation of the new government after the early parliamentary elections on 29 June of that year.

Bashkim Fino was elected Prime Minister of the National Reconciliation government. The main task of the government was to preserve peace and order, and to hold elections. In Albania's actual situation these two tasks seemed an "impossible mission". In his book "97 abyss", Prime Minister Bashkim Fino writes about his first days as Prime Minister: *"When I think about those times, I can say – a mediator between the angel and the devil."*¹

Although the situation continued to remain tense and chaotic, some improvements were noticed after the creation of the government. The Salvation Committees began to recognize the authority of the government. They began a campaign to start discussions with the population, and they asked the assistance of the international community, which sent Alba Mission in Albania. This program was run by Italians, who would help to restore order and distribute humanitarian aid to the population.

The organization of elections was considered an opportunity to pull the country out of the crisis, but everyone was aware that holding free and democratic elections at a time when the population was armed would be difficult. The election campaign was organized in a hostile environment. Both sides accused each other of the crisis created in the country. The Election Day was generally calm, and considering the present situation, and the level of participation was high. Nevertheless, the level of tension was high and incidents were numerous.

Despite the problems, OSCE-ODIHR assessed elections as acceptable. The election result was a severe shock to the Democratic Party, which faced its biggest loss. Socialists came to power and formed a government headed by Fatos Nano. The government had to restore the state, the confidence of the people; it had to establish peace and order, disarm the population; in other words, it had to heal the financial, political, social and institutional wounds of the crisis

Conclusions

Companies which resulted in pyramid schemes were established and expanded in Albania during 1991 – 1997. They are a special case in Europe because of their expanding size; the amount of deposits in pyramid schemes was US\$1, 2 billion and number of depositors was 2 million. Factors which affected their establishment and expansion are both economic and political. Important factors are: poor public institutions, lack of structural reforms in banking system, insufficiency of a formal financial system.

Since archives lack documentation, it is difficult today to certify the state involvement in the activity of pyramid schemes; yet it is undeniable the fact that the indifferent attitude of state towards the pyramid schemes encouraged their expansion.

¹ Data was provided from the World Bank database, [online] available at:
<http://dataworldbank.org/indicator/NY.GDP.PCAP.CD/countries>

Government did not take legal measures in time so as to protect the citizens from financial fraud. Undoubtedly, it was the job of state institutions.

Activity of pyramid schemes affected the economic and social life of the country, but their collapse brought about fatal consequences in economy, politics and society; they set back production activity, increased the budget deficit, deepened trade and current deficit, affected people's confidence at formal financial market, brought about the social anarchy in 1997, Government's failure, paralyzed the public institutions and early elections.

Table 1. Macroeconomic indicators 1991 - 1996¹

Year	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996
Incomes for capita	346	217	381	625	772	968
GDP increase(in %)	-29.6	-7.2	9.6	-	13.3	9.1
Inflation	38.6	249.7	114.8	38.4	5.6	28.4

Table 2. Macro-economic indicators 1997(annual average in %)²

Indicators	Amount
Real increase of GDP(in %)	-7.0
Current account deficit (% GDP)	-12.1
Fiscal deficit (% GDP)	-12.9
Increase of GDP (in %)	-10.2
Inflation	13.9

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¹ Banka e Shqiperise, Raporti vjetor 1997, p. 7 – 8

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Environmental Impacts Assessment of Chromium Minings in Bulqiza Area, Albania

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Abstract

Bulqiza District is the largest chromium source, ranked fourth in the world for chrome reserves. It lays in the north-eastern part of Albania, 330-1800 m a.s.l, with 728 km² area, between 41°30'43.1N and 20°14'56.21E. There are 136 entities with chromium extraction activity and around the city of Bulqiza (2.6 km² and 13000 inhabitants), there are 33 entities. The aim of the study was the identification of the environmental state and environmental impact assessment of chromium extraction (chromite mining) and giving recommendations to minimize the negative effects of this activity. Field observations, questionnaires, chemical analysis of soil and water, meetings and interviews with central and local institutions as well as with residents were used for the realization of the study. The obtained results showed that chromium extraction causes numerous irreversible degradation of the environment in the Bulqiza area, such as the destruction of surface land layers and erosion, destruction of flora and fauna, soil and water pollution, health problems, unsustainable use and reduction of chromium reserves, etc. The inert waste that emerges after the chromium partition is discharged to the earth surface without any regularity, covering the surface of the soil and flora, leading to irreversible degradation of the environment. Most of the mining entities do not respect the contracts and environmental permit issued by the Ministry of Energy and Industry (MEI).

Keywords: Bulqiza, chromium, environmental impact assessment (EIA), environmental state.

Introduction

Albania is distinguished as a rich country for its mineral resources. Most of them have been discovered and exploited from ancient times up to date. Chrome, copper, iron-nickel and coal, are some of the minerals mined and treated in Albania. According to the MEI (2017), mining industry development in Albania has passed through three main stages: The first stage includes the period up to the end of World War II, marked by two important events. In 1922, has been compiled the first Geological Map of Albania, which was even the first of its kind in the Balkans. In 1929 has been approved the first Mining Law of the Albanian Kingdom, which paved the way to the exploration and/or exploitation of mineral resources in Albania; The second stage (1944-1994), marks the period when the mining activity has been organized in state-owned enterprises and the concept of mining privatization did not exist. The third stage includes the period 1994 up to date. It began the mining's privatization and licensing process, after the approval of Albanian Mining Law. Up to February 5th 2016, there were issued 752 mining permits out of which were 673 exploitation permits, mostly in Bulqiza, Kruja, Berat, Tirana and Librazhdi districts. Out of 673 exploitation mining permits: 211 permits for chrome ore, from which, only in Bulqiza District there were issued 136 permits (MEI, 2017). The privatization process continued with the approval of the Law "On Concessions", and giving by concession of certain parts of mining industry (of this branch). The mining objects given in concession so far, are Bulqiza chromium mine and ferrochrome smelters of Burrel and Elbasan, chromium mines in Kalimash, Kalimashi dressing plant, etc (MEI, 2017). Albania is well known for its high potential in chromium ore, comparing to other Mediterranean and Balkans countries. The main chromium deposits are located in the Ophiolites of the Eastern Belt area, to Tropoja-Kukës-Bulqiza-Shebenik-Pogradec direction. Bulqiza Ultrabasic Massif is the biggest chrome-potential massif, ranked fourth in the world for chrome reserves. This is a rare mine in its kind and has good quantitative and qualitative features (Cr₂O₃

content = 40-42%) (MEI, 2017). From the Bulqiza's mines, since 1948, over 15 million tons of chromium have been extracted and over 100,000 km of mining works have been carried out (Skarra, 2017). According to the National Natural Resources Authority (NNRA), in the depths of the largest mine in the country, the reserve chrome block amounts to 4 million tons (Open.data.al, 2014). According to Patel (2016), the mining effects is followed in general by significant environmental effects, as well as health effects on local population. Environmental effects include erosion, loss of biodiversity, air pollution, such as dust from blasting operation and haul roads (particular matters PM1 and PM2.5), NO_x, SO_x, CO₂ and CO from heavy machinery using diesel, smoke from explosions, etc), pollution and contamination of soil, groundwater and surface water by chemicals used in mining process, etc. Underground mining is generally more hazardous for the people's health than surface mining because of poorer ventilation and visibility and the danger of rockfalls. The greatest risk arise from dust which may led to respiratory problems and from direct exposure. In the forest areas, mining may cause destruction and disturbance of ecosystems and habitats, and in areas of farming it may disturb productive grazing and croplands. In urbanised environments mining may produce noise pollution, dust pollution and visual pollution. Flooding of the surface (erosion), the collapse of the tunnels and the loss of land from the underground mining activity of coal, metals and other types of mining is a problem in most of the countries where the mining activity from the underground is concerned (Betournay, 2011), because it involves large-scale movements of waste rock and vegetation, similar to open pit mining. Environmental hazards are present during every step of the open-pit mining process. Hardrock mining exposes rock that has lain unexposed for geological eras. When crushed, these rocks expose radioactive elements, asbestos-like minerals, and metallic dust. During separation, residual rock slurries, which are mixtures of pulverized rock and liquid, are produced as tailings, toxic and radioactive elements from these liquids can leak into bedrock if not properly contained (Mission2016, 2016). According to MiningWatch Canada (2012), human exposure routes to dusts and particles PM10 and PM2.5 and chromium are breathing, swallowing, and skin contact. Chromium III and VI accumulate in animal and human tissues and their removal from the body is very slow. Observed toxic effects of chromium compounds in humans and animals include developmental issues, skin damage, respiratory, reproductive and digestive system injuries as well as skin cancer or internal organs. The ingestion of large amounts of hexavalent chromium compounds causes diarrhea, vomiting, stomach and intestinal ulceration, anemia, kidney and liver damage, abortion, coma and even death (MiningWatch Canada, 2012).

The aim of study was aim identification of the environmental situation and assessing the impact of the chrome mines and recommending alternatives in order to minimize the negative environmental impacts in the area.

2. Material and methods

The study was conducted during the period November 2016 - April 2017 in the area of Bulqiza. Quantitative and qualitative methods were used for the realization of the study. The quantitative method consisted in data collection for subjects/entities that perform the activity of chromium extraction in the Bulqiza area, demographic and socio-economic development data, as well as field evaluation of the environmental impacts as a result of the mining of chromium extraction activity. Collection of quantitative information and data was done through:

meetings, visits and interviews in central and local institutions

field surveys on the state of the environment in Bulqiza area, environmental impacts, causes, consequences and rehabilitation opportunities

water and soil chemical analysis

information from the internet

A questionnaire was drafted and field meetings and interviews were conducted with residents, environmental experts and entities performing their activity in the field of chromium extraction in the Bulqiza area, for their opinion on the effects of mining operations chromium extraction.

The qualitative method has consisted in the literature study on the environmental impacts of extractive mines in the environment (land degradation, land use, biodiversity, flora and fauna, water resources, development of inhabited centers, agricultural production, etc.), environmental impact assessment (EIA) at national and international level, the Albanian legislation in the field of chrome mining activities, environmental protection, biodiversity, etc.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Entities with chromium exploitation mining activity in Bulqiza District and around the city

According to the Ministry of Energy and Industry (MEI, 2017) and the Bulqiza Municipality (2017), in Bulqiza District there are 136 entities with chromium exploitation mining activity, and around the city of Bulqiza there are 33 entities, such as: AlbChrome Sh.p.k – a concessionaire company, Akev Sh.p.k, Gentari Sh.p.k, Mineral Invest Sh.p.k, Marej Sh.p.k, Isaku Sh.p.k, Klevi Bris Sh.p.k, Duriçi Sh.p.k, Ylberi Sh.p.k, Duriçi-07 Sh.p.k, Egi-K Sh.p.k, Drini Bulqiza Sh.p.k, etc (Table 1), as well as several anonimous entities with illegal activity, which use the natural chromium resources previously discovered.

Table 1. Some of entities with chromium exploitation mining activity around Bulqiza city (Register of Active Mining Licenses – Chromium - 05/02/2016) (MEI, 2017)

Nr.	Nr of license	Date	Entity	District
1	677	16.09.2002	AlbChrome Sh.p.k	Bulqiza
2	869	17.06.2005	Arkev Sh.p.k	Bulqiza
3	934	13.04.2006	Gentari Sh.p.k	Bulqiza
4	1088	19.11.2007	Mineral Invest Sh.p.k	Bulqiza
5	1143	28.01.2008	Duriçi-07 Sh.p.k	Bulqiza
6	1155	03.03.2008	Egi-K Sh.p.k	Bulqiza
7	1163/1	19.07.2012	Klevi Bris sh.p.k	Bulqiza
8	1197	01.07.2008	Duriçi Sh.p.k	Bulqiza
9	1271/1	15.05.2012	Kadurtex Sh.p.k	Bulqiza
10	1279	17.12.2008	Gerda 07 Sh.p.k	Bulqiza
11	1281	17.12.2008	Gentari Sh.p.k	Bulqiza
...	Etc.	...

According to INSTAT (2017) and Bica (2015), at Bulqiza's mines there are employed a total of about 1000 employees (not all from Bulqiza but from other districts as well, such as Mat, Klos, Dibra, etc) of which about 600 are employed in AlbChrome Sh.p.k. with a monthly salary of about 60 thousand Albanian Lek (445 Euro) per month. This activity is the only employment opportunity for Bulqiza's young population. The use of chromium is done up to a depth of 250 m below sea level (level 21) (<https://www.facebook.com/bulqizapasuriaeshqiperise/>). From the interviews with city dwellers and with miners, it is said that the activity of chromium extraction did not enrich the city and Bulqiza area, but all Albania before the 1990s, and only several private companies after 1990s.

3.2. Demographic movements in the city of Bulqiza

During the last 7 years (2010-2017), the population of Bulqiza declined by 6.11% (Municipality of Bulqiza, 2017; INSTAT (2011)). The highest migration occurred during 2011-2012 (Table 2). This may have been the result of population migration to the most developed areas of the country because of the lack of employment and services in their hometown.

Table 2. Demographic movements year by year in the city of Bulqiza, 2010-2017 (Bulqiza Municipality, 2017)

Year	Number of inhabitants	Difference	
		Nr	%
2010	13249	0	0
2011	13480	+231	+1.74
2012	12391	-1089	-8.079
2013	12276	-115	-0.93
2014	12323	+47	0.38
2015	12391	+68	0.55
2016	12388	-3	-0.024
2017	12440	+52	0.42

3.3. Identification of the negative environmental impacts of chromium exploitation mining activity

In addition to the positive impact on the economy of Bulqiza's citizens and surrounding areas, the activity of extracting chromium ore in the Bulqiza area has been accompanied by significant negative impacts on the environment. Field surveys and data analysis of various institutions and environmental associations show that environmental problems are numerous such as air pollution, soil contamination, surfacewater and groundwater contamination, landscape degradation, destruction and disturbance of ecosystems and habitats (flora and fauna), land biodiversity loss, noise, vibrations, fear from earthquakes or the collapse of underground tunnels, unmanageable use of chromium resources and reserves, and health problems (respiratory disease, dizziness, vomiting, poisoning, stress, etc.), in some cases, the loss of the life of the miners.

3.3.1. Contamination of the surface and ground waters

The activity of exploiting chromium mines in the Bulqiza area has been accompanied by significant adverse impacts on the quality indicators of surfacewater and groundwater, as well as the contamination with chromium element as a result of excavation and excision of chrome ore inside the galleries, as well as the rinsing of mineral stocks in storage facilities and sterile wastes loaded with Cr dust at the depot. Field surveys and the results of the questionnaire conducted with residents of the city and surrounding areas indicate that in 70% of the cases, mining waters are not treated previously in decantation tubes, but are discharged into the open environment contaminating the groundwater and the soil. The water coming out of the mines using powerful pumps, is limestone water, rich in chromium, which is emitted to the environment uncontrollably and flows into surfacewater or infiltrates through rock fissures in groundwater (Table 3).

Table 3. Surface water parameters coming from one of the chromium mines operating in Bulqiza area (chemical analysis were performed at the Lab of Environment of Polis University and the Soil Lab of the ATTC Fushe Kruje)

№	Indicators	Symbol	Unit	Normal tap water	M1 (500 m from the galery exit)	M2 (1500 m from the galery exit)
1	Acidity	pH	-log[H ⁺]	7.2	9.58	8.91
2	Temperature	t°	°C	21.3	23.9	22.6
3	High range iron	Fe ³⁺	mg/l	0.0	0.43** (very high)	0.23* (high)
4	Free chlorine	Cl ⁻	mg/l	0.0	0.0	0.01
5	High range nitrogen	NO ³⁻	mg/l	0.0	0.04	0.27
6	Low range phosphate	PO ₄ ³⁻	mg/l	0.0	0.3	1.89**
7	Sulphates	PO ₄ ²⁻	mg/l	0.0	0.0	0.2
8	Chromium (total)	Cr	mg/l	0.0	0.025** (very high)	0.014* (high)

These waters then end up in the surface waters of the city and eventually drain into the Drin River. Part of these groundwaters from natural sources can be used as drinking water for the city of Bulqiza and the surrounding areas and / or for irrigation of agricultural lands around the city, contaminating the agricultural products as well (data not shown). In Albania, as in many other countries of the world, standards have been set and used, for the maximum content of Cr-VI and Cr total of liquid discharges from mining activity (MiningWatch Canada, 2012; Law No. 10448, dated 14.07.2011, "On Environmental Permits", approximated, Law No. 60/2014, dated 19.06.2014, "On Amendments to Law No. 10448, dated 14.7.2011,"On Environmental Permits", as amended, DCM no. 177, 31.03.2005, "On permissible liquid discharge rates and the criteria for zoning of receiving water environments" (CoM, 2005; MEI, 2017). These standards are set out in the usage permit, environmental permit and environmental statement, but their implementation leaves much to be desired, also considering the illegal activity of chromium extraction in the Bulqiza area.

3.3.2. Air pollution and population and miners health problems

Observations show that the activity of extracting chromium ore in the Bulqiza area is associated with indoor and the outdoor (atmosphere) air pollution around the mines from CO₂, CO, SO₂, H₂S, dust and particulate matter PM10 and PM2.5, which also contain chromium particles (Cr) with different valences (Cr-I to Cr-VI). Air pollution occurs as a result of excavations and explosions with explosives inside the mine that, in the absence of sufficient air ventilation, circulates through the galleries and comes out to the open air, from the circulation of heavy vehicles (trucks, wagons, freezers, etc) and loading

and unloading of chrome ore and sterile waste. According to the Health Directorate of Bulqiza (2017), every year, there are about 50 new cases of respiratory disease, 15 new cases of untreated disease, 10 new cases with mental diseases, several accidents with the loss of organs (hands or feet), and 3-5 losses of life annually (not only from Bulqiza), without taking into consideration acute health problems such as skin injuries, diarrhea, vomiting, stomach and intestinal ulceration, anemia, etc.

3.3.3. Erozion, soil degradation and contamination, degradation of the natural landscape

Opening the new ways to reach new galleries and opening up new chromium careers has led to the remove of the upper productive layer of soil (the main layer of physical, chemical and biological activity). As a result of surface interventions and in depth excavations for the extraction of chromium ore, soil deforestation and stripping of the soil surface has occurred, causing the phenomenon of erosion and the total soil degradation to appear massively. Improper disposal of the material (chrome ore and sterile - inert waste) to the storage squares around the mines and the galleries has led to the creation of "mountains" with mineral chromium stocks and sterile waste that have caused soil contamination and degradation and damage to the visual natural landscape (Figure 1). Disposal of inert materials and wastes, etc., have contributed to the pollution of soil and water (surface and ground water) and soil degradation, the destruction and loss of biodiversity, degradation of the environment, demolition, discontinuation, destruction of the natural ecosystems and damage to the visual landscape.



Figure 1. Erozion, soil degradation and contamination by the sterile waste of chromite mines (Photos by E. Laçi)

Soil chemical analysis, taken 500 m and 1500 m away from the mine's gallery showed that the total chromium content was very high (615 ppm Cr and 448 ppm Cr) (Table 4), which means that in the case of plant cultivation for food for people or feed for animals, they will be poisoned for sure. There were also observed high levels of other heavy metals such as nickel (Ni) and cobalt (Co).

Table 4. Total Chromium content in the soil 500 m and 1500 m away from the gallery exit (Lab of the ATTC Fushe Kruje)

№	Indicators	Symbol	Unit	M1 (500 m from the gallery exit)	M2 (1500 m from the gallery exit)
1	Acidity	pH	-log[H ⁺]	7.9	7.6
2	Electrical conductivity	EC	MS/cm	0.294	0.330
3	Chromium	Cr	ppm	615	448
4	Nickel	Ni	ppm	338	380
5	Cobalt	Co	ppm	121	140

3.3.4. Acoustic pollution - noise, vibration and earthquake risk and land losses

Around Bulqiza city, there are about 33 licensed and a number of unlicensed illegal subjects with exploitation and extraction of chromium ore activity. Field surveys and the results of the questionnaire conducted with residents (data not shown) indicate that heavy transport, loading and unloading machinery and mineral and sterile machinery - inert waste, cause continuous or periodic noise or vibrations in the town of Bulqiza, creating health problems For residents such as insomnia,

stress and mental fatigue. The main mine, opened since 1948, today under the administration of Albchrome Sh.pk, is located very close to the town of Bulqiza, as a part of it. Mineral resources from this mine, with a 70 years activity, as well as other mines around the town of Bulqiza, have been exploited indefinitely, creating horizontal underground hollows, as well as many abandoned galleries. The development of the mine activity is already happening under the city, which is accompanied by fears of residents for the collapse and partial loss of land and the city in case of earthquakes, as it is known as an area with a very high seismic activity (Figure 2). The phenomenon has also led to the destruction and damage of wild flora and fauna, removed due to noise and vibrations, interruption of the natural landscape and destruction of their natural habitat.



Figure 2. Soil and water pollution, and acoustic pollution by the move of heavy vehicles (Photos by E. Laçi)

3.3.5. Reducing of the natural resources of chromium ore as a result of unmanageable use

Particularly after 1990s, the activity of extracting and exploiting of chromium ore, benefiting from the long transition period, was done without any criteria, from licensed companies and unlicensed illegal companies. The main mine itself has passed in several hands (from DARFO, to ACR, to ALBCHROME - Balfin Group), where the use of chrome ore has been made based on existing stocks, only horizontally, without further study of the future. Extraction of the chrome ore from the bottom to the surface and the uncritical exploitation of these reserves has led to a critical reduction of the natural non-renewable resources of the chromium ore in Bulqiza area, compromising the sustainable development of the area, and the country as well, compromising the future generations to meet their needs. The Government institutions should be more rigorous on the law enforcing on environmental protection for our future.

4. Conclusions and recommendations

4.1. Conclusions

The area of Bulqiza is the area with the largest number of chrome extraction and exploitation mines in Albania (136 subjects from 211 at the national level), where only around the city of Bulqiza there are 33 licensed and several unlicensed subjects. Chromium extraction and exploitation activity, in addition to the positive impact on employment and the economic growth and livelihoods of residents, is accompanied by numerous negative effects which, if not taken into account, will lead to total degradation of the natural environment in that area. The most important and most obvious negative impacts are air pollution, erosion, soil pollution and contamination, surfacewater and groundwater contamination, acoustic pollution (noise), vibrations and earthquakes, destruction and damage of flora and fauna, habitat interruption, loss of biodiversity, critical reduction of the natural non-renewable resources of the chromium ore, various health problems and loss of life of miners (the latter is most important).

4.2. Recommendations

All chromite mines must rigorously apply the rules of technical safety at work according to the legislation in force. The respective governmental institutions should immediately stop the illegal activity and all chromite mines will be provided with environmental permits and rigorously enforce the requirements of the law, regarding to the chrome minerals and inert waste. The Municipality of Bulqiza, in cooperation with relevant institutions in the Ministry of Energy and Industry (MEI) and the responsible environmental institutions (National Environmental Agency and Regional Environmental Agency), should

be more cautious in addressing the environmental aspects and in the implementation of all specified conditions on environmental permits for the extraction and exploitation of chromium mineral resources. For chrome mining activity in the area, must be developed a strategic environmental plan with a detailed cost-benefit analysis considering the environmental costs in the long-term, considering the concept and the reality of sustainable development in the use of non-renewable natural resources / reserves, chromium in this case. Respective governmental institutions should immediately take measures for the rehabilitation of the landscape, adapting for other purposes, objects that are out of function and have a negative visual effect in the area. People need to be aware that what the nature has given to us belong to the next generations.

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Information About Ourselves from Ourselves: Young Users of Wearable Technologies in Secondary School

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Abstract

Several researchers have recognized the value of self-tracking technologies used to personally obtain data about ourselves. The aim of the present study was to assess the barriers associated with the "technologies of existence", so-called wearables, including lack of knowledge of these devices, lack of information on their correct use, as well as difficulties regarding data integration and interpretation. To help to overcome these barriers we investigated a project involving two self-tracking activities in an Italian secondary school, performing a quantitative and qualitative analysis of the students using these technologies for educational purposes. Thanks to the project and its contextualized practical and theoretical activities, students were able to become "enhanced users" in terms of their knowledge, autonomy and awareness as regards wearable technologies. Our findings regarding the application of wearable technologies in a scholastic setting may also be step forward in addressing a well-known common pitfall of self-tracking: insufficient scientific rigor. Our quantitative and qualitative analysis showed how the use of wearable devices in educational settings had a range of beneficial effects, above all, eliciting satisfaction among students, but also yielding positive outcomes regarding the acquisition of scientific knowledge perceived both in terms of device applications and data interpretation. In conclusion, our findings may have broad implications in the future design and development of wearable technologies.

Keywords: Quantified Self, Wearable technologies, Secondary school, Scholastic setting

1. Introduction

Self-monitoring involves observing oneself (physiological states, athletic performance, well-being, behaviors, moods) in certain situations and carefully taking note of what is found. It often happens that one is aware of a problem, but unable to clearly define it. Being able to articulate a definition of the problem however can subsequently help us to have a greater control capacity. In fact, in self-monitoring we take on the role of "scientists", i.e. the phenomenon is analyzed by precisely and consistently recording our own observations. In the field of medicine and health, self-monitoring involves keeping track of the symptoms of a disease and their evolution, which a patient can do at home with the appropriate tools. In sociological terms, it is the observation and systematic control of one's behavior. The concept of self-monitoring is very old, but today smart technology makes the task of self-monitoring much simpler, translating every state and process of the self into numbers.

Self-knowledge through numbers has been defined as *Quantified Self* (Wolf, 2010), built on the idea that we lack the tools to make ourselves understand who we are, so to overcome our human limitations we need to enlist the help of machines and technology. In 2007, Gary Wolf and Kevin Kelly, editors of the magazine *Wired*, set up a blog called "Quantifiedself.com", which became a repository for anyone who wanted to share self-tracking practices. In 2010 Wolf spoke about the movement on *TED@Cannes*, and in May 2011, the first international conference on this topic was held in Mountain View, California. The *Quantified Self* (QS) has since become a movement to incorporate technology into data acquisition regarding aspects of a person's daily life (Kyoung et al., 2014) to improve daily functioning and wellness in terms of inputs (food consumption, air quality in their surroundings etc.), states (mood, arousal, blood oxygen levels etc.), and both mental and physical performance. In the United States in particular, this movement has created real communities of enthusiasts who, using wearable technologies, measure calories consumed, kilometers traveled, quality of sleep, and other minute aspects of their daily lives.

But what exactly do we mean by “wearable technology” (Figure 1)? The term wearable technology refers to all technologies, designed around people’s bodies and used as a natural support for their functioning. Sensory detection and monitoring of body signals, including those of an emotional nature, makes these technologies a valuable tool designed to meet the user’s needs, while expanding their sensory capabilities as well. There are distinct categories of wearable devices: those that are capable of processing data, those that can communicate with a smart connected device (PC, smartphone or tablet) and those that can connect to the network independently without relying on other devices.

In the academic world several applications of self-tracking technologies in the field of health and wellbeing have been examined (Klasnja, Pratt, 2012; Swan, 2009). Many researchers conducting such investigations, in accord with what QS members claim, believe that thanks to the self-knowledge approach through data acquisition, it is possible for users to reflect on their activities, make discoveries about themselves, and use technology to make changes in their behavior (Bentley et al., 2013; Lin et al., 2006; Mamykina et al., 2008). Although researchers on the whole have reacted positively to these technologies, they have also discovered barriers to their adoption, including insufficient knowledge for an integrated and coordinated use of data, inadequate skills for an effective use of the devices and insufficient motivation (Li et al., 2010). Other researchers are critical of the commercialization of self-tracking, as they believe that the widespread use of data as a meta-social commentary on a person in his own social position can become the objective basis for a kind of static discrimination. “Disruptive developments are already appearing which show what a new taxonomy of sociality could look like in the future” (Selke, 2016). Some sociologists denounce the emergence of a new form of social and medical surveillance that arises from the merchandising of personal health-related opinions and health information produced and shared on the network by the users of self-monitoring devices (Lupton, 2012, 2014). Others fear the advent of overly accountable patients or users, who may therefore be considered “guilty” of their disease, illness or lack of physical and mental fitness (Morozov, 2013). In the field of health, American researchers (Piwek et al., 2016) point out that it is not yet clear how beneficial these technologies will be in the health field, as the huge amount of information and data collected can generate anxiety and confusion among users in general and patients.

From a commercial standpoint, according to the International Data Corporation (IDC, 2015) (https://www.idc.com/tracker/showproductinfo.jsp?prod_id=962), worldwide shipments of wearable devices reached 101.9 million in 2016, a 29.0% increase over 2015. While most available apps focus on overall wellness, healthcare companies and professionals are increasingly interested in a broader use of these applications, removing barriers to a mainstream adoption of mHealth, especially in the areas of disease management and the promotion of healthy lifestyles. Although the wearable device market in Italy is slightly behind the US market, interest in this sector has been strong for years, and even Italian companies have begun producing wearable devices. Numerous reports, conversations and statements of interest regarding wearable devices from users themselves can be found on the Web. Indeed, a Wearable Technology Observatory (<http://wearable.to/osservatorio/>) has been set up with the aim of developing a kind of virtual laboratory for new wearable technologies that could monitor national and international projects. The market, which is undoubtedly growing according to the Observatory, has three major problems preventing it from really taking off: the price of wearables, which is still too high, lack of knowledge on the part of users, as well as device usability and the difficulty of data integration and interpretation.

For these devices to come fully into mainstream use, knowledge of wearables and people’s ability to use them effectively must be enhanced. Moreover, the functions of these devices must be expanded seeking to develop those that have a high impact on everyday life and are simple to use. Indeed, the aim of this evolving sector is to develop wearable devices that are adapted to the user’s lifestyle, moving away from the concept of a passive accessory to become a fundamental and personal part of our existence. Being ever present in the least invasive way is one of the distinctive features of wearable systems, which makes them different from laptops or tablets and contributes to their success among people of all ages.

2. The project involving the use of wearable technologies in a secondary school

Two scholastic interdisciplinary activities supported by wearables were analyzed. The first activity was called “*Allena. menti*” and involved the subjects of mathematics and physical education. The second was called “*Mobil. mente*” and involved the subjects of natural science and physical education. The first activity consisted in carrying out the “step test”, an indirect test for the measurement of Vo₂max, i.e. maximum oxygen consumption, by measuring changes in the heart rate. A heart rate monitor, 36-cm high bench and metronome were used. During the physical education class, one student carried out the test, another monitored it, and a third entered the data into the computer. The data were then processed using an Excel spreadsheet. In math class, the data were then used to plot a graph through equations and the study of the line. Thus,

thanks to the synergy between two subjects, the students learned how to perform a basic assessment test for sports and physical activity and how to interpret the results.

The second activity involved the study of heart rate variation and its relationship to exercise intensity. The goal was to study the cardiovascular system in general and, in particular, the concept of heart rate and its relationship to exercise intensity. The students were accompanied by their teacher on a walking or cycling route. During these activities three variables were monitored: the heart rate of the students, altitude and walking/cycling speed. The students were equipped with a heart rate monitor and a GPS device with an altimeter. The data collected along the route were then processed and recorded on a computer. Subsequently, using a specific software, the data were transformed into 3D graphics and used in physical education and natural sciences classes for the study of this biological parameter and its variations. It is interesting to note that the use of wearable technology devices covered both the practical part of the field, namely measurements with heart rate monitors and GPS devices equipped with altimeters, as well as the theoretical part, namely data processing using specific software and data analysis using computers performed in the classroom.

2.1 Survey and study method (quantitative and qualitative)

A questionnaire (Table 1) with seven questions was designed to evaluate the project results. In particular, we analyzed the following aspects: the interest, the knowledge of the devices and their applications, the level of satisfaction of students regarding the proposed activities, the attitude, their perceived level of autonomy in the use of technological devices and their awareness of the reasons for the use of such devices and the possibility of integrating wearable technologies into daily life.

The survey section regarding the interest, the knowledge and the satisfaction level of the participants consisted of three questions: 1. *Did you find the activities practiced using wearables to be interesting?* 2. *In your opinion, did your knowledge of wearable devices and their data improve?* 3. *Are you totally satisfied with this experience?* Students had to express their opinion choosing from a range of four options: *Definitely No, No more than Yes, Yes more than No, Definitely Yes* (Chiandotto e Gola method, 1999). The survey section regarding attitude and autonomy in the use of the wearable devices consisted of the following questions: 4. *Do you think that your attitude towards this technology has improved after the initial impact?* 5. *Would you be able to use the wearable device in question alone?* The same range of options used in the previous set of questions was used here.

The results were largely positive (Figure 2). In particular, students report that they found the activities to be very interesting (31%) or rather interesting (51%). They claim to have seen an improvement in their knowledge of the devices in question (42%), although some confusion persists (26%). This is one of the first studies of its kind; hence, further research is clearly needed, and we must be cautious in drawing conclusions from a single investigation. However, the satisfaction level with the experience offered through the project was high for students. Students' attitudes towards wearable technologies improved after the initial impact, and most of them also gained real autonomy in the use of these devices, although a number of subjects remained dependent on the support of an expert (14% and 28%). This finding highlights the difficulty of promoting students as active learners at school and the opportunity offered by experiences that go in the direction of learning how to use new technologies correctly and responsibly.

Students were also asked the following questions to determine whether they viewed the integration of technology into everyday life positively and assess the perceived prevailing aspects or functions of this application. 6. *In general, technology is designed to improve our lives. Do you think these wearable technologies can improve our lives?* 7. *If yes, how?* A Likert scale was used for question 7 with the following items:

- A. *Improving our health (track blood pressure, track heart rate, log triggers that cause disease ...);*
- B. *Improving wellbeing (track exercise, track weight, log sleep, log food, log panic, log mood ...);*
- C. *Offering new life experiences (explore new places, orient in contexts, satisfy curiosity, have fun, enjoy relationship ...).*

The results from this part of the questionnaire are also very interesting. For most students, wearables can really improve our lives (73%). But how? Students are particularly interested in the contribution from the field of wellbeing. Perhaps the high percentage of students (40%) who chose *Improving wellbeing* can be accounted for by the fact that students carried out activities in the field of physical performance and fitness, during the project. The second highest percentage of students (35%) indicated that wearables can improve our lives by *Offering new life experiences*. The relatively high percentage of

students who chose this option was probably influenced by the young age of respondents for whom technology nowadays means curiosity, fun, sharing, even functionality, fitness and is less related to health (Figure 3, Figure 4). However, it is interesting to note that even though it was ranked third, *Improving health* was chosen by 25% of students. These findings are in agreement with world-wide figures that see wearables used mainly in the fields of fitness and wellbeing and less in the health field.

To complete our study, a qualitative survey, based on student interviews, was used to more effectively address three aspects related to the use of wearable technologies, namely knowledge, autonomy and awareness, and to discover any pitfalls related to their use.

Knowledge - What did you learn?

In the interview, most students stated that they had made some progress in terms of improving their knowledge of these technologies, their applications and in the reading and interpretation of data. Students emphasized above all the enjoyable nature of this way of acquiring knowledge as a kind of "learning by doing". Some students thus describe a process that involves learning about the devices and at the same time gaining confidence in their use. 1) *At first I felt embarrassed because I wasn't familiar with this technology, then I learned to manage it, and it became easier.* 2) *It's amazing how many things we can learn about ourselves in this way, and it's not hard at all. The machine does almost everything, and you just have to go about your everyday life as if it weren't there.* 3) *It was also very interesting to read the data about ourselves and compare them to those of other classmates.*

Some students stated that they were initially afraid of not being able to meet the performance requirements and of having their performance compared with those of classmates. 4) *At first I was pretty worried about not providing the right data or not being able to do the work. How embarrassing in front of all my classmates!* In fact, the use of these technologies that produce numerical data related to the subject in quantitative terms (*Quantified-self*) can generate performance anxiety in the subject, and fear of comparisons being drawn with others.

There may be a risk of losing sight of the sociality component (Maturò, 2014). However, it is interesting to note how in this case, the social component was called into play. Subsequently, subjects who yielded data uploaded and shared them on social platforms. 5) *I can't wait to add this information about myself on my facebook profile, and then I want to talk about it with my coach and football teammates.* In addition, the data collection and processing activities, although related to individual subjects, were carried out in a groups in which each student was assigned a specific task to be carried out in collaboration with other group members.

Autonomy - How did you work?

In the interview, students stated that they were fully engaged in this experience and felt freer, more active and more creative while learning. The conditions in which the activities were carried out made them practical and enjoyable, especially the fact that the contents were generated by the students themselves. 6) *I felt that the data we were working on hadn't been taken from books, they had been created by us. It was very rewarding!* 7) *It seemed odd to me that those numbers concerned us, our bodies and our work. This made them more interesting in our eyes.*

Awareness - What has changed?

From the students interviews a new approach to understanding technology emerges. It is undoubtedly more conscious, as it prompts reflection on how technology can be a simple mild tool for everyday life, but also a "powerful" means to be used carefully by an "improved" or rather, "properly equipped" user. 8) *I want to recommend this tool to my grandfather who has heart problems, but I will have to evaluate it well. The risks could outweigh the benefits because having this device on him all the time would be a constant reminder of his illness. Besides, I don't know if he could figure out anything from the data.* Finally, some hope that the project will be continued. 9) *I have certainly learned useful and important things for my life. It would be nice to be able to do it again in the future at school.*

Our quantitative and qualitative analysis shows how, the use of wearable devices as "learning environments" at school, is first of all, a rewarding experience for students, it also yields positive outcomes in terms of the acquisition of knowledge regarding both device applications and data interpretation, it increases perceived user autonomy and skills, also prompting reflection on the fundamental reasons for the introduction and implementation of these technologies in everyday life. In addition, the results of the qualitative analysis show that the initial impact of wearable technologies can generate anxiety

and worry; however, such feelings are dispelled through the study and application of these devices. The users enhanced sense of autonomy, and confidence was confirmed throughout the entire device application process.

3. Conclusions

As school in general is the biggest engine for innovation, investing in it to implement the use of new technologies and to verify their effects can be a useful and far-sighted strategy. Indeed, this early exposure to wearables, provided at a young age, can also help subjects later as adults to avoid certain pitfalls associated with these technologies while at the same time enhancing their ability to reap the benefits that can be obtained from contextualized knowledge and proper use of these devices. School can become a research lab to introduce novel ideas regarding cutting edge devices and their features, to prompt reflection about technology, and to verify the usability of such technologies.

Our project has yielded positive results in terms of enhancing subjects' knowledge, autonomy and awareness in the field of wearable technologies. The development of "enhanced wearable users" could help to provide what is said to be lacking for the mainstream development of wearables: widespread dissemination of the technology which would help reduce costs, skills related to the reading and interpretation of data and the need for scientific rigor, contextualization and integration of the devices into everyday life. These results are to be understood not only quantitatively in terms of an increase in the production and dissemination of wearable technologies, but also in terms of an enhancement of the quality of their application and use. In addition, the present study lays the groundwork for further investigations of this kind with the aim of pursuing the desired wider application of wearables in the field of health and, at the same time, improving their application to other areas of life (well-being and other experiences) in which they are already widely used.

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Tables and Figures

Questions	Definitely No	No more than Yes	Yes more than No	Definitely Yes
1. Did you find the activities practiced using wearables to be interesting?	4 %	12 %	51 %	31 %
2. In your opinion, did your knowledge of wearable devices and their data improve?	12 %	26 %	42 %	18 %
3. Are you totally satisfied with this experience?	3 %	7 %	55 %	32 %
4. Do you think that your attitude towards this technology has improved after the initial impact?	13 %	15 %	49 %	21 %
5. Would you be able to use the wearable device in question alone?	14 %	28 %	46 %	11 %

6. In general, technology is designed to improve our lives. Do you think these wearable technologies can improve our lives?	Yes	No
7. If yes, how? (score: from 1-2-3)	73%	27%
Improving health (cure a condition, distinguish healthy and unhealthy lifestyles ...)	track blood pressure, track heart rate, log triggers that cause diseases ...	
	25%	
Improving wellbeing (performance, find balance, experience wellbeing ...)	track exercise, track weight, log sleep, log food, log panic, log mood ...	
	40%	
Offering new life experiences (explore new places, orient in contexts, satisfy curiosity, have fun, enjoy relationships ...)	track every street walked, track the use of time, log activities in a day, track the connected self ...	
	35%	

Table 1. Questionnaire

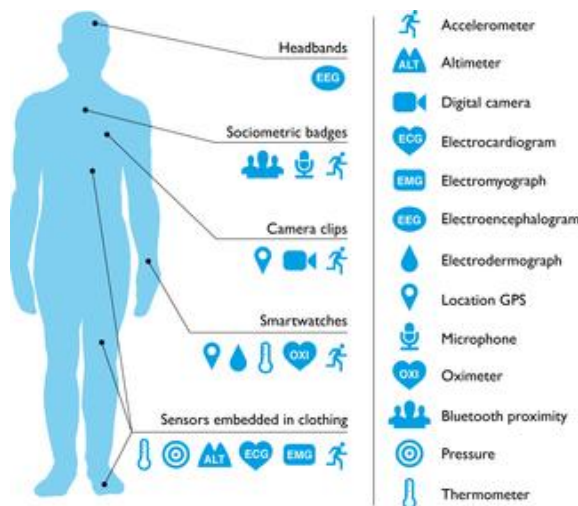


Fig. 1. The Rise of Consumer Health Wearables. Source: Piwek et al. (2016)

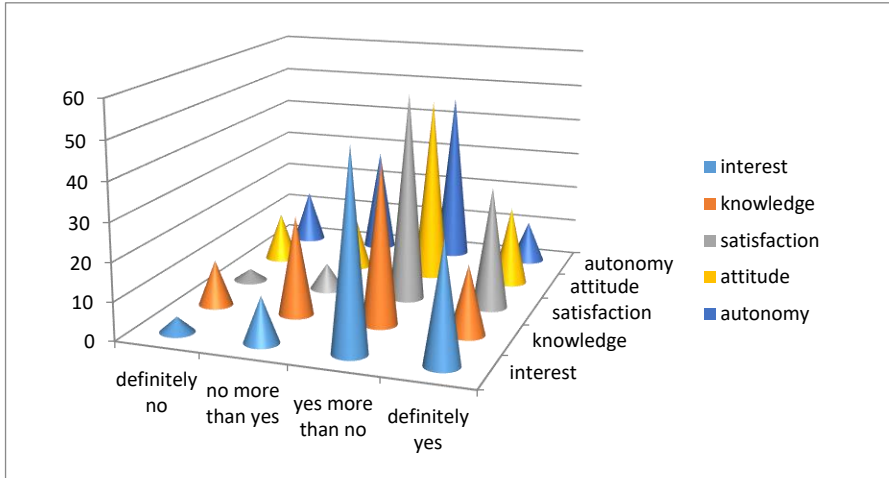


Fig. 2. Factors related to use of wearable technologies at school

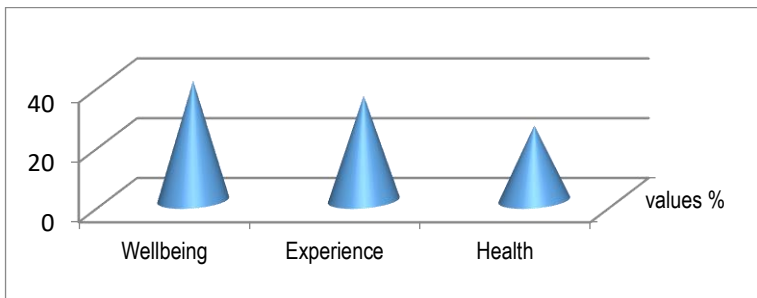


Fig. 3. The fields of application of wearables

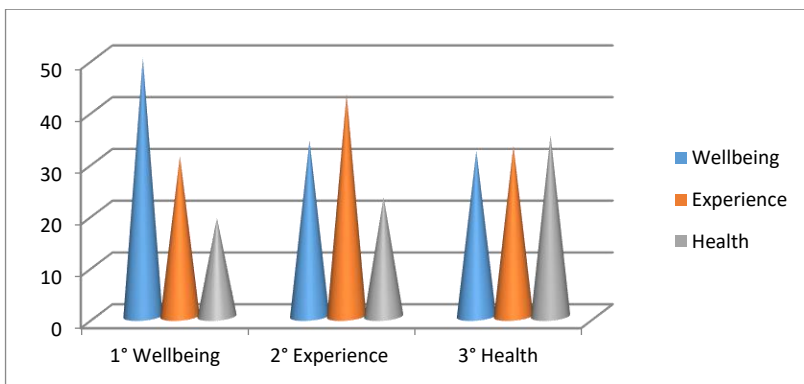


Fig. 4. A classification of the fields of application of wearables

Identifying the Drivers of Food Security Based on Perception among Households in South Western Nigeria

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Abstract

Food insecurity has been considered lately as one of the developmental challenges facing developing nations particularly the sub-Saharan Africa that if not curtailed may have embarrassing consequences not only to the affected area but to humanity in general due to instability that may occur. This study aimed to identify those factors that influence food security and how they did to guide the relevant stakeholders in the design and implementation of food programmes. The study assessed food security of the households based on perception of heads/appointed representatives and logistic regression model to identify its drivers in respective households. The findings of the study revealed that majority of households investigated (60.2 percent) showed varying degrees of food insecurity and hunger while those living with moderate hunger were leading by 31.6 percent. Furthermore, logistic regression analysis results showed that eight of the ten explanatory variables such as income, access to credit and public health facilities among others as specified in the model significantly influenced the food security of the sampled households.

Keywords: identifying, drivers of food security, perception, households, South Western Nigeria

Introduction

Food security has been variously defined by various studies and stakeholders alike the latest of which was defined as “a situation that exists when all people, at all times, have physical, social and economic access to sufficient, safe and nutritious food that meets their dietary needs and food preferences for an active and healthy life” (FAO 2002). Also, FAO (2008) categorized food security into four dimensions; availability, accessibility, utilization and sustainability. Each of these dimensions are independent of each other suggesting that achievement of one does not guarantee the achievement another but the achievement of all dimensions are required to attain a state of food security within a population group. However, food insecurity in recent times has been identified as one of the key developmental challenges bedeviling the developing nations particularly the sub-Sahara African countries which could be attributed to many factors some of which the study is trying to examine using south western Nigeria as a reference group and taking into consideration the peculiarities of the affected population. According to the chairperson of World Food Summit held in 2002 and quote “....together with terrorism, hunger is one of the greatest problems the international community is facing....” (Clover 2003). Corroborating this assertion, James Morris, the then executive director of World Food Programme (WFP) in his address to the UN Security Council in December 2002 about Africa’s food crisis and equally asserted that in addition to the problems of AIDS/HIV faced by people is another danger posed by food insecurity and hunger where about 38 million people in Africa alone faced imminent threat to their peace, security and stability which has since surged (WFP 2002). According to the latest reports published by the Food and Agricultural Organization (FAO) of the United Nations, food insecurity in the world had risen from 777 million in 2015 to 815 million in 2016 (FAO, 2017).

It is pertinent to note that every food programme requires the full assessment of the prevailing food insecurity among the target vulnerable group before meaningful interventions could take place. For example, food security can be achieved at national level by either self-production or sufficient import in case of lack of resources for self-production like land, climate and other environmental factors that may prevent growing of food crops and rearing of animals for animal protein while it

can also be achieved by either self-production on family farms or purchase from the market (Fawole 2017). Several studies and investigations have been carried out in respect of determinants of food security in terms of socioeconomic and political characteristics with some coming up with several factors that were seen to influence the food security of groups of people. In the case of Nigeria, declining food production occasioned by neglect of agriculture in the face of growing population has grossly affected the fortunes of food security at national level in the country as a whole with spiral effects on the households who were always the most hit of the effects of food insecurity being the consuming units and are vulnerable to food shocks due to socioeconomic imbalances. For instance, the Nigerian population annual growth rate is estimated as 3.5 percent with accompanying 2.7 percent growth rate or less in agriculture which is largely insufficient to meet food needs of the entire population (NBS 2017).

This study became necessary in view of the fact that most food intervention programmes have not yielded the desired results in most African countries including Nigeria because they have failed to study what drive the food security among different population groups but have majorly relied on templates from other climes with different scenarios. In some cases, most of the implementing partners have been using what obtained in other regions to tackle the problem of food insecurity in Nigeria which has not been working at desired level. For instance, food programmes in the north eastern parts of the country where there have been humanitarian crises triggered by boko haram insurgency have exposed these lapses and confirmed that indeed majority of the implementing partners from international NGOs to UN agencies lacked clear knowledge and information on what drive the food security status of people particularly the vulnerable groups in a country as big as Nigeria with diverse sociopolitical and economic characteristics based on their own convictions and perceptions thus making it difficult to design appropriate food programmes of intervention.

Material and methods

This study was conducted in south western Nigeria by sampling 161 households using multistage random sampling technique. Primary data collected with the aid of structured questionnaires were used for this study. South West Nigeria was selected based on its strategic importance to food production in Nigeria and at a time all talks on food insecurity in Nigeria have been centered on North East due to insurgency problems there. Furthermore, food security status of the sampled households in the study area were computed based on perception of heads or other appointed representatives on prevailing food security situation in their respective households. This method is innovative in assessing food security of the households to avoid the criticisms based on shortcomings that have always associated with the traditional food indicators that have been used for the same purpose by different authors using various indicators.

Food security based on perception of household heads/appointed representatives

In assessing food security of the households based on this technique, the following questions were asked from the representatives of the households who were heads or designated individuals familiar with the food supplies and consumption in the households in each case and the responses were recorded and analyzed as follows;

How best can you describe the food security situation in this household based on your perception?

- | | | |
|--------|--|-----|
| (i.) | Food secure, FS | [] |
| (ii.) | Food insecure (without hunger), FIWH | [] |
| (iii.) | Food insecure (with moderate hunger), FIMH | [] |
| (iv.) | Food insecure (with severe hunger), FISH | [] |

Factors affecting food security in the study area

After getting the food security situation among households as described above, the drivers of food security among households were examined by using binary logistic regression model as specified subsequently. For the purpose of analysis, the dependent variable was household food security based on perception of household heads or other appointed representatives on food security situation in their respective households. In doing this, households who were food secure were marked 1 while those who showed varying degrees of food insecurity like food insecurity without hunger (FIWH), food insecurity with moderate hunger (FIMH) and food insecurity with severe hunger (FISH) were categorized as 0 for the sake of binary logistic regression analysis. This study followed the works of Gujarati and Porter (2009) and Abbas et al (2017).

Specification of the logistic regression model

$$L_i = \ln\left(\frac{P_i}{1-P_i}\right) = Z_i \tag{1}$$

From the general model as specified in (1) above,

$$Z_i = \beta_0 + \beta_i X_i + \mu_i$$

Where $i = 1, 2, 3 \dots 10$. The equation (1) above can thus be rewritten as;

$$L_i = \ln\left(\frac{P_i}{1-P_i}\right) = \beta_0 + \beta_i X_i + \mu_i \tag{2}$$

(Gujarati and Porter 2009 and Abbas et al 2017)

Dependent variable = food security (food secure = 1, food insecure = 0)

X_i = explanatory variables as stated below;

Access to credit facilities (access = 1, no access = 0), access to public health facilities (access = 1, no access = 0), coping strategies (number of coping strategies used by household; 0 – 9), gender status of the household head (Male = 1, female = 0), age of the household head (in years), marital status of the household head (married = 1, otherwise = 0), major occupation of the household head (farming = 1, non-farming = 0), non-food expenditure (in naira), household total monthly income (in naira), state of location of the household (Osun = 1, Oyo = 0).

Results and Discussions

Results

The major findings of the study revealed that majority of the households investigated showed varying degrees of food insecurity and hunger in some cases. However, 39.8 percent of the households were food secure based on perception of the household heads or other appointed representatives who answered questions on prevailing food security situation of the households in the study area. Also, in terms of what drive the food security among households in the study area, eight of the ten explanatory variables specified in the logistic regression model significantly influenced the food security of the households.

Discussions

The results of the analysis of food security status of households in the study area as shown on Table 1 reveal that food insecurity in the study area is not only high but approaching a dangerous dimension considering the percentage of households that still live with varying degrees of hunger despite previous interventions aimed at halting the trend among the vulnerable population. The implication of these findings as shown on Table 1 is that based on the perception of the household heads and other appointed representatives of the households, majority of the households agree that they are consuming less than required quantity and quality of their preferred food items necessary for their active and healthy living and as such will require external interventions that could ensure provision of foods for immediate consumption or actions that could boost their income generation through sustainable livelihoods that would enable them to acquire their preferred foods for active and healthy living as recommended by United Nations.

Table 1: Classification of households into food security statuses

Food security status	Number of households	Percentage
FS	64	39.8
FIWH	43	26.7
FIMH	51	31.6
FISH	3	1.9
Total	161	100

Field survey, 2016; FS = Food secure, FIWH = Food insecure without hunger, FIMH = Food insecure with moderate hunger, FISH = Food insecure with severe hunger

Furthermore, this study as earlier hinted sought to identify those factors that influenced the food security situation of the households and these findings are as shown on Table 2 subsequently. Also, the respective influences of the specified explanatory variables on the food security status of households are as highlighted shortly;

Accessibility to credit facilities by household head

The slope of coefficient of access to credit facilities by household head is 1.475 with positive sign and significant ($p < 0.1$) suggesting that having access to credit facilities by household head increases the weighted log of odds in favour of food security in the household by 1.475. Again, based on the odds ratio as depicted on Table 2 subsequently, the results implied that when a household head had access to credit facilities, the odds of being food secure is 4.37 times more than when otherwise. In other words, when a household head had access to credit facilities, the probability of being food secure is 0.29 (29 percent) more than when otherwise when other factors are held constant. These findings are consistent with findings of Amaza et al (2008), Muche et al (2014) and Arene and Anyaeji (2010) but in contrast with those of Babatunde et al (2007a) and Babatunde et al (2007b).

Accessibility to public health facilities

The slope of coefficient of accessibility to public health facilities by household members is 1.311 with positive sign and significant ($p < 0.05$) suggesting that having access to public health facilities increases the weighted log of odds in favour of food security in the household by 1.311. Again, based on the odds ratio as depicted on Table 2 subsequently, the results implied that when a household had access to public healthcare facilities, the odds of being food secure is 3.71 times more than when the situation is otherwise. In other words, when the household had access to public healthcare facilities, the probability of being food secure is 0.19 (19 percent) more than when the situation is contrary. These findings are well in line with a priori expectation especially considering the utilization dimension of food security but in contrast with the findings of Obayelu (2012) that reported contrary.

Coping strategies utilized by households during food shortages

The coping strategies (0 – 9) employed by households during food shortage gave a slope of coefficient of -1.312, a negative sign and highly significant ($p < 0.01$) suggesting that with every one-unit increase in the number of coping strategies adopted by household, the weighted log of odds in favour of food security decreases by 1.312. Again, based on the odds ratio as depicted on Table 2 subsequently, the results implied that when the number of adopted coping strategies increased by 1, the odds of being food secure decreased by a factor of 0.27. In other words, when the number of adopted coping strategies by household during food shortage increased by one-unit, the probability of being food secure decreased by 0.20 (20 percent) when other factors are held constant. These findings are in line with a priori expectation which stated that food security level decreases with increasing number of adopted coping strategies employed by household just as a household that is completely food secure does not use any coping strategy due to food sufficiency being experienced in such household. These results are in congruent with Okwoche and Benjamin (2012).

Age of the household head

The slope of coefficient of age household head is 0.063, with a positive sign and significant ($p < 0.05$) suggesting that for every one-year increase in the age of household head, the weighted log of odds in favour of food security increases by 0.063. Again, based on the odds ratio as depicted on Table 2 subsequently, the results implied that when the age of the household head increases by a year, the odds of being food secure also increases by a factor of 1.06 (107 percent). In other word, when the age of a household head increases by a year, the probability of being food secure increases by 0.0096 (0.1 percent) when other factors are held constant. These findings are in line with a priori expectation that household headed by old person tends to show higher degree of food security because they have among other things relatively more years of working experience especially those who are working with government and other paid jobs and this in most cases translates to more income accruable to the household on one hand and food security on the other hand. These findings are in congruent with those of Iorlamen et al (2013), Obayelu (2012) and Mitiku et al (2012) which reported similar findings but however in contrast with Babatunde et al (2007a) and Babatunde et al (2007b) that reported contrary findings.

Marital status of the household head

The slope of coefficient of marital status of household head is -3.643, with a negative sign and highly significant ($p < 0.01$) suggesting that with a household being headed by a married person, the weighted log of odds in favour of food security decreases by 3.643. Again, based on the odds ratio as depicted on Table 2, the results implied that when a household is headed by a married person, the odds of being food secure 0.03 (3 percent) lesser than when otherwise. In other word, when a household is headed by a married person, the probability of being food secured is 0.72 (72 percent) lesser than when otherwise when other factors are held constant. These results are in congruent with the findings of Obayelu (2012) which reported that household headed by married persons showed less food security than when the situation is contrary which might have been as a result of fewer people or in some cases only one person in a household when the head is not married.

Major occupation of the household head

The slope of coefficient of major occupation of household head is -1.051. The negative sign is significant ($p < 0.1$) suggesting that having farming as major occupation of household head decreases the weighted log of odds in favour of food security in the household by 1.051. Again, based on the odds ratio as depicted on Table 2 subsequently, the results implied that when the major occupation of a household head is farming, the odds of being food secure is 0.35 times less than when the major occupation of household head is non-farming. In other word, when the major occupation of a household head is farming, the probability of being food secure is 0.16 (16 percent) less than when the major occupation is non-farming when other factors are held constant. These findings are in agreement with Okwoche and Benjamin (2012) which reported similar findings but however in contrast with the findings of Omotesho et al (2006) and Obayelu (2012) which held that farming as major occupation headed households were more food secure. Households headed by someone with non-farming as major occupation could possibly have shown more food security than ones headed by someone with farming as major occupation due to disparity in income as those with non-farming major occupation might have had access to different varieties of food items for his households unlike the one headed by farmer who relied solely on seasonal and unsustainable food supplies from family farm.

Total monthly income of household head (Naira)

The slope of coefficient of total monthly income of the household head is $5.5e-06$, with a positive sign and significant ($p < 0.05$) suggesting that with every one-naira increase in total household monthly income, the weighted log of odds in favour of food security increases by $5.5e-06$. Again, based on the odds ratio as depicted on Table 2 subsequently, the results implied that when the total household income increased by 1 naira, the odds of being food secure also increased by a factor of 1 meaning that the household food security and total household income change in the same proportion and positive direction. Similarly, when the income of a household increased by 1 naira, the probability of household being food secure also increased by 0.000085 percent when other factors are held constant. These findings are consistent with those of Mitiku et al (2012) and Arene and Anyaeji (2010) which also reported significant and positive relationship between household income and food security in their respective studies but in contrast with the findings of Kuwenyi et al (2014) and Ndhleve et al (2013) which reported otherwise.

State of location of the household (Osun or Oyo)

The slope of coefficient of state of location of household is -1.28, with a negative sign and significant ($p < 0.05$) suggesting that with household located in Osun, the weighted log of odds in favour of food security decreases by 1.28. This is in contrast to what obtained in food security according based on food expenditure. This is unconnected with lower cost of living in Osun state as compared with what obtained in Oyo state. This is however not the case as seen here with food security based on self-report. Again, based on the odds ratio as depicted on Table 2 subsequently, the results implied that that when a household is located at Osun, the odds of being food secure is 0.278 less than when the household is located in Oyo. In other word, when a household is located in Osun, the probability of being food secure is 0.19 less than when located in Oyo.

Generally, the results showed that all the explanatory variables had marginal effects on the food security status of the households considering their relatively low p – value ($p < 0.001$). The model is considerably fit going by the values of Pseudo R^2 and percentage of correct predictions (count R^2) of 0.560 and 86.3 respectively as shown on Table 2. The Hosmer-Lemeshow χ^2 (8) value is 9.81 which showed that the model correctly fits the data.

Table 2: Results of Logit analysis identifying drivers of food security

Variables	Coefficient	SE	z – stat	p > z	Odds ratio	ME
Constant	0.2476	1.6615	0.15	0.882	-	-
+Access to credit facilities	1.4749*	0.8660	1.70	0.089	4.3706	0.2850
+Access to public health facilities	1.3112**	0.6202	2.11	0.035	3.7106	0.1949
Coping strategies utilized	-1.3117***	0.2162	-6.07	0.000	0.2694	-0.2002
+Gender	2.2734	1.4464	1.57	0.116	9.7123	0.1818
Age of the household head	0.0627**	0.0309	2.03	0.042	1.0647	0.0096
+Marital status of household head	-3.6433***	1.3962	-2.61	0.009	0.0262	-0.7195
+Major occupation of H/head	-1.0505*	0.6298	-1.67	0.095	0.3498	-0.1612
Non-food expenditure shares	0.00001	8E-06	1.37	0.172	1.0000	1.7E-06
Total household monthly income	5.5E-06**	2.8E-06	1.97	0.049	1.0000	8.5E-07
+State of location of the household	-1.2800**	0.5911	-2.17	0.030	0.2780	-0.1922
Log likelihood	-47.58	No of observations	161	Akaike info	0.728	
LR chi ² (10)	121.22	Mean marginal effects	0.188	Schwarz	0.938	
Hosmer-Lemeshow chi ² (8)	9.81	Prob. > chi ² (p-value)	0.0000			
Percentage of correct predictions	86.3	Pseudo R ²	0.5602			

Source: Estimates of the Logit analysis results for field survey, 2016; **SE:** Standard Error; **ME:** Marginal effects; **(+)** represents dummy variables (0 or 1); **Dependent variable:** Food security; ***Significant at 1% level, *Significant at 10% level.

Conclusions and recommendations

From the findings of this study, it can be concluded that food insecurity in the study area is a growing concern as revealed by findings of similar studies conducted previously in the study area. The methodology used was an innovative assessment technique that is gaining ground in the assessment of food security in developing countries going by its relative simplicity particularly in terms of affordability as most developing countries lack accurate and reliable data for assessing food security. In order to overcome the problem of food insecurity and hunger in Nigeria, all hands must be on deck to addressing various factors that significantly affect the food security among households as identified by these findings by taking into consideration how each variable affects food security of the households. As an illustration to guide the stakeholders in food-sub sector, there must be policies and programmes that guarantee economic access to resources of production like credit facilities to enable the households have unhindered access to their preferred foods for their active and healthy living. Also, provision must be made for qualitative healthcare facilities that will be accessible and affordable considering the role it plays in maintaining food security particularly the utilization dimension of it which also requires good sanitation and hygiene. Furthermore, there must be adequate provision for the married and those households with more members to feed on through some social protection programmes as it is done in developed countries which could be in form of creation of employment opportunities for the young members with a view to ensuring additional income to the households to guarantee economic access to food items of their choice. Again, the major occupation of households was seen to influence food security of households negatively with households headed by someone whose major occupation is non-farming showing more food security. What this implies is that there should be policies that will encourage diversification of livelihoods among households particularly farming households whose major source of income is farming which is largely rain-fed in most African countries and mostly at subsistence level thus may not be able to sustain those who depend on it for their source of income and food round the year owing to post-harvest loss due to lack of storage facilities and other factors alike. The income as expected influenced food security of the households positively with food security increasing with income among households which could be sustained by recommendations earlier made with regards to diverse and sustained livelihoods. Finally on the state of location of households either in Osun or Oyo, it is suggested that a comprehensive and holistic assessment of food security is carried out across the geopolitical zones particularly in the whole of south west with a view to compare and contrast the food security across states and come up with policy integration that will enable the states compare notes particularly on agriculture or other income generating activities to enable the most food insecure states

embrace policies and programmes of most food secure states especially in the area of agricultural policy that deals with food production and distribution systems.

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Implementation of Voice Recording Activities in Improving Mandarin Oral Fluency

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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to investigate the effectiveness of voice recording activities in improve undergraduate language students' oral fluency in Mandarin as a foreign language. The data collected for this study from 44 year two undergraduate Level three Mandarin learners in semester 1 2016/2017 participated Online questionnaire, and data collected and analyzed according to the attitudes and effectiveness of using voice recording activities in the classroom. The study find out that voice recording activities are effective to help foreign language learners to improve oral fluency. Mandarin language teachers might consider devoting additional attention to Mandarin oral fluency teaching by using new technology like voice recording, whatApp, Wechat ect.to help Mandarin learners to improve their Mandarin oral fluency especially for learners who are shy and lack of confidence. It will help learners to improve their foreign language leaning in general.

Keywords: Mandarin oral fluency, foreign language learning, voice recording

Introduction

Mandarin course has been offered by many universities in the world. It has been offered in Islamic Science University of Malaysia since 2007, there are there levels: Mandarin I, Mandarin II and Mandarin III. It is compulsory subject for faculty of Major language studies undergraduate students. Majority of students are Malay students. Students need to complete all there levels before they graduate. Students have been taught by part time instructors since the subject has been offered till 2016. There are total fourteen weeks, three hours per class. There forty two hours for each level. Students who are taking Mandarin three have already completed Mandarin I and Mandarin II in their previous semesters, however as a new lecture in faulty major language studies, I have been observed students in Mandarin III are not able to speak even simple sentences in Mandarin, some of them even cannot pronounce some of Pinyin which they should be able to master it at their Mandarin I. Another issue I have faced is a lack of opportunities for students to speak Mandarin outside the classroom. In the Mandarin as a foreign language (MFL) setting, generally, the only chance for students speaking Mandarin occurs in the classroom. Learners are very shy and passive in the class activities at beginning of semester. One of research has been done by Siti Maziha & Nik Suryani Melor Md (2010) the factors discourage Malay students participate in classroom activities are:

- (1) Negative classmate traits ways such as creating disturbances, testing, not being cooperative or patient.
- (2) Negative lecture trains ways such as lectures' poor teaching skills, being impatient and unapproachable.
- (3) Negative students' traits such as afraid to speak in the foreign language, afraid to make mistakes and did not want to feel embarrassed in front of class.

Those factors discourage students from participating in class activities. As foreign language learners the main objective of learning foreign language is to be able to communicate with the target language. One of the ways to help learners to improve their oral fluency is to speak the target language inside and outside of classroom. Another study has been done

by Pandianet al. (2011) who stressed that students' inability to speak as fluently as they can is often reflected as unwillingness and lack of confidence when it comes to speaking. Most of the students often need to be encouraged by their lecturers to participate in speaking activities. Students should realize that when they are in the university; they must be physically and mentally prepared to face all challenges.

This study aims to investigate the effectiveness of voice recording activities in improve undergraduate language students' oral fluency in foreign language classrooms.

Literature Review

2.1 Voice recording activities

Technology use in the foreign language classroom is not new now, it has been moving from audiotapes to CD. Unwieldy cassette players and poor-quality microphones are a thing of the past. Now, modern technology in the form of digital audio recording offers unprecedented ease in student-produced voice recordings in classroom settings. Digital audio recording is a useful tool in foreign language classrooms where a primary goal is for students to practice speaking the target language, hear how they sound, and improve their speaking proficiency. This kind of self-monitoring is an important part of language production for all levels of foreign language learners.

Nowadays Free, easy-to-use smartphone application such as voice recorder is tool that facilitates and document student practice speaking the target language. By recording themselves speaking with the application, students' original language production is recorded and students have the opportunity to go back and hear their own speaking before they send it to their language instructors. Students are able to reflect on their accent, grammar, fluency, intonation, etc. The power of audio recordings is that the student can build up a whole collection of recordings that show their development over a period of time. These can easily be shared with their peers and instructors. Voice recording App is to be one of the easiest tools that language learners used for making simple audio recordings. Learners just need to click one button, record their voice and then choose from a variety of ways of saving the recording including as a downloadable MP3 file. They can send their audio file to their class whatsapp group for their language instructors and their peers to view and get feedback.

2.2 Voice recording activities in improving students' oral fluency

Study has been done by Pop, Tomuletiu, & David voice recording tools have been introduced and used in a variety of ways in language instruction in an attempt to provide learners with opportunities to produce oral output "as they allow language students to practice and enhance their speaking skills outside the classroom while receiving feedback on their performance" (2011, p. 119). With easy-to-use voice recording available on smart phones, learners can capture their speaking for self-assessment. The development of mobile and tablet applications are offering numerous ways for students to explore their own voice by recording themselves speaking. The teachers can then listen and provide feedback on their oral performance or get students to review or even self-review their work.

2.3 Statement of the Problem

Malay undergraduate students in Mandarin III are not able to speak the target language although they have completed the Mandarin I and Mandarin II; some of them even cannot pronounce Pinyin properly which they should master it in Mandarin I. There are no full time instructors to teaching this subject since the subject has been offered in 2007 till 2016. The part time instructors are not well-trained to teach this subject. Students are lack opportunities to speak the target language that often and they have no confidence to speak in the target language since they are afraid to make mistakes.

To study foreign language, learners should be able to read, write, comprehend and speak. These are four skills are emphasized by all of the language learners. The speaking skills are the most of important skills, because to be able to communicate is the main objective of foreign language learning. See &Ching (2013) in their study mentioned that more attention should be paid on the audio-oral skills because the main reason an individual learns a foreign language is to communicate in the language especially orally. However, study find out those students experienced the most stress when having to give face-to-face oral presentations with the instructor. (Woodrow, 2006) Research hopes that through this study to find out the perception of students towards the oral recording activities and effectiveness of these activities in improving learners' oral fluency. The study hopes to answer the following research questions:

1. What is learner's attitude towards voice recording activities in foreign language classroom?

2. How effective of voice recording activities in learners' oral fluency?

2.4. Classroom participation

Classroom participation is very important because students' learning taking place through classroom participation (L.S. Vygotsky, 1978) according to L.S Vygotsky students' learning through social interaction and cultural. Therefore, classroom as social context which students interact each other through the classroom activates. L.S. Vygotsky's theory emphasized that teacher-student and students-students interaction becomes medium of sharing knowledge and communication. Thought interaction students are communicating each other. However, through observation the researcher realizes that majority of Malaysian university students are not eager to participate in the class activities, they are not willing to speaking in front of peers. The factors of discourage Malaysia undergraduate students from participate in the classroom in the foreign language There are few studies found that the factors of discourage Malay undergraduate students to participate in class activities. Voice recorder has been required in BMA3033 class. Students are using voice recorder in their free time to record the topics have been given by their instructor. Its help students and motivate foreign language learners to practice their listening and speaking skills more often after class.

2.5 purpose of this study

The main purpose of the current study aims to assess the extent of voice recording activities to improve Malay undergraduate students' oral fluency in Mandarin language based on the module provided. It also helps lecturers to choose suitable strategies and approach in teaching Mandarin language. Besides that, this study also helps the lecturer to build up self confidence among students in speaking foreign language inside and outside classroom.

3. Research Methodology

3.1 Participants

The data used in in this study collected by 60 university undergraduate students who were enrolled in Mandarin level three classes during semester one academic year 2016/2017. All of them are year two major in Arabic and communication non-native mandarin speaker. Those students have completed Mandarin level one and level two in their previous semesters. Two instruments were used in this study. One was a student online survey questionnaire and other on is based on classroom observation.

3.2. Data collection

This research has conducted in semester one 2016/2017 academic year. The research used a set of online questionnaire which set in Google form send it to the participants at the end of semester. The objective of survey has been informed students before they complete the questionnaire. There were 44 students out of 60 responded online questionnaires. The questionnaire is divided into two parts. First part includes items to gather information about learner's attitude towards voice recording activities in Mandarin classroom. The part two includes items to gather information of the research objectives. The participants of this research were students who took Level 3 Mandarin as a foreign language course in Islamic Science university of Malaysia Nilai campus. The sample of this research consists of respondents. After all of the questionnaires were returned, the researcher first checked the number of completed questionnaires to determine the number of respondents involved in this research.

4. Data Analysis and Results

Quantitative data from student survey were analyzed via the online survey tool "Google form".

The data collected by Google Form were analysis.

4.1. Learners' attitude towards voice recording activists in Mandarin language learning.

Table

Table 1. Participants' attitude towards using the voice recording actives in Mandarin learning

	Always	Usually	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
I redo the voice recording entries when the speech does not	45.5%	25%	15.9%	3%	3%

flow well.					
I redo the voice recording entries when the intonation does not sound right.	38.6%	27.3%	18.2%	9.1%	6.8%
I redo the voice recording entries when there are grammatical mistakes on it.	31.8%	45.5%	13.6%	2.3%	6.8%
I redo the voice recording entries when the word choice is not quite right.	29.5%	36.4%	18.2%	9.1%	6.8%
I redo the voice recording entries when the pronunciation does not sound right	27.3%	45.5%	15.9%	4.5%	6.8%
I redo the voice recording entries when the organization of ideas is not right.	29.5%	36.4%	18.2%	9.1%	6.8%
I practice my mandarin voice recording on regular basis.	38.6%	29.5%	27.3%	2.3%	2.3%
I always listen to the voice recording sent by my classmates.	22.7%	27.3%	40.9%	9.1%	0
I always listen to others 'recording to improve my own recording	34.1%	34.1%	20.5%	4.5%	6.8%

From the table above we can conclude that the attitude of using voice recording in improve learners' Mandarin oral fluency is quiet positive. Learners practiced before they send their final work to their group WhatsApp group. After their first attempt learners normally will listen to their work first, once they realize there are some errors they will redo their voice recording. Sometimes they will listen to their peers' work that has sent early in order to improve their own work. From the data collected the research found out that 92.2% of learners would like to listen to their peers work in order to improve their own work. Learner will redo their voice recording when the pronunciation and intonation does not sound right, or speech does not flow well, or there are some grammatical errors. There are less than 10% of learners will not redo their work.

After one semester I have been observing my Mandarin three students from both classroom, I have found that learners' Mandarin speaking have been improving from not be able to produce simple sentence to able to introduce themselves in complex sentences with minor errors in their presentation. The attitudes of Learners' participation are also positive: majority of learners are willing to participant in class activities and eager to speak out in class who are very shy at beginning of semester.

4.2. Effectiveness of using voice recording in learning Mandarin language by Malay foreign language learners.

4.2.1 Improve listening skills

Majority of students have trouble understanding every spoken Mandarin word when they first listen to the conversation or presentation which their peers have posted in their WhatsApp group. Later they can listen to it again and hear any of the words they might have missed the first time. These recordings will also help students become familiar with the sound of their classmates while they speak.

The results from participants' survey indicate that 62.5% of the students agreed and 25% strongly agreed that the Voice Recorder activities helped their listening skills. Students' statements indicate that the reason for this is mainly because students could listen to others' recorded for each time again and again until they could understand it and get some idea for their own work. Another reason has been given that the language instructors' feedback provides the learners opportunities to improve their listening skills. Thus the tool offered the students more listening opportunities.

4.2.2 Improve pronunciation

Improving learners' pronunciation is an important goal when learning Mandarin, due to unique of tone language of Mandarin, good pronunciation is even more important because will cause misunderstanding between speaker and receivers if your do not pronounce correctly. Voice recorder is a useful tool to help learners to improve their pronunciation.

From data collected is this study, researcher found out that 36.4% of participants strongly agree and 54.5% of participants agree that this voice recording activity help them improved their Mandarin pronunciation. The reasons have been given that learners record their own speaking on regular basis, and then they can listen back to the recording. Listening back the aim is to find incorrect tones and other repeated mistakes. After listening back they pick up the wrong pronunciations and

correct it then re-record the work that correcting the mistakes or problems that they found earlier. Learners are trying to do this on regular basis with a new passage of text and to make sure their Mandarin pronunciations are getting better from time to time.

4.2.3 Improve grammar

From the data collected there are 31.8% of participants strong agree and 59.1% of participants agree that this voice recording activities helped them to improve their Mandarin grammar accuracy. There are less than 10% (9.1%) of participants disagree that the activity helped with their grammar accuracy. In terms of grammatical accuracy in oral output, learners generally performed better after Self-reflection. This has been approved by many researchers (Cooke, 2013; Huang, 2008; Lynch, 2007; Stillwell et al., 2009)

4.2.4 Help learners with their speaking skills

When learners speak Chinese they are not aware of their own pronunciation, tone and voice. Recording their own voice and listen it back can help them to be aware of their own mistakes. They can record as many times as they want and try to compare the files will reveal their strength and weaknesses. This reflection will help learners in improving their oral fluency. Data from this study find out that 97% of participants indicated that voice recording activities help them a lot in their Mandarin speaking skills, only 3% of participants indicated that this activity help them a little in their Mandarin speaking skills. One of participant wrote that "using voice recording to record what I want to say and then can listen to my own voice. I used to force myself to listen to the sound bites until I understood every word and then I would reply myself. This was much more like a real conversation, but being able to listen as many times as I wanted. I believe that using voice recording is a great way to increase our confidence in improving our Mandarin speaking skills, exercising our ability to communicate in Mandarin using real-life conversation".

4.2.5 Help learners with their self-reflection and confidence

Mennim (2003) suggested that rehearsed oral output and revisions of their recording after self-reflection would promote more sophisticated and complex use of vocabulary and language form. Students notice their use of simple vocabulary in their recordings. Increase in complexity after recording, self-assessing and revising students' oral output. Learners do a lot of practices record their own voice before they are satisfied with their final pieces of the work. Each time they record and listen it back they might find their weakness and try to improve it. The more times they record their own work, the better they are getting. After they sent their final work to their whatApp group, they received the comment and feedback from their peers and language instructions. This gives them more confidence and courage to speak more in target language. One of participant mentioned in the survey " it gives me confidence to speak Chinese fluently" another participant also indicate that " it rise my confidence in speaking the language more often and I am not afraid now to make mistakes."

5. Conclusion and Signos

The study investigated the voice recording activities in Mandarin language in improving learner's oral fluency. The integration of voice recording of learners' own practices outside classroom could be useful for promoting students' oral output outside the classroom as well as awareness of their performance and strengthening their sense of ownership over their own learning.

Voice recording activities give a lot of benefits to improve Mandarin oral fluency among Malay undergraduate students. The findings of the study indicate that students' interest in learning Mandarin speaking skills is influenced by this activity. The voice recording allows the students to practice speaking Mandarin language fluently with the guidance from the lecturer. Besides that, voice recording activities were fun, motivating, and useful to help avoiding the gap between active students and passive students, helpful to build self-esteem and confidence among students. The learning process also becomes more student-centered rather than a teacher-centered. Therefore it is important to create an environment that will support the students' learning process and offer opportunities for acquiring Mandarin speaking skills as well as other basic skills in Mandarin language. Pop, Tomuletiu, & David mentioned that attempt to provide learners with opportunities to produce oral output "as they allow language students to practice and enhance their speaking skills outside the classroom while receiving feedback on their performance" (2011, p. 1199). There is no doubt that more research is needed to investigate the audio-based activities in improving foreign language learners' oral performance.

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The Communication Process in Tribal War Tradition in Timika, Papua, Indonesia: A Symbolic Interaction Perspective

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Abstract

Indonesia is a large and socially heterogeneous country because it covers more than 1,340 ethnic groups. The country is rich of various cultural traditions. The diversity of cultural traditions in Indonesia is interestingly studied both as a material of scientific study and as an source to formulate appropriate socio-economic development policy approaches. One of the regions/islands in Indonesia is Papua, which is located in the eastern part of Indonesia. In this region there are more than 500 ethnic groups. Ethnic groups in Papua, is the most traditional ethnic group compared to those in Indonesia. One tradition that is still strongly held in Papua is tribal war. Therefore it is a very interesting phenomenon studied in terms of social science, especially communication science. The symbolic interactionism perspective as a communication approach is used in this study to explain how the communication process occurs in traditional war process between tribes, both in the internal communication of tribes and communications between tribes. This study describes the phenomenon of war between tribes according to the view or the consciousness and subjective meaning of traditional/indeginuous people in Timika, in accordance with the phenomenology tradition that is used in this research. The findings of this study are illustrates the process of communication, beginning from preparation of war, the implementation of war, as well as post-war process. Communication processes that occur either through verbal or non-verbal language are full of distinctive symbols. The conclusion of this finding is that tribal war as a social phenomenon is a communication process, and can be solved by the parties by means of communication. These findings could have implications for the importance of policies to develop communication approaches among traditional tribes in Papua, in order to increase the understanding among them, which in turn will reduce the level of conflict between them.

Keywords: symbolic- interactionism, tribal-war, Papua

Introduction

1. Background

Indonesia is a large and socially heterogeneous country because it covers more than 1,340 ethnic groups. The country is rich of various cultural traditions. The diversity of cultural traditions in Indonesia is interesting to study both as a subject of scientific study and as a consideration to formulate appropriate socio-economic development policy approaches. One of the regions / islands in Indonesia is Papua, which is located in the eastern part of Indonesia. In this region there are more than 500 ethnic groups. Ethnic groups in Papua, is the most traditional ethnic ones compared to others in Indonesia. One tradition that is still held in Papua is tribal war. This tradition still exists in Papua, therefore it is a very interesting phenomenon to study in terms of social science, especially communication science.

One of the locations and community groups studied in this research is the seven tribal communities in Timika, Papua. In the traditional seven-tribal societies of Timika Papua, inter-ethnic war can be said to be part of their tradition and as part of their way of "solving" problems among different ethnic communities. In Timika, there are currently seven tribes that are recognized as residents of Mimika Regency, namely: Dani, Amungme, Kamoro, Moni, Damal, Ekari, and Mee. Of the seven tribes, in fact, the original tribe of Mimika Regency is only two tribes, namely Amungme and Kamoro. The other five tribes are migrants from neighboring areas of Mimika Regency.

One example of a tribal war case in Timika was a tribal war that occurred in March 2007, placed in Kwamki Lama Timika. This tribal war is quite large because it involves 2,000 citizens. This war occurred between the Dani tribe against the Damal tribe, but in its expansion also involves the Amungme and Moni Tribe. The impact of this war, died 18 people and injured 300 people. However, since the war has become a tradition of tribal peoples in Timika, tribal wars often occur. The last tribal war occurred at the end of 2016 triggered by land issues.

The process of communication in traditional war as a social process is in fact closely related to the culture of society itself, therefore the symbols used in the communication process cannot be separated from the symbols of their culture. The relationship between communication and culture is a very complex and intimate one. First, cultures are created through communication; that is, communication is the means of human interaction through which cultural characteristics, roles, rules, rituals, laws, or other patterns-are created and shared. Culture and communication have been defined and re-defined repeatedly, as are intrinsically human (García-Carbonell, A. and Rising, B, 2006: 1).

The approach of symbolic interactionism as a communication approach can be used to explain how the interaction process occurs in the traditional war process between the tribes, both in the internal communications of tribes and communications between warring tribes, starting from the preparation of war, the implementation of war, and post-war divorce process. The process of communication that occurs either through verbal or non-verbal language is interesting to be studied because it is full of distinctive symbols

2. State of The Art

This state of the art includes, the expected output and focus of the study, the conceptual framework of the study, and the methods undertaken.

a. Expected output and focus of the study

This study is aimed at revealing the communication process in Timika from the perspective of symbolic interactionism. The inter-ethnic war is full of verbal and non-verbal communication symbols. The uniqueness of symbols and what its meaning is for the warring all parties in war is interesting to reveal.

b. Conceptual Framework

This study tries to describe the phenomenon of inter-ethnic war according to the view or the consciousness and subjective meaning of the actors of war in Timika, the tradition used in this research is the phenomenology. The term phenomenology can be used as a generic term to refer to all social science views that place human consciousness and its subjective meaning as the focus for understanding social action, such as Max Weber's views, Charles Horton Cooley, George Herbert Mead, William I Thom, Alfred Schutz, George Simmel, Herbert Blummer, Erving Goffman, Peter L. Berger, Thomas Luckman and the psychologists Carl Rogers, Abraham Maslow and Erich Fromm (Mulyana, 2001: 20-21).

Phenomenological approaches is categorized to subjective or interpretive approaches, which view humans as active, in contrast to objective approaches or behavioristic and structural approaches that assuming humans are passive (Mulyana, 2001: 59). Phenomenology makes actual lived experience of the basic data of reality (Littlejohn, 1996: 204). Phenomenology means letting everything become real as it is, without forcing the categories of researchers against it. An objective scientist hypothesized a particular structure and then examined whether such a structure exists, a phenomenologist never hypothesized, but thoroughly investigated the real direct experience to see how it seems (Kuswarno, 2007)

There are two main approaches in the phenomenology tradition: symbolic interactionism and ethno-methodology (Bogdan & Taylor, 1975). Symbolic interaction, also known as one of communication science perspective, becomes the foundation of thought and analysis in this research. Symbolic interaction contains the basic core of the premise of communication and society.

Symbolic interactionism studies the nature of interactions that are dynamic human activities, in contrast to structural approaches that focus on the individual and his personality traits, or how social structures shape certain individual behaviors. The symbolic interaction perspective sees that individuals are active, reflective and creative, interpreting, displaying complex and unpredictable behaviors. This belief rejects the idea that the individual is a passive organism whose behavior is determined by forces or structures outside of himself. Because individuals are constantly changing, society

changes through interaction. So interaction is considered an important variable that determines human behavior, not the structure of society. The structure itself is created and changed by human interaction, ie when individuals think and act stably against the same set of objects (Mulyana 2001: 62)..

Reviewing the communication process from the perspective of symbolic interaction in tribal war in Timika is inseparable from the verbal and nonverbal symbols that are at the core of communication, since communication will never take place if no symbols are exchanged. In other words, this study discusses the behavior of communications (the use of the symbol of communication) in a phenomenological perspective.

Verbal communication encompasses any form of communication involving words, spoken, written or signed. Verbal communication coexists alongside non-verbal communication, which can affect people's perceptions and exchanges in subtle but significant ways. Non-verbal communication includes body language, such as gestures, facial expressions, eye contact and posture. The sound of our voice, including pitch, tone and volume are also forms of non-verbal communication. The clothing we wear and the way we design our living space are also forms of non-verbal communication that frequently shape people's judgments about others, regardless of whether or not the perceptions are true (Lucas, 2017)

In the science of communication, there is a study that is able to touch verbal and nonverbal communication in a holistic view, i.e. ethnographic study of communication. The ethnography of communication was introduced and developed by Dell Hymes. Hymes proposed the term 'ethnography of speaking', later amended to 'ethnography of communication', to describe a new approach to understanding language in use (Hymes, 1964). Essentially, Hymes argues that the ethnography of communication ... is concerned with the question of how to do it. (Farah, 1998: 125). The ethnography of communication views communication behavior as a behavior born out of the integration of skills that every individual has as a social being. These three skills consist of linguistic skills, interaction skills and cultural skills. In other words, ethnography of communication is a study that places the function of speaking in a sociocultural context (Suciasih, 2003)

In describing and analyzing communication behavior, ethnographic communication does so by analyzing acts of speech, which are at the core of communication events in certain situations. Speech that is the object of ethnographic communication research, according to Hymes is generally conterminous with a single interaction function, such as referential references, requests, orders, and nonverbal symbols (Ibrahim, 1992: 35-37).

Communication ethnography describes communication symbols as 'what' is exchanged as indicated in Table 1.

Tabel 1. Codes and Channel of Communication

		Channel	
		Vocal	Non-Vocal
Code	Verbal	Oral-Language	Written language Sign language Whistling language Morse Code
	Non-Verbal	Paralinguistic characteristics and personal characteristics	Gesture sign eye movement picture and cartoons

(Source: Ibrahim, 1992:217, translated)

2.3. Methods of study

a. Location and subject of the study

In accordance with the research topic on the communication of Tribal War Tradition in Timika, the research location is in Timika Papua. Timika is a regency capital named Mimika Regency. Geographically this district is located in the southern part of Papua province (see Figure 1).

In this regency the location of mining contract work of PT. Freeport Indonesia is implemented. The existence of this mining contract also made Timika which in the 70s only a small village that is very remote in Papua slowly but surely developed into a village in the 80s then developed into the district in the 90s, and has now become a regency

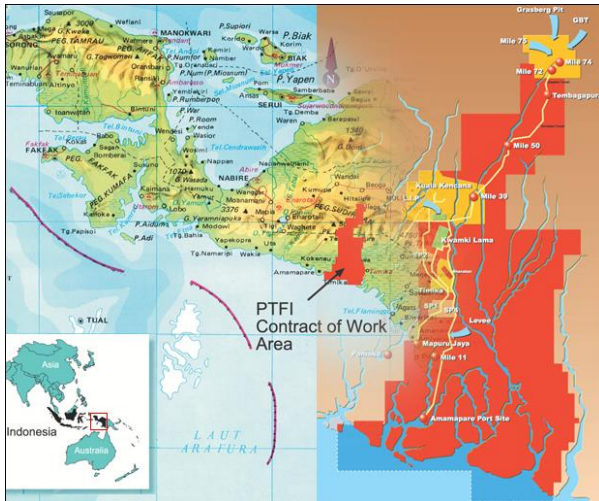


Figure 1. The map of study location

The indigenous people of the Mimika Regency, which used to be only two ethnic groups of the Kamoro tribe in the South Coast and Amungme Tribes domiciled in the northern mountains, increased by five tribes from neighboring districts. The immigrant tribes are Nduga, Moni, Mee, Dani and Damal. With the increasing number of tribes in Mimika regency then the complexity of the people in Mimika become more and more, and the chances of conflict become higher. Thus, tribal wars are often inevitable, even often a large-scale war.

Nevertheless, for traditional Papuan societies in general, tribal war is one of tradition or part of their lives, as part of their way of expressing their self-esteem and family attributes. With that background, then the subject of research on the study of tribal war are Papuans in Timika who became perpetrators in tribal wars in Timika

b. Process of Approach and Determination of Informants

What is meant by the process of approach here is what is meant by Creswell (1998: 130) as "gaining access and making rapport". Gaining closeness with community leaders, even tribal chiefs or warlords in Papua is not easy, as they generally have a high suspicion of 'foreign' people, especially those from outside of Papua whom they categorize as straight-haired people. This is understandable because they were raised in a society that has a tradition of tribal war, so caution, alertness, and suspicion of the 'foreigner' are always part of their already internalized way of life. But for me as the researcher, having worked as a Papuan development consultant in Timika since 1999, even living in Timika for three years (2001-2004), the proximity to the subject is no longer a problem, as the community leaders has become the 'care' of researchers.

In the study of phenomenology, the criteria of good informants are "all individuals studied represent people who have experienced the phenomenon" (Creswell, 1998: 118). Thus, in this study, the selected informant was actually a Papuan citizen in Timika who was a perpetrator of the tribal war .



Figure 2. Taking picture with Yacobus Kogoya (the centre) Warlord of Dani

As for the number of informants selected, this study uses Creswell's (1998: 122) opinion as a methodological reference. Creswell stated "for a phenomenological study, the process of collecting information involves primarily in-depth interviews (see, e.g. the discussion about the long interview in McCracken, 1988) with as many as 10 individuals. I have seen the number of interviewees referenced in studies range from 1 (Dukes, 1984) up to 325 (Polkinghorne, 1989). Dukes (1984) recommends studying 3 to 10 subjects, and Riemen (1986) study included 10. The important point is to describe the meaning of small number individuals who have experienced the phenomenon. With in-depth interview lasting as long as 2 hours (Polkinghorne, 1989)

10 subjects in a study represents a reasonable size.



Figure 3. Taking picture with Aser Murib (left) warlord of Damal tribe

Based on Creswell's reference, in this study four tribal war perpetrators in Timika Papua and 1 Timika resident as a witness to the incident were interviewed. The four tribal warriors in Timika are Moses Tsolme, Herminus Kogoya (Dani tribe, war strategy strategist), Aser Murib (Warlord of Damal Tribe), and James Kogoya (leader of the Dani tribe, commander of War of Dani), as shown on Figure 2, figure 3, and figure 4. These four men were the main actors in the tribal war tradition in Timika

c. Techniques and Time of Data Collection

This study was conducted from 2007 until 2017. At the time one of the largest tribal warfare occurred in March 2000. The technique of data collection was interview technique. Interviews were conducted openly and unstructured in a free and relaxed atmosphere, documentation of interview results through audio tape recorder (tape recorder) and image recorder (digital camera).

The most important of the interview process in the phenomenology study is the taking of informant data about their explanation of the life experience of a small number of informants. Interviews followed Moustakas' suggestion cited by Kuswarno in Mulyana and Solatun (2007) that "The phenomenological interview involves an informal, interactive process and utilizes open-ended comment and questions". Therefore, in this study as well as phenomenological research in general, in-depth interviews are the preferred data collection techniques. Therefore, with the community leaders, the interview process took place very easily and can be done anywhere depending on the agreement, in the hotel where researchers stay, in the car while walking to see the situation of the village community, or in the office company owned by them, even in their own homes



Figure 4. interviewing Yacobus Kogoya (third from left) and Herminus Kogoya (right)

3. Fact Finding and Result

There are 2 (two) main findings of this research, namely (1) The meaning of war for the people of Timika, and (2) The process of tribal war that can be constructed as stages.

a. The meaning of war for traditional Papuans in Timika

For traditional Papuan societies in general, tribal war is one of tradition or part of their lives, as part of their way of expressing their self-esteem and family attributes. In addition, tribal wars mean solidarity as a family or a tribe. If one resident feels hurt or disturbed

In tribal wars, there are symbols that are full of meaning, could be consisting of clothing attributes, non verbal symbols either with movement or human voice. The symbols are attached to the activities of the war itself. Apart from that, in the tribal war, there have been organizational structures of war, the division of roles and rules/norms to be obeyed. One interesting feature of this traditional war is the "gentleman" attitude as part of the agreed rules in the relationship between the two hostile parties. This gentleman's attitude is characterized by the obedience of both parties to the rules of the game in war.

b. Stages of war

in this study, the tribal war in Timika can be constructed as a process consisting of several stages. This construction process is referred to as the ideal type of Weber, the construct of the second degree of Schutz, Grounded theory of Glaser, the second order concept of Denzin (see Mulyana, 2001)

In each of these steps, there is a communication process with distinctive symbols (symbolic interaction occurs). Stages with its communication process are described as follows

1) Stages of War Initiation

The stage of war initiation is a condition of the emergence of triggering factors of war. The triggering factors of war may vary, among them most often arising from issues triggered by cases of rape, adultery, theft of pigs or murder. Once the trigger case occurs, the aggrieved (usually the closest of the family, his or her parents, her husband, her brother) will deliver a very emotional anger to her immediate family environment. Emotional expressions of words also appear, for example "the person must be killed" or "we must fight". So began the family "meeting" to realize his emotional will. The person who has the idea for battle is then called the "*oknum*" (Person). It is this person who then provokes the family of one tribe to fight

His initial provocation stage was to visit tribal chiefs and community leader in his tribe. He tried to convince in a fiery language that he himself, his family and his tribe had been offended, then the ransom had to fight. Thus, tribal chiefs and community leaders and individuals then held meetings to decide the war. The process of meeting was colored with a very emotional communication situation. Occasionally there are shouts that rekindle the spirit of war of all citizens who attended the meeting. After it was agreed to take a war decision, a war organization was formed: the War Tribal Chief, Warlord, Warrior and War Force/troops



Figure 5. A group of war organization, chief of tribe, warlord, and troops.

Chief of Tribe is the highest level in a war organization, its job is to oversee all troop members. Warlord is the second tier, who is in charge of organizing a war strategy, including setting to the points where troops should move. The third level is "*Oknum*" (person), that is, people who have war or are exposed to issues that cause war (illustrated in figure 5)

2) Stage of Challenge Fight



Figure 6. a group of people are standing by for

The stage of the war's challenge is the stage in which the party poses a challenge to fight the opponent. The challenge is done by way of coming to the opponent's location by grouping in a battle-ready dress. In an open space or field they gather together yelling out war chimes. The yells are, "I am a man, I am coming for war". Then together they yell "uuuu ... uuuu ... uuuu" with a typical high-pitched voice of the Papuan people. The opposite party usually has been prepared too with war alerts. So in that location the two concentration of people have faced to faced for the war ready period (Figure 6)

3) Stage of war execution

By the time the war is about to begin, both sides wear traditional "costumes" of war, ie clothing with *koteka*, with body and "Make Up" faces streaked in white. The goal is to disguise the face so it will not cause a grudge if the war is over. Weapons are usually in the form of arrows, spears, *katepel* and shield (protective equipment and weapons repellent)



Figure 7. a group of war-force are implementing war startegy

War can begin if each of the hostile groups faces directly at a predetermined place and time. The usual place for war is an open place.

Before the war began usually each group shouts yell-yell of challenges war. Yell - yell is in their native language "I am a man, I come to war". Plus yell-shouts of war together "uuuu u uuu uuuu u" with the typical high-pitched voice of the Papuan people. There are also jelly-boosting tones and threats to the "person" or who have "war", for example, "Moses must be killed, not in the world!", If the person who became the person is named Moses. Yell-yell is always shouted during the war to encourage other members. If the atmosphere is heated, then their emotions are also provoked while throwing arrows or spears to their enemies If the war has occurred, then in this inter-tribal war there are rules that must be adhered to by both sides (Figure 7 and figure 8).

These customary rules, among others:

- (1) Women, children, elders, community leaders and priests should not be killed, so they are sometimes used as front armies.
- (2) The war only takes place in an area that has been agreed, beyond that area there can be no war, because in case of murder outside the area of war will be a personal grudge and become his own business is not a matter of war;
- (3) War must be open to face, do not play behind;
- (4) Should not wear / carry firearms;
- (5) There is an emergency rule of war, that is: it is permissible to steal and rape women but should not be taken unless it is to marry after the war, regardless of the widow's or virgin's status;
- (6) Before the war ends it should not shake hands or feed one another or something to the enemy, because such a thing would be considered a betrayer worse to be killed by a friend of his own;
- (7) During war there shall be no mention, other than signs or utterances commonly used as symbols of war;
- (8) If a victim dies and an evacuation occurs, the opportunity shall not be used for attack by the enemy

War burns and heats up if a victim dies and continues to grow hot before the number of victims on both sides is equal (equal in number). Nevertheless each group is not afraid because of they perceived war is a game like football. In the battle, the members of troops always move left and right while squatting occasionally upward looking at the surrounding like a dancer, this is meant to avoid the attack of arrow or spear thrown by the opponent



Figure 8. The execution of tribal war

Persons who rape women in the area of war should immediately get out of the battlefield and rest for 3 days, if not, his body will smell fragrant and hit by arrows

In the middle of the day, the pause war first begins with the shouting of "Uuuuu uuuuuuu!" And must be known both sides. This break is used for rest and lunch purposes while counting the number of dead and wounded with arrows or spears. These rest periods are also used for shopping as a war logistics necessity, as items including pigs or others outside the war area should not be stolen and women should not be raped. In logistical warfare is left to the women of each group. If the break time is over, then the war can resume after a shouting sign: "Uuuuu uuuuuuu!", and should be known by both parties as well.

If a troop sees on the opposite side there is a brother who is being targeted, then he will release an arrow right in front of his brother's face. It was a sign that his brother was being targeted and had to get out of the war area, if he did not get out soon, he would be the target of shooting arrows and be the victim

In a group of warfare there is a pre-established organization, including: War Tribal Chief, War Commander, Person (person having war). The rank of rank in war is indicated by pig piercing in the nose, the longer the fangs are attached, the higher the rank. There is also a member of the troops assigned to give the code of the situation, he did not bring an arrow but only brought cassowary and spear fur. If the cassowary feathers are fanned upwards it means that there are enemies around us, then the troops should be down but if the spear is held up it means we are safe, then the troops can go on. At night the troops can rest for sleep, during this break the guarding of each group is tightened to keep the rigging of the opposing party whether it is infiltration, theft etc.

5) Stage of Divorce War

At this stage female figure play a role as mediator for war not to enlarge. Selected one of the female figure is not only play a role in these conditions but also serves as a medium of communication between groups so that other citizens of each party do not enter the area of war. The war will end if the death toll is equal (equal) on both sides previously characterized by the emergence of the elderly public figure for peace.

6) Stage of Peace

The peace of both sides is marked by a stone-burning ceremony synonymous with "thanksgiving". The ceremony is actually burning pigs piled with hot stones that are burned first while collecting donations from the community for "Pay Heads". Pork that has been cooked and then eaten together. If this ceremony is done the war is over.

7) Stage of Head-pay

Head-pay is a post-war tradition that is intended to pay compensation to the families of victims in the war. This is done by each of the hostile groups. The process of paying the head is done at the place agreed by both parties. it is usually done in public and open place, which is marked by greeting each other and hand over the goods as a pay-off tool

One head is worth Rp. 300 million. Payments can be made by cash, pigs or with similar "kewuk" shells called bia skin or "Kulum Bia". This type of shell is very valuable, but not all bia skins have a high customary value. Only bia skins have an "ear" has high-value. People who have skin bia are respectable in adat/norms. Skin bia always sought by customary leaders because it is easily exchanged for cash

Bia skin price can reach Rp. 150 million per one rope strand, one rope consists of 5 skins bia. The proceeds of the head-pay were then handed over to the families of the victims, from the families of the victims then distributed again to their extended families, especially those who participated in the war.

4. Conclusion and recommendation

This study on tribal war in Timika concludes as follows:

- 1) The meaning of tribal warfare For Timika people: As a way they express self-esteem and family attributes, and solidarity as one family or one tribe (if one person feels hurt or disturbed).
- 2) In tribal war, there are symbols that are full of meaning, such as clothing attribute, non verbal symbol either with movement or human voice. The symbols are attached to the activities of the war itself. Apart from that in the tribal war, although traditionally there has been an organizational structure of war, the division of roles and rules / norms to be adhered to.
- 3) Tribal wars in Timika can be constructed as a process consisting of several stages. In each of stage there is a communication process with distinctive symbols. Stages with its communication process are described as follows:
 - a. Stages of War Initiation
 - b. Stage of Challenge Fight
 - c. Stage of War Implementation
 - d. Stage of Divorce War
 - e. Stage of Peace

f. Stage of Head-pay

4) Tribal war as a social phenomenon is a communication process, and can be solved by the parties by means of communication. These findings could have implications for the importance of policies to develop communication approaches among traditional tribes in Papua, in order to increase mutual-understanding among them, which in turn will reduce the level of conflict among them.

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Workaholism and its symptoms in individuals manifesting mental disorders: a clinical analysis based on a case study

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Abstract

Workaholism is an exceptionally complex psychological phenomenon that has been widely described in the literature from numerous theoretical perspectives. The common assumption in describing psychological profiles of individuals characterised by the so-called workaholic attitude to work and life pertains to the presence of many various mental disorders manifested by a given person. These include depressive disorders, anxiety disorders, psychosomatic disorders and personality disorders. Persons who manifest different stages of inner compulsion are characterised by the absence of control and distance to increased professional activity. Over time, psychopathological symptoms become displayed in the psychological functioning of such individuals, which requires treatment. Moreover, a workaholic patient needs also medical, psychological or psychotherapeutic assistance. The aim of this article is to determine the significance of differential diagnoses of workaholics' psychological profiles by means of examining clinical case reports to provide a broader and a more in-depth view on treatment and directions to be taken in psychological assistance. By presenting the theoretical grounds of workaholism, the authors focused primarily on presenting clinical aspects of an individual's negative functioning (detrimental to his or her development and health) in the organisation and structure of a given work situation. Clinical cases reports pertaining to patients suffering from workaholism are not common in the literature. For this reason, the article aimed primarily at describing three psychological profiles of individuals who manifested workaholism with comorbid mental disorders.

Keywords: workaholism, case study, mental disorders

Introduction

The considerations on experiencing workaholism made so far in the literature find it to be a specific psycho-social process that causes in the life of an individual who experiences it the risk factor of developing psychopathological symptoms and mental disorders defined in psychology as neuroses and in medical classifications as mixed anxiety and depressive disorders and obsessive-compulsive disorders (Porter, 1996; Hornowska, Paluchowski, 2007) and personality disorders (Golińska, 2008, Wciórka, 2008, Wojdyło, 2006, 2010). Another trait commonly observed in workaholics pertains to addiction in a broad sense (Oates, 1968, 1971, Spence, Robbins, 1992, McMillan, O'Driscoll, Marsh, Brandy, 2001).

Professional activity of patients diagnosed with traits of workaholism is varied, though as indicated by psychologists' clinical practice, it results in or strengthens the formation and/or continuance of different most often chronic mental disorders (neuroses and personality disorders) in this group of people.

Regardless of the typologies of workaholics provided in the literature, the model of psychological functioning of a workaholic in the mentioned typologies is said to commonly share the element of a noticeable compulsion that is pursued by a given person and which determines his or her engagement in work that is excessive in terms of the dedicated time and remains beyond his or her control, as well as a compulsion to structure and implement all life activities accordingly and exclusively to occupational tasks. Work situation becomes the main object that determines and motivates the direction of daily activities.

1. Clinical analysis based on case studies of workaholics

In order to illustrate the hypotheses provided in the article that state that workaholic traits and behaviour act as predictors in generating symptoms of mental disorders, clinical case reports of three individuals with workaholic tendencies and comorbid medically diagnosed neuroses were provided below. Oftentimes, prevailing neurotic symptoms in workaholics include those associated with anxiety and depression.

Individuals with this group of psychopathological symptoms (all the more those displaying workaholic symptoms) require psychological help. Participation in psychotherapy allows one to work on his or her mental issues, particularly negative thinking and anxiety thinking. Psychological assistance promotes restoration of mental balance by means of changing fallacies and problem solving.

The below-described three psychological profiles of individuals diagnosed by psychologists with workaholism were constructed based on three random life stories of people who sought medical and psychological assistance at facilities due to various chronic neurotic symptoms they experienced. The source data come from psychological and medical records collected during clinical studies conducted by the authors of the article.

The medical records provided data that confirmed firstly the medical diagnoses of a given person's type of disorder, as well as recommendations regarding necessary pharmacological and psychological treatment. An analysis of the medical records allowed data on the psychological diagnosis of emotional, cognitive and behavioural functioning in the context of the reported symptoms to be obtained for each of the presented individuals.

A verification by means of a clinical method (clinical interview and psychological conversations during treatment at a medical facility) allowed the authors to determine a profile of prevailing psychological traits that either support or reject the hypothesis about the existence of factors that would confirm the presence of traits typical of workaholism in a given patient who was medically diagnosed with a specific disorder. In the course of preparing this article, clinical data were collected in accordance with the rules of professional secrecy and personal data protection (the so-called sensitive data). Each of the individuals consented to having his or her data used for experimental purposes. Due to data protection, the authors used only the personal information essential to outline the psychological type of a person addicted to occupational activity who also manifested a mental disorder.

The below-presented group of individuals, further referred to as 'workaholics', who manifested various chronic mental disorders comprised, as follows: a person medically diagnosed with mixed anxiety and depressive disorders (ICD-10 F41.2), a person medically diagnosed with obsessive-compulsive disorders (ICD 10 F42) and a person medically diagnosed with somatoform disorders (ICD 10 F45).

1.1. Psychological profile of a workaholic experiencing obsessive-compulsive disorders (a case study)

Mr M., 32 years old, college degree in Management, long-term inhabitant of a metropolitan area, married for 12 years, no children. Mr M. runs his own business rendering legal services to numerous companies for a large law firm and is considered – as he described himself – a very respected person who is highly perfectionistic in his work. Mr M. sought help at a medical centre due to obsessive-compulsive symptoms (consistent with anxiety obsessions, particularly fear of social evaluation and contact with other people; especially in work-related situations). After being examined by a psychiatrist, Mr M. was medically diagnosed with obsessive-compulsive disorders (ICD-10 F42). Obsessive thoughts pertained mostly to receiving a negative evaluation of his performance, a growing concern of not fulfilling occupational tasks without any actual grounds for such thoughts and concerns). As a result of obsessive negative thoughts on failing to fulfil occupational tasks that awaited him, anxiety-inducing thoughts about getting fired due to his performance at work receiving a negative evaluation from his superiors, Mr M. reacted with avoiding behaviours, e.g., increasingly more frequent holiday leaves (including a short-term leave on request), seeking doctor's visits and increasingly more frequent sick leaves due to various progressive symptoms (from common cold to mental disorders). Mr M. most commonly reported symptoms of anxiety obsession and depressive symptoms (mood swings with prevailing tendency for negative thinking about oneself and the future). Apart from fear about his work and not fulfilling occupational tasks, Mr M.'s anxiety obsessions also pertained to fear about his house and family, his own and his loved ones' health. Anxiety obsessions and compulsive behaviour associated with, for

instance, checking in various daily routines (e.g., checking door and window locks, checking for other personal belongings he carried with him) appeared 4 years earlier and with time caused his psychophysical wellbeing to deteriorate, resulting in difficulties in fulfilling his occupational tasks and social alienation. With increasing emotional and social difficulties in his family and social life, and, primarily, in fulfilling his occupational duties, Mr M. sought medical and psychological help. At the time when he reported to the centre, he lacked the awareness to relate the emotional disorders he was manifesting with the significant role of his addiction to work. Mr M. was subjected to pharmacological treatment and psychotherapy. Owing to treatment (including long-term psychotherapy) Mr M. has gained an insight into the psychological mechanisms of anxiety disorders and gained awareness about the role of his own workaholic attitude to his job in the process of mental disorders and obsessive-compulsive symptoms he has developed. The description of Mr M.'s psychological functioning provided in the records confirmed the controller type of a workaholic. A model based primarily on the need to perform all tasks and behaviours formed in his personal, social and occupational activities and dominated all his activities for many years. When explaining the workaholic model of Mr M.'s attitude towards his work situation that formed at the very beginning of his professional career and the obsessive-compulsive symptoms that was progressing for several years one ought to note also the context of Mr M.'s family background and workaholic attitude promoted by one of his parents. In Mr M.'s model of functioning in life situations (be it family- or work-related situations involving his co-workers, superiors, employers) attention should be put on the formed pattern and establishing relationships based on, as follows: excessive control over undertaken actions, behaviour and social relations; cognitive rigidity and focus on unimportant details; as well as dissatisfaction with performed actions combined with a permanent feeling of frustration and criticism of his own actions. The above pattern of Mr M.'s reaction in social situations he found himself in was associated with the following traits identified in his self-description (inadequate to the needs, the possibility to receive gratification and satisfaction with performed tasks): excessive independence and ambition, extremely high motivation, high impulsivity and impatience (displaying buoyant energy despite comorbid symptoms), low need for sleep (frequent insomnia), high endurance and capability to perform without the need for rest. With regard to his own professional activities and social relations, Mr M. noted that from the very beginning of his career he has been engaging in a pattern of experiencing work as "a time-killing activity that fills the void". The absence of awareness of the need for having his own free time and 'escaping' into work have become an adaptive mechanism Mr M. has been systematically employing in his life.

In professional relations and contacts with his employers, Mr M. has always adopted a directive attitude that allowed him to control decisions taken in companies he cooperated with. Due to the nature of his profession (lawyer) he had a decisive or a significant impact on the decisions taken by management boards. From the very beginning of his career, especially after getting married, Mr M. has been systematically working longer hours, extending his daily working hours from 8.00 am to 8.00/9.00 pm with no breaks and without acknowledging or reporting the need for rest or leaving for home over only a few years. Mr M. motivates his behaviour in the following words, "I had a mortgage to pay off, I had to work a lot, keep records in order, run cases before courts, always busy because there was always much to do from morning to evening". Mr M. was unaware of the destructive nature of his own actions, as he would frequently resort to the psychological mechanism of rationalisation and denial of the actual situation. As emotional difficulties accumulated and anxiety symptoms (depressive symptoms, anxiety obsessions) progressed over the years, Mr M. continued to employ the workaholic attitude despite having paid off the mortgage and improved his family's living conditions. When describing his experiences, he noted that his ambitions and the need to constantly prove himself in the professional field increasingly more often signalled his progressively decreasing self-esteem. In the course of his psychological therapy, Mr M. referred to this condition as "killing the emotion, depression and void with working". What is more, Mr M. noted that work has become the only source of satisfaction understood as goal achievement, the need for social validation (to be the best), total control over emotions, which increased his experience of a compulsion to constantly remain in work situation. Work served as the source of control over negative emotional states he was experiencing, i.e., depression and anxiety. Owing to psychotherapy Mr M. has gained an insight into the psychopathological mechanisms of mental disorders, including those related to his workaholic attitude towards occupational activities, which were to great extent characterised by excessive control of his own thoughts and actions, as well as progressing obsessive-compulsive disorders.

In reference to the literature it ought to be stated that the description of Mr M.'s psychological profile is consistent with research reports that confirm the presence of similar dysfunctions regarding a workaholic's emotional and cognitive functioning, which is referred to in the literature. Apart from the obsessive-compulsive symptomatology, the described workaholic individual's emotional functioning was also characterised by depressive and anxiety states (fear of negative evaluation, fear of failure, fear of social rejection) (Killinger, 2007), inability to relax, impatience, nervousness, becoming

quickly bored with tasks (Szpitalak, 2012, p. 56). In terms of psychological mechanisms related to emotional regulation, Mr M.'s profile was dominated by excessive control and denial (inability to confront problems, striving to become the best and to achieve a high status within the group) (Szpilak, 2012).

Whereas Mr M.'s cognitive functioning was dominated by a lack of concentration, dichotomous thinking (black-and-white thinking), telescopic thinking based on exaggeration, pessimistic thinking, feeling of helplessness, undertaking a victim's perspective, wishful thinking, blurry boundaries, experiencing ongoing struggle (Kalinowski et al., 2005, Frańczak, 2002). Mr M. has been implementing the following dysfunctional belief in his family teachings, "only hard work ensures happiness, hard work is what society expects" (Robinson, 1998).

In the social context, as a consequence of obsessive thoughts related to a negative evaluation of his work situation and the fear of social evaluation, Mr M. experienced disordered relations in his workplace understood as social alienation and 'escaping' into illness, which resulted in sick leaves and a growing social alienation.

1.2. Psychological profile of a workaholic experiencing mixed anxiety and depressive disorders (a case study)

Ms K., aged 44, a higher-educated city resident, married for 23 years with two children aged 11 and 6 whom she is raising with her husband. Ms K. sought help at a medical facility due to anxiety symptoms (fear of death, disease, being fired, social evaluation, contact with other people, particularly in work-related situations). Ms K. reported lack of satisfaction with her life (including work), a depressive mood and negative thinking about herself. Her ailments have been slowly developing for years with depressive symptoms progressing in work situation (sadness, anxiety, dissatisfaction, a feeling of loneliness and helplessness, pessimistic thoughts). Moreover, Ms K. also complained on a difficulty to focus and memorisation problems. Subjected to an examination by a psychiatrist, Ms K. was medically diagnosed with mixed anxiety and depressive disorder (ICD-10 F41.2).

Ms K. has been professionally active for 23 years as an administrative clerk in an educational establishment. When describing her professional activities, Ms K. expressed her admiration for diligence and an urge to work with a temptation to spend many hours at the office to prove herself and "remain in the organisation" (Killinger, 2007).

From the very beginning of her professional work, Ms K. has been fulfilling duties related to "being submissive and overly dependent". The social and psychological functioning of Ms K. can be described as typical of an excessively submissive and dependent person (Robinson, 1989). Nevertheless, Ms K. was fond of her job and experienced more benefits than costs at work, and noted that despite being overly submissive to others she was content and satisfied with her occupational activity. When she was unable to perform at work due to illness and had to resort to sick leaves, she displayed increased anxiety and apathy, as well as mood swings, without being able to determine the cause. In the literature, such traits may indicate withdrawal symptoms typical of addiction related to an emotional dysregulation in a situation where Ms K. was unable to go to work and fulfil her occupational duties (Porter, 1996; Hornowska, Paluchowski, 2007). Ms K. often recalled a strong urge to be at work and fulfil her professional tasks, which might be identified as a compulsion pertaining to certain work-related behaviours (Shimazu, Schaufeli, 2009).

Moreover, the workaholic behaviour pattern that has developed in Ms K. may also stem from the fear of being fired. This type of fear was frequently mentioned by Ms K., though she did not report any objective situation of facing the risk of losing her position. The uncertainty of employment and the fear of being let go are indicated in the literature as significant factors that stimulate the development of the workaholic attitude (Fassel, 1990).

When examining Ms K.'s psychological profile, one ought to note that the psychological traits she displays in her intrapersonal relationships are characteristic of a pleaser-type workaholic (Killinger, 2007). In both mentioned types of workaholism the focus is put primarily on excessive submissiveness and pleasing others regardless of whether one's own needs are met. In her self-description Ms K. presented a belief that work has become for her the only source of satisfaction, e.g., allowing her to fulfil her ambitions and to gain social validation despite being aware that she had to seek acceptance by resorting to the role of a scapegoat (as she reported in many situations, e.g., from her school years). Ms K. reported a compulsion to be constantly in work situation that allowed her to implement a pattern based on dominance and excessive (inadequate to Ms K.'s needs) submissiveness to others in social relations. Ms K. described herself as an ambitious and outgoing person, though also noted that her relations with others are dominated by a pattern based on submissiveness and excessive dependence (addiction to the approval of others), a dislike for undertaking any risks, hypersensitivity to criticism, poor emotional control and a permanent sense of inferiority. In her depiction of her own behaviours and emotional-social

functioning from childhood to adulthood, Ms K. stressed the fact of serving as a scapegoat (quote: "I used to be a scapegoat at school and I continue to be one at work"). When describing her relations with other people from childhood to adulthood (including relations at work), Ms K. noted experiencing lack of faith in herself, difficulties in bonding emotionally and establishing relations with peers.

Ms K. was raised in her family of origin where the pattern of dominance and submissiveness was implemented in the upbringing model and parental attitudes. Based on the interview and her autobiographical data Ms K. was identified to have an internalised pattern of emotional reacting in social situations based on the characteristics of the aggressor-victim relationship (dominant-submissive pattern with complete submissiveness). The above pattern has been formed as a result of emotional-social experiences in childhood and adolescence that involved her caregivers. Ms K. sought psychological help due to progressive anxiety, depressive and somatic symptoms (fatigue, apathy, sleep and eating disorders). The onset of psychosomatic symptoms took place 4 years ago and pertained to eating disorders. Ms K. was subjected to pharmacological treatment and psychotherapy. In the past, Ms K. used to be treated also due to anorexia. When experiencing a relapse in her adulthood, Ms K. also reported bulimic symptoms and cycles of excessive engagement in work occurring at the very same time (despite her complaint of playing the role of a victim in the workplace), as well as a lack of interest in professional activities (fear of going to work and failing to fulfil tasks perfectly enough). Ms K. worked without controlling her own attitude to work and working time or avoided work by resorting to sick leaves and 'escaping' into illness due to the experienced symptoms, which often involved severe bulimic symptoms, increasingly more disordered social relations and severe somatic symptoms, while Ms K.'s performance standards were unrealistic, which compromised her performance at work and increased anxiety, dependence on others, excessive submissiveness and functioning in dominant-submissive relationships (as a scapegoat). As a result of long-term psychotherapy, Ms K. has gained a partial insight into psychological mechanisms of mental disorders and those related to her workaholic attitude towards occupational tasks. Ms K. identified in her behaviour pattern applied in work-related interpersonal relationships a type of workaholic reaction based on excessive submissiveness to others.

To sum up, the description of Ms K.'s psychological profile is consistent with research reports presented in the literature that confirm the impact of low self-esteem that has been developing since childhood in a person who experiences workaholism in adulthood. Individuals characterised by low self-esteem compensate it by engaging in excessive professional activity or other target-oriented activity (Porter, 1996).

The developing cognitive biases related to one's self-image prevent the said individual from performing accurate self-evaluation. Thus, he or she experiences permanent dissatisfaction due to his or her constantly growing expectations of him- or herself, resulting in the inability to evaluate his or her own achievements in the above-mentioned objective manner (Wojdyło, 2003).

Apart from the pattern of excessive submissiveness in interpersonal relations that the depicted workaholic has experienced since childhood, her emotional functioning profile is characterised by anxiety and depressive symptoms that have developed over the years and a specific style of professional activity based on a compulsion to retain her overly submissive role in the work environment (Wojdyło, 2004, p. 56). The pattern of occupational relationships based on strong submissiveness and compulsion may contribute to a development of a typical workaholic attitude.

The following elements are observed to develop gradually: progressive physical health detriment, numerous mental disorders, substantial and progressively deteriorating relationships with the environment and a loss of satisfaction with life (depression, anxious attitude towards life and work). The applied pattern of emotional reactions can be described as depressive and anxiety states (fear of negative evaluation, fear of failure, fear of social rejection (Killinger, 2007), inability to relax, impatience, nervousness, being quickly bored with tasks) (Szpitalak, 2012). Ms K.'s psychological mechanisms related to emotional regulation were dominated by excessive control and denial (inability to confront problems and submissive tendencies) (Szpilak, 2012).

Ms K.'s cognitive functioning was dominated by a lack of concentration, dichotomous thinking (black-and-white thinking), telescopic thinking based on exaggeration, pessimistic thinking, feeling of helplessness, undertaking a victim's perspective, wishful thinking, blurry boundaries, experiencing ongoing struggle (Kalinowski et al., 2005, Frączak, 2002). In the social context, as a consequence of her emotional and cognitive attitude, Ms K. reacted with an overly submissive behaviour and developed numerous symptoms, which resulted in sick leaves and increasing social alienation.

1.3. Psychological profile of a workaholic experiencing somatoform disorders (a case study)

Male aged 52, secondary education, resident of a small town, involved in a romantic relationship for 31 years, no children. Professionally active for 27 years. Executive positions from the beginning of his professional career. Mr W.'s social and psychological functioning can be described as typical of an individual displaying narcissistic traits. The issues Mr W. reported when seeking medical help were diagnosed as F48, 'Other nonpsychotic mental disorders'. The treatment and further medical and psychological diagnoses allowed Mr W. to be recognised with a narcissistic personality. Mr W. manifested low tolerance for frustration, boredom and stressed the need to experience stimulation and risk behaviour. Mr W. was considered in the environment as a creative person who undertake new challenges and does not fear to seek and engage in difficult or new tasks. Therefore, Mr W. was assigned by his superiors with more and more new tasks he completed successfully, thus developing a growing sense of omnipotence and a need to maintain it. Mr W. reported obsessive thoughts regarding work and a need to perfectly fulfil his assignments, as well as a significant role of ambition in implementing more and more new tasks. Since childhood (particularly adolescence and young adulthood), his social functioning in the familial, professional and personal context has been marked by an emerging need to be the most important person who fulfils special tasks, a need to be constantly praised and a strong frustration when he failed to receive a reward (praise). The model of his emotional functioning in relationships with other people was dominated by suppressed emotions and impulsivity in exploring frustration, little capacity for empathy and expressing positive feelings for others and a manipulative attitude towards the environment with the aim to pursue his own interests at the expense of the needs of other people engaged in a relationship with him. The work situation was dominated by a grandiose attitude, a need to be admired and to be the best, as well as demanding valuation from others. Over time, this aspect of Mr W.'s behaviour has given rise to troubles at work and increasingly more frequent changes of workplace. Conflicts at work (particularly with superiors, employers) and a superior attitude towards his subordinates resulted in a frequent change of workplace, though Mr W. dedicated all his time to work to fill the emptiness he felt within. In order to outperform others, achieve fulfilment, reach his goals and a sense of omnipotence, he spent more and more hours at work, giving up his family life. In his actions, he focused primarily on implementing tasks most perfectly to improve and be the best, he supervised standards of actions taken as part of occupational tasks fulfilled by individuals in his work environment regardless of the relationship (subordinates, co-workers). Mr W. displayed cognitive rigidity and focus on unimportant details, he was also constantly dissatisfied with the occupational tasks he performed. Oftentimes, Mr W. tended to be driven in the implementation of his professional tasks by a pursuit of power, leadership, high positions, high earnings, he was capable of handling duties despite occupational burden and conflicts at work.

When summarising Mr W.'s psychological profile, one should note that he has been implementing in his work experience a specific ethos of his own career characterised by a hunger for success and professional accomplishments. This specific 'life orientation' in which an individual perceives career as the primary goal in life contributes to an excessive occupational engagement, overworking that can evolve into a pathology (LaBier, 1989, p. 11). In Mr W.'s case, traits of an inner compulsion to fulfil occupational tasks manifested together with an exclusion, a 'repression' of the need to fulfil his own personal desires regarding his family and social life (Kalinowski, Czuma, Kuć, Kulik, 2005, after: Szpitalak, 2012, p. 10).

At the stage when the addiction to work is formed, Mr W. indicated solely the prevalence of advantages gained from his work situation and disregarding its negative consequences. Mr W. has a subjective compulsion to fulfil occupational tasks and to experience pleasure, contrasted with a feeling of frustration and discomfort when discontinuing his professional activities. Hence, Mr W. exhibited traits typical of workaholism, i.e., high commitment to work, a sense of inner compulsion to work and low satisfaction with work (Spence & Robbins, 1992), as well as emergence of symptoms (withdrawal symptoms) where working is not possible or not pursued (Porter, 1996; Hornowska, Paluchowski, 2007).

Mr W. can engage in sustaining his professional activity to improve his sense of self-worth (as already mentioned, he displayed narcissistic traits). In such case, Mr W. condemns himself due to his addiction to work to a frustration of needs related to family and other aspects of life, combined with a lack of control over the addiction to work and subjecting himself to damaging symptoms. Workaholism can be associated with a development of a disordered functioning of one's personality (Golińska, 2008; Wojdyło, 2006, 2010). Although Mr W. displayed narcissistic traits, he also indicated in the interview the need for resorting to psychoactive substances (alcohol) in a situation of frustration due to his emotional needs remaining unmet and an increasing depressive mood (Golińska, 2008). Among Mr W.'s traits one could also identify difficulties with establishing empathic relationships with others, a grandiose attitude in relationships with others, a sense of his own uniqueness and a need to be admired and praised – a need for winning acclaim for his achievements (Killingier, 2007). The

inaccuracy of Mr W.'s self-image and his dependency on success and performance, as well as the progressive psychosomatic symptoms can provide an explanation for his workaholic attitude.

Due to the fact that Mr W. is at the beginning of his psychotherapy, he has gained only a partial cognitive understanding and awareness of the type of workaholic reaction called a narcissistic controller that he has been unconsciously applying in his occupational and social life (particularly in work situation) in relationships with other people. Due to the specificity of his personality structure and dominant narcissistic traits, Mr W. requires further psychotherapy aimed at examining the psychological mechanisms of mental disorders that cover a dysfunctional area that goes beyond the workaholic attitude present in his life.

Summary -The consequence of workaholism.

Untreated workaholism may lead to the occupational burnout syndrome (Fassel, 1990; Mieścicka, 2002). Each time overworking may be related to exceeding one's adaptive capabilities, thus lead to exhaustion, which is one of the constituents of the burnout syndrome (Bańka, 2005). Apart from emotional and psycho-physical exhaustion, the said syndrome also involves depersonalisation and low satisfaction with occupational performance (Maslach, 1986).

Other difficulties that can be experienced pertain to interpersonal relationships, avoiding other people, low self-esteem, permanent stress and fatigue, low contentment and satisfaction with work (Sęk, 2000; Retowski, 2003).

The fundamental difference between workaholics and individuals suffering from the burnout syndrome lies in the fact that professions exercised by the latter involve human contact and helping others, which is uncommon for occupational activities performed by workaholics. However, the most significant difference is that in experiencing psycho-physical exhaustion by an individual suffering from the burnout syndrome, his or her activity decreases, whereas a workaholic's activity increases with his or her growing engagement in professional duties (Schultz, Schultz, 2002).

Here, it is worth to return to the subject of the Type A Behaviour Pattern recognised in a situation where a person seeks to gain and maintain control over the external environment (Glass, 1977, Wrześniewski, 1993). A considerably stressful situation takes place each time a subject cannot gain such control and is characterised in its initial stage by increased vigilance and excitability, whereas the next stage involves increased aggressiveness followed by a feeling of helplessness.

According to another approach, this disorder is associated with three fallacies: a person should constantly prove him- or herself to validate his or her social status; there is no moral principle that ensures well-deserved punishment and reward are given to the person who earned them; in order to mark one's presence and achieve self-fulfilment, one has to pursue ambitious goals. This model is called achievement-oriented workaholism (Price, 1982). Despite numerous similarities, these two disorders have different aetiology, since the Type A Behaviour Pattern is to some extent genetically conditioned or stems from environmental conditions, whereas addiction results from upbringing methods and socialisation (Robinson, 1996). Additionally, addicts vary from Type A individuals in terms of experienced obsessive-compulsive symptoms (Wojdyło, 2003).

Workaholism can be classified in DSM-IV-TR as an 'impulse-control disorder not otherwise specified' (312.30), while in ICD-10 it is classified in the category of 'impulse disorders'. The said category allows repetitive maladaptive behaviours to be diagnosed provided that they are not secondary to a recognised mental disorder and allow the behaviour to be discontinued by the patient with a period of tension experienced prior to the behaviour and a feeling of relief at the time when the said behaviour takes place (Szpitalak, 2012, p. 29). This category allows the diagnosis of repetitive and maladaptive behaviours that are not secondary to a recognised mental disorder.

Workaholism and one of its possible consequences, i.e., the occupational burnout syndrome are occupational issues that afflict people in present-day labour markets that force workers to face tasks that are beyond their capacity, which oftentimes exposes them to the risk of making inhuman effort and promotes excessive professional activity that requires tasks to be fulfilled most perfectly, resulting in exhaustion or even compromised health.

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Cuisine and Dishes in Use During the Prophet Muhammed Era (A.D. 569-632)

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Abstract

Each society has a unique cuisine and taste which has been developed over time. Furthermore, each region and climate offer different options, health and life perception varies in each society. In the Arabian Peninsula where The Prophet Muhammad lived, cuisine was shaped according to the region, climate and life perception according to conditions of the era. Indeed, The Prophet Muhammad was a human being lived in Arabian region. He was in close relation with his own society's cuisine in terms of personal taste before he conveyed the Islamic religion. Islam as a religion has contributed to daily life of people in terms of different point of views beside perception about world blessings. In this text, variety of foods consumed in Arabian Peninsula, distribution of these according to types and variety of dishes, pots and pans that were used during The Prophet Muhammad era was mentioned. This study aimed to enlighten whether religion has an influence on cuisine and Islamic religion suggests a life devoid of food and drink.¹

Keywords: The Prophet Muhammad, Cuisine, Foods, Dishes, Arabian Kitchen.

1. Introduction

The Prophet Muhammad who described provision of after death (zād al-āhirah) as the most beneficial of all provisions did not recommend a path without eating and drinking. He did not approve imitation of Cristian and Buddhists priests who kept themselves away from some foods. He preferred to eat everything he liked in the frame of halal foods (Islamic dietary laws by Allah which control the preparation of foods) and the potential of the era.

The most surprising thing for nonbelievers of Muhammad in Meccan society was that the prophet who had been sent them ate and drank (Qur'ān, Furqān 25/7, 20). The foods which had place in The Prophet Muhammad's table were as follows:

2. The Foods in Cuisine of Muhammad's Era

2.1. Meats

The Prophet Muhammad talked about meat as precious meal of both this world and after death. At that era, meat from camel, sheep, goat and cow was consumed. The most consumed meat among Arabs was certainly from camel. In addition to what was mentioned, meat from rabbit, chicken, bustard and fish was utilized. The Prophet Muhammad liked forelimbs of sheep and preferred this part over others. It was reported that he took the cooked forelimbs and ate with hand (Ibn Māja, At'ima, 27, 28; Tirmidhī, At'ima, 33; Abū Dāwūd, At'ima, 21).

The viscera from animals was consumed too. The liver from sheep and camel was one of the favorites. The Prophet Muhammad ate the liver of a slaughtered sheep with bread. He also liked cooked brain served to him. Aisha, his wife, reported that they buried trotter to preserve them and unburied them to prepare dish (Bukhārī, At'ima, 5; Muslim, Zakāh, 52, 54; Ibn Māja, At'ima, 31; Shāmī, VII, 297).

¹ This article was produced from the unpublished master thesis called 'The Cuisine in Muhammad's Era' (Sakarya University, Institute Social Sciences, Sakarya 2007) written by Sevim Demir Akgün and supervised by Prof. Dr. Levent Öztürk.)

They were familiar to fish however it was not consumed often. It was mentioned in *Sif al-Bahr* (Habat) Sariyyah (A.H. 8/A.D. 629) that pieces of a whale casted up the shore was dried and served to The Prophet Muhammad and he ate this meat (Ibn Sa'd, III, 411; Nasāī, Said, 35).

Among the dishes with meat, *tirīt* was the most favorable, The Prophet Muhammad called it as the king of the dishes. *Tirīt* was a dish with bread socked in broth. Sometimes, big pieces of meat was added. *Tirīt* with meat was also served to The Prophet Muhammad. *Tirīt* could be prepared with butter too. The mother of Zaid ibn Sābit prepared *tirīt* with butter for The Prophet Muhammad when he arrived to Madīnah (Ibn Sa'd, III, 614; Abū Dāwūd, At'ima, 23; Shāmī, VII, 305).

Meat used to be fried on the fire. The Prophet Muhammad also liked fried camel meat. Sometimes, pieces of meat was cooked in the smoked fire. Meat was served boiled too. Putting into vinegar was a way of preserving meat for longer times. During hijrah, a dish which its meat was kept in vinegar, was served to The Prophet Muhammad. Meat cooked with cracked wheat (*cashīsh*, *bulgūr*) was a kind of dish that The Prophet Muhammad liked. Meat was marinated with salt, vinegar and spices for preserving long time. The Prophet Muhammad described himself as a son of mother who ate dried meat and he liked dried meat (Ibn Sa'd, IV, 312; Ibn Māja, At'ima, 30; Shāmī, VII, 234, 302).

2.2. Vegetables

Vegetables also took place in The Prophet Muhammad's table. Zucchini, onion, chard, garlic, leek, mushroom and turnip were among them. A tailor from Madīnah prepared a dish with meat and zucchini. The Prophet Muhammad preferred the zucchini in this dish and host put zucchini close to The Prophet Muhammad (Bukhārī, At'ima, 25, 37; Ibn Māja, At'ima, 35; Ahmad ibn Hanbal, III, 108, 174, 160, 204, 264).

A dish prepared with chard and barley without any meat or oil was a favourable dish eaten by Muslims from Madīnah after Friday (Jumu'ah) prayer (Bukhārī, At'ima, 17; Jawād Ali, VII, 60). It was mentioned that the last meal eaten by The Prophet Muhammad was cooked or fried onions. Onion, garlic and leek were also consumed raw. However, it was recommended not to attend prayers after eating those. It was asked not to disturb people with the odor from these foods (Bukhārī, At'ima, 49; Ahmad ibn Hanbal, VI, 89; Shāmī, VII, 262; Jawād Ali, VII, 61).

Arabs liked a dish called *hais* prepared by mixing dates, oil and curd. It was a very practical dish. In return from Haibar (A.H. 7/A.D. 628), *hais* was the dish served in The Prophet Muhammad's wedding feast (Bukhārī, At'ima, 7, 16, 28; Ibn Manzūr, VI, 61).

2.3. Breads

Bread made from barley consumed more frequently. Wheat was an expensive grain. It was brought by grain producers or traders from Nabatians, Syria. Not everyone could afford to buy it (Jawād Ali, VII, 58). Abū Huraira reported that there was not bread made from wheat in The Prophet Muhammad's table and Anes ibn Mālik reported that he did not witness The Prophet Muhammad's eating this kind of bread. The bread made up of wheat was soft but the bread made up of barley was stiff (Ibn Sa'd, I, 404; Bukhārī, At'ima, 7; Ibn Māja, At'ima, 45, 49).

2.4. Soups

Soup was widespread dish among meals. *Cashīsha*, *Hazīra*, *Harīsa* and barley soup with chard were frequently consumed soups. *Cashīsha* was made up of grinded grain with meat or dates. *Hazīra* was cooked by adding fine flour to water. *Harīsa* was known as flour soup with oil and meat. There were kinds of soup in which vegetables such as chard was included. Sometimes the flour was fried and a slurry obtained by adding water. This kind of soup was called *sawīq*. Sometimes milk was also used instead of water. Occasionally, suet was used too (Khalīl ibn Ahmad, I, 483; Abū Dāwūd, Adab, 103; Ibn Manzūr, VI, 273; Shāmī, VII, 304).

2.5. Sugar and Deserts

During The Prophet Muhammad's time, sugar from sugarcane was consumed, sugar and almond were littered around the guests during weddings. Manna which has been a secretion from a tree from Sinā, Syria and the Euphrates basin were brought to Madīnah (Haisamī, IV, 53; Ibn al-Jawzī, I, 147; Kettānī, II, 270).

A desert prepared by mixing dried dates with milk was liked by The Prophet Muhammad. With no doubt, honey was mostly consumed desert (Bukhārī, At'ima, 32, Tibb, 4). A desert prepared with flour, oil and honey called *fallūzaj* was from foreign

cultures. His friend Usmān, the fourth caliph, introduced this desert to the people of Madīnah and Arabs liked it a lot. He was a merchant and borrowed this desert from Sassānid's kitchen. Dates were also added as ingredient to this desert by Arabs. This desert was prepared by Usmān and served to The Prophet Muhammad and he liked it (Tabarānī, XVII, 336).

2.6. Fruits

Dates were mostly consumed fruit. Water melon, melon, grape and quince were common too. Peach, pomegranate, mulberry and fig were also reported to be consumed. Nuts such as peanut and almonds were also known in Madīnah. The Prophet Muhammad neutralized the sweetness of dates with gherkin (Ibn Māja, At'ima, 38; Tirmidhī, At'ima, 35; Shāmī, VII, 310, 319, 321, 322).

2.7. Eggs and Dairy Products

The Prophet Muhammad once ate egg from ostrich. In Madīnah, the chicken strolled around in the streets. With no doubts, egg from chicken was an important food stuff. Cheese was not known in Madīnah however, curd was consumed. The Prophet Muhammad ate a kind of fermented cheese which had been produced in that region during Tabūq excursion (A.H. 9/A.D. 630) and he liked it. Milk from camel, sheep and goat were mostly consumed and they were consumed raw. Milk run off in hot days were mixed with water to make it easy to drink (Ibn Abū Shaiba, II, 418; Abū Dāwūd, At'ima, 39, Tibb, 20; Shāmī, VII, 306).

3. The Tools Utilized in the Kitchen of Muhammad's Time

When we consider Kitāb al-Zuhd (Islamic Asceticism: a part of hadiths book) alone that we encountered in the hadith culture, it is possible to think that a cuisine was not established at that time. However, when hadith corpus was investigated as a whole, it is obvious that the cuisine was formed in relation to the demands and the opportunities that shaped according to the tradition. In this context, tools for cooking and preparing drinks had a crucial role. They were mentioned as follows in accordance with some headings:

3.1. Plates

During The Prophet Muhammad era, vessels with different dimensions were utilized for consuming foods. Among these vessels, *dasi'a*, *jafna*, *qas'a*, *maktala*, *safha*, *faiha* and *sukurruja* were some examples.

Dasi'a was a vessel to serve big amount of foods. Twenty people could eat from this vessel (Ālūsī, I, 387).

Jafna was a vessel for feeding seven to ten people. Dough could be mixed in this vessel also and it was used for soup (Khalīl ibn Ahmad, I, 93; Ibn Sa'd, I, 388, III, 614).

Qas'a was a vessel feeding four people and *maqṭala* was for two to three people (Ibn Māja, At'ima, 10; Ālūsī, I, 387; Jawād Ali, V, 66). *Safha* and *faiha* were small vessels only for one person (Khalīl ibn Ahmad, II, 971, III, 1427; Ālūsī, I, 387). There are some opinions supporting the idea that these vessels were for two or three people. *Sukurruja* was the smallest in dimension. It was used for snacks (Ālūsī, I, 387).

3.2. Pots

The names such as *mirjal*, *burma* can be encountered in the texts. *Mirjal* was a copper vessel. Copper vessels were used to reserve water however because of the odor from copper vessel, it was not recommended to perform *al-wudū'* with the water from this vessel. It was possible that there were no tinning practice therefore poisoning was possible (Jawād Ali, V, 65; Akgün, p. 58).

Garra was a big vessel with handles carried by four people. Meat such as from sheep was cooked in this vessel. *Burma* was a basalt saucepan used for cooking. Stone pots made up of basalt rocks which were revealed in archaeological excavation in Yaman's Faw region were used in several regions of Arabian Peninsula. *Qidr al-Musahhana* was this kind of pots coming from that region (Abū Dāwūd, At'ima, 17; Akgün, p. 58).

Crockery with green glaze called *Hantam* or *Jarr al-Ahdar* were brought from Yaman and Egypt. There were also crockeries called *buram* and *saidan* (Abū Dāwūd, Ashriba, 9; Akgün, p. 58).

3.3. Leather Bottles

Leather bottles formed by stitching feet and head parts were used to preserve goods such as water, honey, fat. Ukka, misāb and badī which were used to preserve butter, curd and dried curd were main types of leather bottles used for preserving goods. Ukka was small in dimension for butter and honey. The vessels called haifa and misāb were used for honey. Haifa was narrow on the top and wide at the bottom and made up of leather. Misāb was also from leather (Tabarānī, XXV, 120; Ibn Manzūr, IX, 101, X, 468).

Leather bottles were made up of tanned leather from several animals and fat was preserved in it. One of the animals whose skin was utilized was lizard. The Prophet Muhammad did not like meat from lizard. Moreover he did not like things preserved in lizard's skin. He asked about the origin of butter in the bread which was served to him and when he learnt that the butter was preserved in lizard's skin, he preferred not to eat this bread (Ibn Māja, At'ima, 47).

3.4. Water Vessels

Although Arabs gave special names for vessels for preserving water, these vessels were also used for eating. As an example nabīz was preserved in the same vessel used for water and sometimes suet was preserved also in it. The vessel that contains water enough for twenty people, was called tibn or tebn. Sahn was smaller in dimension than this one. The water vessel for three or four people were called uss. Goblets were deep and it reserved two or two and half times more water than today's goblets. Qa'b was enough for only one person. Gumar was the name given to the smallest of water vessels (Ālūsī, I, 394; Akgün, p. 60).

In Arabian Society, vessels made up of gold and silver existed. In the Qur'ān, gold (Zuhuf 43/71) and silver (Insān 76/15) goblets were mentioned. The Prophet Muhammad recommended not to eat and drink from gold and silver vessels. These were replaced by goblets commonly from wood and rarely from glass because of its expense in daily use. The Prophet Muhammad had a glass goblet (Muslim, Libās, 1, 4; Ibn Māja, Ashriba, 27; Nasāī, Zīnah, 87).

The water vessels made up from wood were also called jumjuma. Wooden water vessels were made up of tamarisk or nudar. Nudar was softened by burying under the soil and carved to obtain the goblet. These were dehydrated by the time and cracked. This kind of water vessel used by The Prophet Muhammad were inherited to Anes and passed to his daughter from Anes. Anes served water, milk, honey syrup and wort to The Prophet Muhammad by it. Because this water vessel cracked, Anes filmed its surrounding with silver. Some of these vessels had iron handles to hang on the wall to make sure that any kind of insects did not fall into them (Bukhārī, Ashriba, 29; Ibn Māja, At'ima, 27; Ahmad ibn Hanbal, III, 247).

Some of the wooden vessels were made up of date's trunk. A vessel called naqīr which was carved from trunk was mostly used to prepare wort. When wort was kept in this vessel few days, the rate of alcohol was increased. Therefore at first The Prophet Muhammad prohibited to prepare wort in this vessel but later he allowed in case of paying attention to the duration of keeping in this vessel (Muslim, Ashriba, 6; Ibn Māja, Ashriba, 14; Tirmidhī, Ashriba, 5, 6).

During traveling, water vessels from leather were used because it was easy to carry and keep. These were generally called qirbah. These were made up by tanning the skin from slaughtered or hunted animals. The dimensions varied according to the need. Some of them were made with the skin of animal as a whole by modeling feet parts as pacifier. Some of them were made by dividing the skin into smaller parts (Ibn Māja, Ashriba, 13; Ibn Kathīr, VI, 104; Shāmī, VII, 364).

Big leather bottles were utilized in the region since Jahiliyya Period. It was mentioned in narratives that Abd al-Muttaib and his sons served water in a pool made up of leather to the pilgrims who came to Qa'bah and they even added some grapes to the water to aromatize it. Most probably, leather was supported from sides and fixed onto a basis to obtain a wide mouthed water vessel. These were called shacb. During traveling, water vessel made up of half of a camel skin were used (Ibn Sa'd, I, 83, VIII, 319; Ibn Hajar, VIII, 248).

Some vessels were made up of ceramic. Vessels in red colors existed. The color came from the soil they made up of. The green and white color vessels were also mentioned in narratives. These were bituminized from outside to make them resistant to be broken. They were called muzaffat or muqayyar (Shāmī, VII, 362; Ibn Hajar, IV, 417).

The vessels were also made up of gourd. These vessels called dubbā' and qar' were in the shape of cantharus. The wort was preserved in them. This may cause formation of wine. Therefore, The Prophet Muhammad prohibited to preserve wort in vessels such as dubbā' (Muslim, Ashriba, 6; Tirmidhī, Ashriba, 5). The names of water vessel which were encountered in the texts were idāa, zekwa, ziqq, and ka's (Khalīl ibn Ahmad, I, 72, II, 756, 757, III, 1547).

4. Conclusion

The Prophet Muhammad who was described as a person who ate and drank in Qur'ān made the best use of every provisions offered by his environment. Occasionally, he did not personally prefer some foods. He obeyed the prohibitions from Allah such as not drinking alcohol and not eating pork, and meat slaughtered not in the name of Allah. It was understood that most prominent foods in Arabic Peninsula in context of cuisine were meat, milk and some vegetables. It was concluded that wheat was consumed rarely however barley was the mostly used grain. It was determined that the meat were fried, boiled or marinated and milk was consumed raw, the most prominent vegetables were mushroom, zucchini and chard. The tools used in the kitchen varied richly according to the needs.

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Big Data and the Demand for Court and Legal Services

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Abstract

Law and Economics literature has dealt with the factors determining the demand side of justice for more than 40 years. Both theorists of economic analysis and applied researchers have focused on the different variables that influence demand, such as direct and indirect costs, the chances of winning, the chances to settle out of court and delay, among others, which in turn may be affected by the judges, lawyers and parties incentives. Many of these variables cannot be directly observed by the ordinary citizen. In this paper, we contribute to the Law and Economics literature by showing that Big Data must be considered a new way to approach demand for court and legal services as it introduces new criteria to take into account and a new way to make the decision of whether or not to proceed to trial. **Keywords:** BIG DATA, Law and Economics, Demand for Court Services, Demand for Legal Services

JEL Classification: K40 K49

1. Introduction

Since the 1970s, numerous papers have examined the possible determinants of the demand for court services. Under the premise that agents are rational, they have studied the incentives to go to trial or reach an out-of-court settlement.

The relevance of litigation that should not be there, or that some conflicts that should go to court do not actually do, is not small. Firstly, because litigation that should not occur generates social and private costs, which could be channelled to other uses, increasing the efficiency in the use of public and private resources. And because this litigation, inefficient because it is unnecessary, can increase the delays of the judicial system, reducing its ability to effectively solve other problems that do require the decision of a judge. And secondly, because disputes that do not reach the courts, even though they should, imply that a group of individuals or companies have breached a contract or broken a law and got away with it, whereas the victims do not receive the justice they deserve.

Decisions on whether or not to go to trial depend on, among others, the estimates of the costs of going to trial, the estimates of the chances of winning, the estimates of the waiting times to obtain a court judgement, the believe that obtaining a judgment means that the defendant will automatically pay what the sentence states¹ or the belief that no tax must be paid on the amounts received after the trial (which includes the winning party's costs paid by the losing party). That is to say, the demand for court services crucially depends on the information parties have (and the estimations they make) on different variables that are often unknown to a greater or lesser extent and/or factors that are not under their control, even after filing the lawsuit and during the legal proceedings.

In this paper, we contribute to the Law and Economics literature by showing that Big Data must be considered a new way to approach the demand for court and legal services as it introduces new criteria to take into account and a new way to make the decision of whether or not to proceed to trial. As we will show later, the fact that Big Data allows agents (plaintiffs

¹ Vargas and Peñaloza (2004) address the economic and social costs of not complying with judicial decisions, making estimates with Spanish data.

and defendants) to obtain much more precise information, both on costs (money, time, stress,...) and on the legal proceedings and the chances of achieving a certain outcome in their specific cases, is significantly changing the decision to litigate and introducing a new logic in the behaviour of the consumers of legal and court services. In addition, the possibility for clients of legal services to access that Big Data in turn results in suppliers changing their strategies with respect to clients and the market in general.

In Section 2 of this paper, the influence of various factors on the demand for court services according to the most standard theory in the absence of Big Data is briefly described. In Section 3 we discuss the several ways in which such effects and behaviors are modified because of the recent incorporation of the Big Data logic and the access to this massive amount of information. Finally, Section 4 presents some Conclusions.

2. The Traditional Approach to Litigation and the Demand for Court Services

The main variables that have traditionally been considered to determine the demand for court services are schematically presented in this Section. In the next Section, this will allow us to show how the decision criteria are modified, significantly in some cases, with the new appearance of Big Data in today's society.

Studies on this issue began more than forty years ago, being especially noteworthy the pioneering works of Landes (1971), Posner (1973), Gould (1973), Landes and Posner (1979), and Shavell (1982)¹.

Pastor (2016) makes an interesting classification of the main factors affecting the demand for court services as follows:

- ** Information problems that result in differences in the parties' estimates of their chances of winning the case.
- ** Information problems that modify the parties' estimates about the amount at issue and the costs of litigating or reaching an agreement.
- ** The fact that litigation costs are low in relation to the costs of reaching an out-of-court agreement.
- ** Strategic behavior of the parties (and the number of lawyers²).
- ** Asymmetry of costs and amounts in general among parties.
- ** Agency problems, as a result of lawyers having interests different from those of their clients.
- ** The initial conflict itself, for example, a breach of contract, because someone considered that the expected benefits of doing so were greater than the expected costs, including the risk of being sued and the costs involved.

Other factors to mention may be the quality of legal precedents (Vereeck and Muhl, 2004), the level of economic growth³, the allocation of court fees to the participating parties, the existence of legal protection insurances (Pastor 2016), court delay⁴, the time preference, the general propensity to litigate (Buscaglia and Ulen 1997), the attitude towards risk and other factors affecting individual preferences, among others; not forgetting the interaction between supply and demand⁵, and the circular relationship between delay and the demand for court services (Vereeck and Muhl, 2000). Let us consider some of those factors.

¹ Surveys on the literature on the supply and demand for court services can be found in Shavell (2004) and Kaplow and Shavell (2002), or more recently in Voigt (2014).

² For empirical results, see for example Mora & Garoupa (2015).

³ See for example the estimates of Rosales and Jimenez Rubio (2016) and Rosales (2017). There are potentially two opposite effects of economic growth on litigation. On the one hand, the greater the economic growth is, the more transactions and conflicts there will be, which indicates a positive correlation. But on the other hand, when there is a recession there are more unpaid debts and more lawsuits, which contributes to a negative correlation between these variables.

⁴ In Vargas and Peñaloza (2007) we use Survival Analysis to assess the duration of civil cases in Argentina and then proceed to analyze the explanatory power of several variables.

⁵ See Priest (1989) and Dakolias (1999) or the recent book by Pastor (2016).

• **Estimation of the Chances of Winning the Case**

Many authors agree that the degree of optimism of the parties is a crucial determinant of litigation, and it is common to read that the degree of realism of their estimates will reduce the demand for court services. For example, on the one hand, Voigt (2014) concludes in his recent survey "if both parties have a realistic evaluation of their chances of winning (but also of losing) the case, then we should not observe any civil trials as a pre-trial bargain is expected to be systematically cheaper than taking the case to court". On the other hand, Pastor (1994) states that agreements occur when the perception of results coincide, or when the parties are very pessimistic; in particular, he concludes that lawsuits are less likely the smaller the difference (Pa-Pb) is, where Pa is the plaintiff's estimate of the chances of winning the case and Pb is the defendant's estimate of his chances of losing the case.

It is true that if the parties are realistic they will not go to trial as Voigt says; but in reality the probability of an agreement that does not depend much on being realistic - finally, when they negotiate, the parties do not know how realistic their forecasts are- but on the relation between the parties' forecasts, regardless of whether those beliefs coincide with the actual probabilities of winning or losing the case.

Let's set a simple example to illustrate this (see Table 1). For simplicity, let's say that the amount at issue is Q = 100, and there are no costs of litigation or settlement¹. Let us call A the plaintiff, and B the defendant. Let Pa be the Plaintiff's estimate of the probability P of the judge's reasoning for A, and let Pb be the Defendant's estimate of this happening (and thus having to pay Q = 100). The expected value of the amount to be received by A (paid by B) is Pa * Q or Pb * Q (depending on who makes the estimation). Let us first suppose that the real probability that A will win (and therefore B will lose) is 30%.

TABLE 1. Assumption: True value of P=0.30

	Pb=0.20 (optimistic)	Pb=0.30	Pb=0.40 (pessimistic)
Pa=0.40 (optimistic)	Trial	Trial	Bargain
Pa=0.30	Trial	Bargain	Bargain
Pa=0.20 (pessimistic)	Bargain	Bargain	Bargain

Source: Own Elaboration

As we see, if both are realistic (Pa = Pb = 0.30; Expected Values to receive/pay after trial = 30), the trial will not take place as Voigt says. But, if they are far from being realistic the result may be Trial or Bargain. For example, when Pa = 0.40 and Pb = 0.20 (both optimistic compared to P = 0.30), B will not accept to pay more than 20 to avoid trial, not enough to convince A (who asks for 40 at least), so they will go to court. And in the opposite case, being both pessimistic (again compared to reality) there is room for negotiation and they will not go to trial. The reason is that the result has nothing to do with the realism of their estimates, but on "how optimistic A is with respect to B".

Let's check this in a very similar example (see Table 2). Now the parties' estimates (Pa and Pb) are the same as before, but the true value of P is 0.01 (i.e. a new judge who will almost always say yes to the defendant). So now A seems to be very optimistic (not realistic in any case), and B is very pessimistic (not realistic at all either).

TABLE 2. Assumption: True value of P=0.01

	Pb=0.20 (pessimistic)	Pb=0.30 (very pessimistic)	Pb=0.40 (extremely pessimistic)
Pa=0.40 (optimistic)	Trial	Trial	Bargain
Pa=0.30 (very optimistic)	Trial	Bargain	Bargain
Pa=0.20 (extremely optimistic)	Bargain	Bargain	Bargain

¹ We will also assume that there is no risk aversion, strategic behavior or other distortions.

Source: Own Elaboration

In this second example, although both A and B are far from being realistic (compared to the true chances of winning or losing the case), the results are exactly the same. The reason is clear. What allows the parties to bargain is that the minimum amount that A is willing to receive -not to go to trial- is not greater than what B is willing to pay to A (in our example, that equals $P_a < P_b$). Such negotiation does not depend on whether their estimates are realistic or not, but on the relationship (and difference) between such estimates. In both tables, it is evident that if the plaintiff and defendant estimates coincide (on the diagonal), no matter if they are right or not, they will bargain instead of proceeding to trial.

Such estimates will depend on many factors such as the perceived quality of the judicial system, the tools lawyers have to present evidence, and their ability or willingness to spend on the case. And to a great extent, those estimates will depend on the information transmitted by lawyers to their clients and in general on the amount of information that the parties have, a matter we shall return to in the next Section of this paper.

- **Estimation of the Litigation and the Agreement Costs**

The private costs of a legal dispute can be direct (lawyers and experts' fees, transport, court fees, etc.) or indirect (for not being able to make use of the assets under dispute, for investment opportunities lost, for lost revenues for attending the trial, for other possible uses of the time spent there, etc.)¹.

At this point, it should be remembered that the demand for court services is a supply-induced demand. In the decision-making process, clients usually have much less information than lawyers about the stages of the proceedings, the time that can elapse until a final judgment is reached, the private costs of the proceedings or the possibility of an out-of-court settlement. And yet, in case of a conflict, this data is considered essential when deciding whether or not to sue.

As we will see later, the lack of knowledge among the European citizens - potential users of the courts - about the judicial system in their own country, the costs they will have to bear or the possibility of reaching an out-of-court settlement is high overall and can be extremely high in some EU member states. Furthermore, the estimation of costs by the client may be influenced by the strategic behavior of lawyers, as their incentives to go to trial or to bargain may be different from those of their clients'.

- **Adverse Selection and Moral Hazard / Principal-Agent Problems**

The theory of asymmetric information, and in particular the analysis of Adverse Selection and Moral Hazard, are a great help in studying the problems with efficiency that occur in the legal services market. When hiring the services of a lawyer, given the client's ignorance about the legal system, the latter suffers, in the first place, an "Adverse Selection" problem: being perhaps the first time that he hires a lawyer, and without much more information than the one given by his lawyer, the client has serious difficulties in evaluating his qualifications and assessing if the lawyer he is hiring is the one that best suits his interests. This same asymmetric information produces a "Moral Hazard" problem because the client (the "principal") is not in a position to determine if the actions taken by his lawyer (the "agent") are the ones that best suit his interests.

- **Possibility of Reaching Out-of-Court Agreements**

As pointed out by Gravelle (1990), this is a determining variable for court demand. This effect will depend on whether these agreements are considered to be close substitutes for litigation (Murrell, 2001), and in particular whether there are alternative dispute resolution systems (Voigt 2004). This issue is discussed by Pastor (2016) who focuses on the possibility for judges to encourage this option and on the willingness of lawyers to influence their clients in favor of this way of resolving the conflict; which, in turn, depends to a large extent on the interests the lawyers have, and which may not coincide with those of their clients.

¹ For a discussion on the different types of public and private costs, and estimates using Spanish Data see for example Pastor and Vargas (2001) and Pastor (2016).

3. BIG Data: A New Approach to the Demand for Court and Legal Services

3.1 What is Big Data

Big Data used to be defined in terms of the three Vs (Volume, Velocity and Variety) although some added other Vs (Veracity, Visibility, Value...)¹.

Unfortunately, scalability problems caused by the exponential growth of digitized data have conditioned the definition, goals and research areas in Big-Data, reducing it to just a technological tool (3vs or 5vs definition).

It is estimated that 95% of the information used today has been generated only in the last two years, thanks to the improvements in storage capacity and the cost reduction of computing tools. This data is generated and stored either on a planned or an unplanned basis, as a result of the regular activities of different agents (individuals, companies and entities of all types). We produce this data directly and indirectly second after second. It is generated in several ways. The first, and the one that we are more interested in this paper, is the one made by people: using WhatsApp, social networks, forums and chats; when googling or searching other internet platforms; when using mobiles, the GPS or the email; by consulting other users online, or simply visiting a web page (with the "cookies" we accept). Other forms are by bank transactions and purchases, from machine to machine (power consumption or vital sign readers) and with biometric data generated by security or intelligence agencies. This data is being sent to the internet in real time, leaving a "digital fingerprint"² that can potentially be used to trace the owner of that data.

Big Data begins to give the ordinary citizen an enormous amount of information about what happens to other citizens in similar circumstances, the decisions they made, the variables taken into account, and the mistakes they made and their consequences. Therefore, it offers the possibility to take advantage, practically for free and in real time, of the experience of thousands of citizens about legal proceedings and their outcomes, both in the most formal aspects (such as the money invested and received, or the time until they got a court decision) and others more indirect or subjective (such as stress, discomfort, costs of travel or paperwork or others not normally accounted for), which ultimately affect the demand for court services; and with the additional advantage of coming from the actual users' experience and not just from the information offered by the lawyer.

As we will see in the next Section, this access to this massive amount of information is crucially changing the criteria and the logic of the demand for court and legal services in general.

3.2 How the Logic of the Demand for Court Services Changes in the Big Data Environment

Although the academic literature shows indicators to describe the functioning of the judicial system (indicators of productivity, quality, delay, congestion...) these studies are not usually available to most judicial operators and, more importantly, this information is not usually at the citizens and lawyers' disposal when deciding what their behavior in relation to this market will be. Rather, the statistics that have been more available to date have been opinion polls, especially those on television or newspapers.

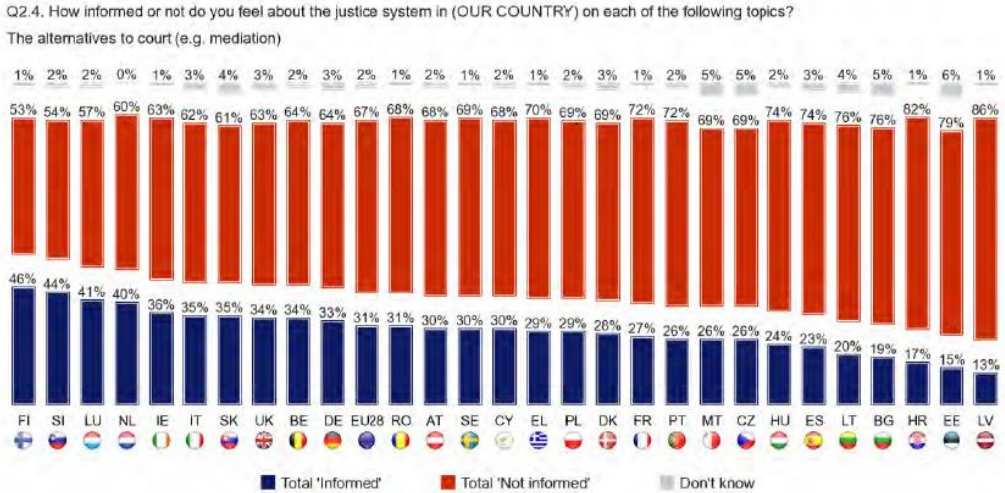
Evidence indicates that citizens have little information about what possible outcomes legal proceedings may have, what costs he may have to bear, or whether there are other alternatives to resolve the conflict. And they are often unaware of the fact that the judge can order the losing party to pay the expenses of the winning party, or that on that money can be imposed an income tax, even if the money goes to cover the lawyers' fees.

Eurobarometer 2013 data shows that, even in the best situated countries, the percentage of citizens who do not feel informed about the justice system in their country exceeds 50%, and that this proportion can reach 80% in some countries (see Figure 1).

¹ The first definitions of Big Data or Massive Data made reference to how to make use of enormous datasets, and their analysis and assimilation, which allowed obtaining information and knowledge that could not have been known, stored or analyzed with the traditional methods and technology.

² Also called device fingerprint, machine fingerprint or browser fingerprint is a compact summary of software and hardware settings collected from a remote computing device.

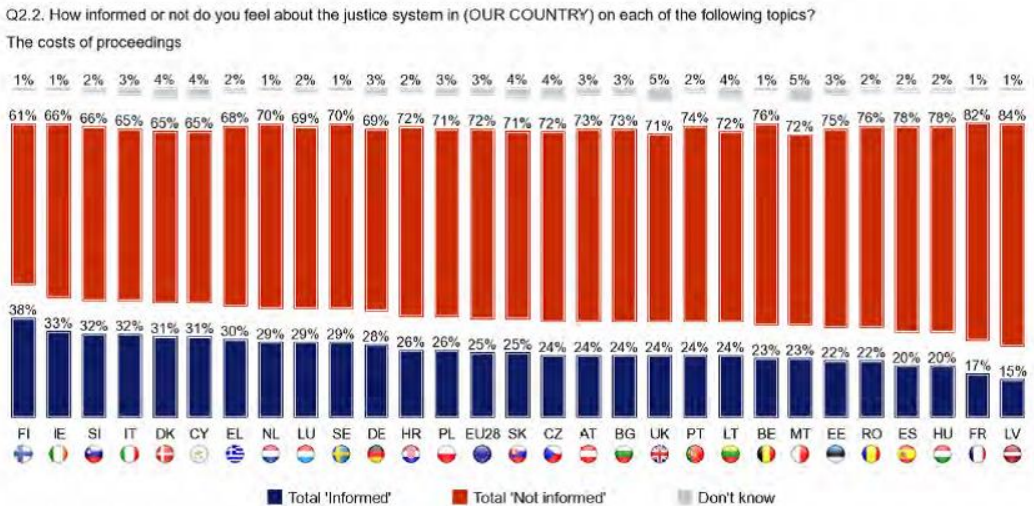
Figure 1. How well informed do you feel about the justice system in your country?



Source: Eurobarometer 2013. See the symbols in the Annex.

Moreover, the percentage of citizens who do not have information on the costs of proceedings is quite high, up to 85% of the population in some countries (see Figure 2).

Figure 2. How informed or not do you feel about the justice system in your country about the cost of proceedings?

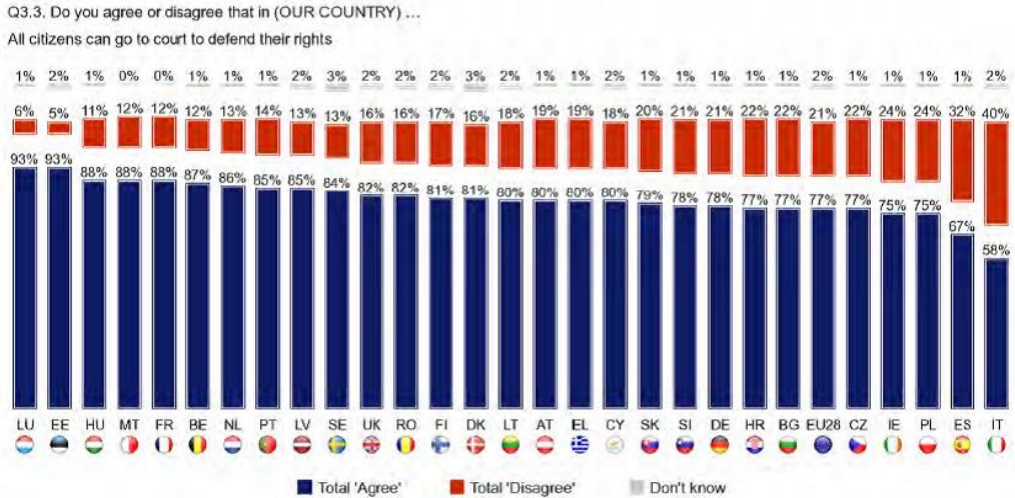


Source: Eurobarometer 2013. See the symbols in the Annex.

In addition, European citizens can have huge differences in their trust in their judicial system and, in particular, in their belief that not all citizens can go to court to defend their rights, from 6% in Luxembourg to 32% in Spain or 40% in Italy (see Figure 3).

Figure 3. Do you agree or disagree that in your country

All citizens can go to court to defend their rights?



Source: Eurobarometer 2013. See the symbols in the Annex.

• **Estimation of the Probabilities and the Litigation Costs in the Big Data Environment**

At this point, it is crucial to take into account that the demand for court services is a supply-induced demand. At present, the client suffers from having little knowledge about proceedings, so the lawyer is almost the only source of information when facing the choice of going to court or not¹. And that legal advice is mainly influenced by two factors. First, by the lawyer's own estimates of the possible outcome that this particular case may have. And secondly, by the lawyer's incentives to go to court -instead of reaching an agreement, for example- which may not match with that of the client².

However, the increasing use of Big Data not only allows for more and better information obtained from several sources ("actual users"), but it also changes the way the client deals with the legal proceedings. The logic of Big Data motivates citizens to get first-hand information about court proceedings and other possible ways of resolving the conflict, and also on the costs incurred by hundreds of users; everything in real time, detailing the type of matter, the amount at issue, the location or any other variable that may alter the outcome, variables that will change their decision to go to court, and the strategies to follow.

The logic of big data is changing both the estimates and the process of estimation of the parties to the conflict about the costs and the probability of success in their particular cases and other important data. In the previous Section we showed that the demand for court services depends on the difference between parties' estimates of their chances of winning the case. Now, in the context of Big Data, these estimates will be increasingly similar -as this same information will be available to both parties- which is likely to increase the number of cases solved by out-of-court settlement and will lead to a reduction in the demand for court services. In addition, it is possible that the demand for legal services will remain relatively constant since both forms of resolution of the conflict -litigation or negotiation- require lawyers' advice.

¹ Something similar happens with the demand for health services. That demand is also supply-induced as the patient has little knowledge of the available treatments in his particular case and what the possible outcomes are, so he cannot assess the options or decide without the doctor's advice.

² The incentives of lawyers to a fast process (through out-of-court agreement, for example) will be very different if they charge contingent fees than if they are paid on an hourly basis or a flat fee.

• Actual Costs of the Proceedings for the Client with Big Data

The logic of Big Data not only changes the "estimates" of the costs of the proceedings. In our view, the costs themselves, especially those relating to lawyers' fees, are also changing, because the market is becoming more competitive and the fees per case tend to fall; and because agreements will move towards contingency fees in some types of procedures, especially in those countries where current fees depend mainly on the type of matter or the time devoted, regardless of the final outcome.

As an example, we can mention the case of Spain where, as a result of the housing bubble and the economic recession, there was a huge number of evictions (with their corresponding court cases¹). And almost at the same time, since 2016 there has been an explosion of lawsuits against the banks, after the final ruling by the EU on the so-called "floor clauses", ordering Spanish banks to repay all earnings from "abusive" mortgages. This has produced a large niche-market that has been exploited by some law firms that have specialized in this type of business, accumulating hundreds of similar lawsuits.

This specialization reduces the costs of the process which, in the event of a reduction in prices, tends to increase litigation even more. But why, although there have been many other massive conflicts in the past,² they did not end in a lawsuit? To a large extent, the reason is that citizens do not have sufficient confidence in the judicial system, because of the enormous uncertainty about the costs and the possible outcomes of court proceedings. Thanks to Big Data, the citizen starts to find relevant information on the internet, not only the one offered by law firms (something relatively new in Spain) but especially the one coming from ordinary citizens who share their experience on how they started the claim, what procedures were followed, what obstacles were encountered and how they were resolved, so his lack of information about the judicial system is being greatly reduced. At the same time, the costs of finding information is also significantly declining. This information is not yet structured, but is available almost free of charge to anyone with minimal internet skills.

All of this has meant that, in order to finally attract these potential clients at least in this type of litigations, Spanish lawyers are modifying the way they charge their fees onto a contingency fee system. That is, they advertise themselves as risk-free services, paying the other party's costs in case of losing the case. This type of fees increase efficiency (because they encourage only those expenses that will be productive for the outcome), improve the outcome for the client (for the incentives given to lawyers) and in general reduce market uncertainty.

Thus, as prices are being reduced also for this reason, access to justice may increase (both in courts and by out-of-court agreements) and the consumption of legal services will probably be higher as is happening in Spain in these last two years in this type of matters.

Additionally, thanks to the logic of Big Data, a large number of cloud-based legal practice software applications have now appeared allowing lawyers to improve their performance by reducing their search time for legislation and legal precedents, also including tools for time tracking, billing and case management of cases, among others³. Moreover, in recent times, and as a result of the increasing power of computers, large law firms start to incorporate Big Data in their private activity and their internal operations, gathering information about thousands of their own prior clients, which allows them to estimate their chances of success in each specific case, depending on which court the case has been assigned to and other specific factors⁴.

This information allows lawyers to increase their chances of success at a lower cost, which will reduce the "cost of production" of their services. *Ceteris paribus*, this could also mean a lower price for the client.

Of course, all this will result in price reductions, depending on how much more competitive the market becomes. If, as we anticipate, competition in the legal services market increases, the price reduction will tend to increase the use of court

¹ See for example CGPJ (2016).

² With telephone companies, utilities and other basic services that accumulate thousands of claims each year.

³ See for example <http://www.capterra.com/legal-case-management-software/>.

⁴ Some studies are concerned about this software, because it handles private data about millions of citizens and their cases, and is being used by (lawyer) firms who, despite knowing the legislation on data protection, are not used or prepared to protect that information, so it could easily be captured via the internet for unintended uses.

services, perhaps increasing congestion and delay, and generating interactions that partially compensate for the initial increase in consumption of court and legal services.

• **Adverse Selection and Moral Hazard/Principal-Agent Problems in the Big Data Environment**

To illustrate the logic of Big Data on these two issues it may be useful to recall how Amazon has changed the logic of market functioning in a large number of goods and services. Ten years ago if a person wanted to repair an appliance at home, he had to go to the nearest hardware store, get the necessary tools and spare parts, and then repair it himself, or hire the services of a technician. In this context, in the first place Amazon makes available information to the customer about dozens or hundreds of suppliers of such tools and spare parts, which can be compared thanks to the opinions and recommendations of other users; so it is now possible for the consumer to compare sellers before deciding and he will probably end up buying from some other supplier. Additionally, thanks to the logic of Big Data, the customer learns that there are multiple options for this replacement and even different alternatives, so he may not buy the same tools and spare parts he would have bought before. Finally, he can implement the logic of Big Data, available on the internet platforms, to learn how to do the repair himself, so he may not hire the same technician as before, or perhaps he will hire another who offers different alternatives to what he had initially thought. In short, the logic of Big Data changes the goods that are bought and how they are bought, the suppliers that are chosen, and finally, the services that are contracted. And more importantly, Big Data changes the logic of the customer's behavior and the procedure followed when deciding how to solve his initial problem.

A similar reasoning can be followed to forecast the effect that the logic of Big Data will have on the demand for lawyer services.

First, with the greater access to available information, the problem of adverse selection will be reduced, as potential clients will be able to access the internet and obtain very extensive information, from actual users, about the type and quality of the services offered by different law firms, which will allow them to better choose the services they need to contract.

And secondly, although the individual citizen will only have few additional tools to carry out the monitoring of his own lawyer's performance, by accessing the internet platforms he will be able to get comments from other users -each with a different level of legal knowledge- who share their own experience; for example about a mistake they observed in their lawyers's work; or whether or not the procedural deadlines were met. This will be perceived by law firms as a greater control over their work, bearing in mind that this information will now be available to other current or future clients. This will change the lawyers' performance, their strategies in court and the overall effectiveness of their work.

Obviously, this massive amount of additional information available to plaintiffs and defendants incentivates in turn the suppliers (the lawyers) to change other behaviors in the market and in relation to their particular clients. Keeping other factors constant, they will not only improve their advice to clients during the development of the case, but will also provide with more and better prior information to prospective clients on the possible costs and outcomes of the different options available to resolve the conflict, in or out of court.

So, with the logic of Big Data, the potential customer begins to make decisions in a different way. The client learns that his decision must be made after searching for the relevant information on the internet platforms, comparing the different services, studying the different possible outcomes both when going to court and when initiating an out-of-court settlement, taking into account all variables that may affect the outcome (which may depend on his own behavior or on his lawyer's) and finally evaluate each available alternative in all the dimensions that may interest him (time, money, stress, opportunity costs of resources invested, etc.). This will allow him to follow a decision-making process that maximizes his interests, both when hiring a lawyer and when deciding whether or not to proceed to court, taking into account the specific characteristics of his particular case.

4. Conclusions

As we have seen, the logic of Big Data changes the way citizens, and the potential clients of court services in particular, make use of the massive amount of information available on the internet. The use of this huge amount of information is drastically changing the expectations of the possible users regarding costs and the court outcomes. It also changes the structure of "production costs", both in monetary terms and in the number of hours invested, and the efficiency and the effectiveness of the lawyers' services (and probably also the behavior of judges¹).

These advantages can be passed on to the client, therefore increasing the consumption of these services, together with the greater and better information provided. But the biggest contribution of the logic of Big Data is that it is significantly changing the process of evaluating the decision to go to court and the way in which legal services are contracted.

In this paper we contribute to the Law and Economics literature by showing how the logic of Big Data not only provides the parties to a dispute with more information, but also introduces new criteria to take into account, and a new way to approach the decision of going to court or to reach an out-of-court agreement, thus modifying the demand for court and legal services in several ways.

First, we have shown that the estimates of plaintiffs and defendants regarding the costs and possible outcomes of the proceedings will be closer to each other, which, according to economic theory, will reduce the number of cases going to court (lowering demand), by making out-of-court agreements more attractive. This will not only reduce private and public costs, but will also reduce congestion, thereby improving the functioning of the courts.

Secondly, following economic theory, we can predict that reducing uncertainty will significantly change the decisions about going to trial. Some prospective plaintiffs who would have filed a claim will not do so, and some others will conclude that it is worthwhile to enter into litigation.

In addition, we have shown that not only the estimates of the costs of going to trial will change, but that the costs themselves will tend to decline. With Big Data, citizens are more likely to compare prices and services from different law firms, which contributes to a more competitive market. Although the proportion of this savings that the client enjoys is dependent on how the market structure evolves, it is clear that the logic of Big Data is changing lawyers' behaviour and also their fees onto result based fees at least in some civil matters. This not only reduces the cost of these services to the client, but also increases the specialization, increases the quality of the services offered by lawyers and the efficiency of their production, and reduces the search costs for clients. Price reductions for clientes incentivate the consumption of lawyers' services and court services in general.

Furthermore, the fact that the logic of Big Data allows the citizens to use actual users' information about the different options available, and their pros and cons, will reduce both the adverse selection problem and the principal-agent problem as well. To be more attractive in the market, law firms will give more and better information to their clients on the different strategies and possible outcomes, and the advantages or disadvantages of going to court, or reaching an out-of-court settlement.

Thus, the logic of Big Data is improving the quality of court and legal services, increasing efficiency in the judicial sphere, and increasing access to justice, which is definitely improving the well-being of citizens.

Since there are many opposite effects on supply and demand as a consequence of the incorporation of Big Data into the judicial logic, it is not possible to determine a priori whether the logic of Big Data increases or reduces the demand for court services. In the Short-Term, we believe that it will increase the number of lawsuits -given a number of conflicts- mainly due to the lower costs faced. However, in the Long-Term it is possible that the combined effect on the demand is negative: with more realistic expectations, the theory of litigation indicates that the use of court services will be reduced by increasing out-of-court agreements, provided that the necessary mechanisms for that are available.

¹ In this context, judges may have a tendency to pass sentences similar to those of their colleagues' not to appear as an "outlier". That does not necessarily mean an increase in the quality of the sentences, but the reduction in randomness and uncertainty does have positive effects on the system.

In addition, being easier to claim rights in court and less uncertainty about court outcomes, there will be less incentive to commit certain specific types of offences¹, which may also contribute to a lower level of litigation and a lower congestion. Of course, the partial compensatory effect due to the interaction between supply, demand and delay should be taken into account.

We believe that the major contribution of this paper is to show that Big Data is significantly changing the logic of behavior of both consumers and providers of court and legal services in general, leading to a change in the decision making criteria by all the agents involved. Not only does it change the way legal services are offered. As we have seen, users of court services are beginning to follow a decision-making process that starts off by looking for the relevant information that is beginning to be available on the internet. Citizens are starting to learn that now, in the judicial sphere, they can more directly assess each available alternative both in terms of benefits and of direct and indirect costs, in all relevant dimensions, taking into account the experience and advice of thousands of previous litigants, to adjust their decision based on the specific characteristics of their particular case.

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¹ For example, in Spain some banks begin to eliminate the so called “abusive commissions” in mortgages to new clients and even some of them offer compensations to former ones, in exchange for refraining from suing them.

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Annex. Symbols in Figure 1, Figure 2 and Figure 3.

ABBREVIATIONS			
BE	Belgium	LV	Latvia
BG	Bulgaria	LU	Luxembourg
CZ	Czech Republic	HU	Hungary
DK	Denmark	MT	Malta
DE	Germany	NL	The Netherlands
EE	Estonia	AT	Austria
EL	Greece	PL	Poland
ES	Spain	PT	Portugal
FR	France	RO	Romania
HR	Croatia	SI	Slovenia
IE	Ireland	SK	Slovakia
IT	Italy	FI	Finland
CY	Republic of Cyprus*	SE	Sweden
LT	Lithuania	UK	The United Kingdom
		EU28	European Union – 28 Member States

Narrating the History: The Reinterpretation of Symbolic Reparation for the Reconciliation and Redemption of Child Victims of Conflict

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Abstract:

In Colombia there is a large sector of the population that has been the object of violation and ignorance of their human rights. They, like all victims of this type of violation, need to be repaired in a comprehensive manner. The concept of symbolic reparation that includes this integral reparation aims to reclaim the human being, to reconstruct it from the wounds and traces left by the violation of human rights in his memory. In a more sympathetic sense than is usually attributed to it, it seeks to bring the practice and experience of individuals to a level of abstraction that allows them to conceptualize a specific fact and articulate it with other concepts, so that the individual acquires adequate resilience. In this sense, the exercise and the experience of this reconstruction through the narratives, can provide certain conditions that make possible the process of symbolic reparation, which is exactly what it is tried to demonstrate with this investigation. This document is part of the research entitled "The narratives as a mechanism for the symbolic reparation of children victims of human rights violations", which seeks to understand the factors that make it possible to implement narratives as a mechanisms for symbolic reparation of children who are victims of human rights violations, as opposed to the symbolic reparations that have been erroneously ordered by the Inter-American Court of Human Rights and the Colombian Supreme Court and Constitutional Court.

Keywords: Human rights, human rights violations, Peace research, Child welfare, Social justice

Introduction

Your eyes have your age,

but your ears have the age of your parents.

Proverb of Afar People (Vázquez & Francica, 2016, p. 78).

In Colombia there is a large sector of the population that has been victim of violation and ignorance of their human rights. They, like all victims of this type of rape, need to be repaired in an integral way. The concept of Symbolic Reparation that includes this integral reparation aims to reclaim the human being, to reconstruct it from the wounds and footprints that the violation of human rights left in his memory. In a more comprehensive sense than is usually assigned, Symbolic Reparation seeks to bring the practice and experience of individuals to a level of abstraction that allows them conceptualizing a particular fact, and articulating it with other concepts, so that the individual acquires a capacity of adequate resilience. In this sense, the exercise and the experience of this reconstruction through the narratives, can provide certain conditions that make possible the process of symbolic reparation, and that is precisely what this investigation is tried to demonstrate.

This paper is a result of the research entitled "The narratives as a mechanism for Symbolic Reparation of children victims of human rights violations" wch general objective is to understand the factors that make it possible to implement narratives as a mechanism for Symbolic Reparation of children victims of human rights violations in the department of Quindío. In addition, one of the specific objectives proposed within this research was to conceptualize, around the symbolic reparation, the different scope and elements that are proper to this measure, as well as to describe the elements that the narratives contribute within said process and that could be sufficient to achieve the objective of this repair. To do this, it was necessary to make an exercise of bibliographic revision around primary and secondary sources related to the topic of symbolic

reparation and narratives, and also around certain jurisprudence of the Inter-American Court of Human Rights and of the Constitutional and Supreme Courts of Justice of Colombia, all this in order to conceptualize about some of the categories of analysis that were identified within the aforementioned research, to conform the conceptual framework of the same and to develop the two objectives indicated above. The research to which the present article belongs is of a socio-judicial type, of qualitative class, and the method used is the Hermeneutic Method with a Biographical-Narrative approach. The instruments used to collect the information are the interviews, observations, autobiographical writings, life stories and photographs, in addition to the information that can be supplied by the Historical Memory Center of Colombia. The technique of analysis is discourse analysis.

The Duty to Repair Victims of Human Rights Violations

For more than five decades, the Colombian context has been defined by an armed conflict of a non-international character that has, as one of its most important and emphatic characteristics, the presence of victims, direct and indirect, of all genres, conditions and ages. Such victims are because the conflict has ignored and violated their essential rights, their human rights, and in the special case of children, their prevailing rights. And that prevalence of the rights of children in Colombia is what leads us to affirm that the violation of the rights of those who are entitled, and that have been recognized as of a higher value because of its importance and need for promotion and protection, to the point of calling them "human rights" (UNESCO, 2012), is –and must be a priority focus for both the State and society in general.

However, according to the results of the on-site visit by the Inter-American Commission on Human Rights in 2013, the Colombian context was characterized not only by the existence of an internal armed conflict that left numerous victims of all ages and regions of the Country, but also because of the presence of a number of basic rights and needs that are unsatisfied in a large part of the population, and because of the inadequacy of the legal and governmental mechanisms available to achieve this satisfaction (Inter-American Commission on Human Rights, 2013, p. 269). And it is precisely these victims who need to be repaired –because they have been subjected to violation and ignorance of their human rights, and that reparation must be both patrimonial and perhaps –and this is what is proposed through this research, emotionally and ontologically.

Resolution 60/147, adopted by the UN General Assembly on 16 December 2005, sets out the basic principles and guidelines on the right of victims of human rights violations to lodge and receive reparations. In that resolution, the Assembly emphasizes the victims' right to be treated with compassion and respect for their dignity, and the right to access justice and redress mechanisms, and to clarify that while the duty to make reparation lies at the head of the direct responsible (which is often different from the State), it is the State that, in its guarantor position of the respect and application of human rights and international law on the subject, which is in the duty not only to incorporate those norms to the domestic law, but also to adopt all the procedures that effectively tend to ensure equitable, effective and prompt access to justice and to the establishment of sufficient resources for the victims reaches the correspondat reparation (United Nations, 2005). By virtue of such content, Resolution 60/147, insofar as it allows for the promotion of justice in the face of any serious violation or ignorance of human rights, includes a guideline necessary to guarantee and achieve the due fulfillment of all those International Treaties that promotes and recognizes the high character of human rights.

In this way, ensuring the establishment of reparation mechanisms and alternatives for victims of human rights violations is an international duty of the States to which they are committed, not by Resolution 60/147 (which is only a guideline developing truly binding instruments), but rather by subscribing to the various international instruments that recognize and declare the paramount importance of human rights, such as the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, the International Covenant on Civil and Policy, the Convention on the Rights of the Child, the Haya Convention and the Additional Protocols to the Geneva Conventions, among others¹.

However, following the guidelines contained in the aforementioned Resolution, the Colombian State incorporated, through Law 1448 of 2011 related to Victims' Law and Land Restitution, a series of procedures and mechanisms that seek, among other things, to allow access of victims to reparation systems. This means that the Colombian State recognizes its duty to guarantee the victims –although only those who are victims of the internal armed conflict, access to reparation, which, in principle, seems to terms of UN Resolution 60/147.

¹ Judith Lichtenberg, "Negative Duties, Positive Duties, and the 'New Harms,'" *Ethics* 120 (2010): 557–578 at 561–562.

In any case, it is necessary to recall that, as the Inter-American Court of Human Rights has pointed out, the obligation of States to make reparations to victims of human rights violations is, in itself, the rationale of the system of international protection of human rights, from which it is inferred the exigibility of this duty to make reparation to the victims, by means of actions before said international jurisdiction:

The international protection of human rights should not be confused with criminal justice. States do not appear before the Court as defendants in a criminal action. The objective of international human rights law is not to punish those individuals, who are guilty of violations, but rather to protect the victims and to provide for the reparation of damages resulting from the acts of the States responsible.

The State has a legal duty to take reasonable steps to prevent human rights violations and to use the means at its disposal to carry out a serious investigation of violations committed within its jurisdiction, to identify those responsible, to impose the appropriate punishment and to ensure the victim adequate compensation (Inter-American Court of Human Rights, 1988, pp. 134, 174).

Likewise, in the Final Agreement for the Termination of the Conflict and the Construction of a Stable and Durable Peace, signed by the Colombian National Government and the Central Command of the Central Staff of FARC-EP on November 24, 2016 in the city of Bogotá, both parties entered into a series of commitments aimed precisely to securing a definitive end to the armed conflict between the State and the guerrilla group and establishing the minimum (although very specific) basis for building a solid peace. One of these commitments, as folio 127 et seq. of said Agreement, was the creation of an Integral System of Truth, Justice, Reparation and Non-Repetition, one of whose components is the following:

Measures of integral reparation for peace-building: These are measures that seek to ensure the integral reparation of victims, including rights to restitution, compensation, rehabilitation, satisfaction and non-repetition; and collective reparation of the territories, populations and groups most affected by the conflict and most vulnerable, within the framework of the implementation of the other agreements. To this purpose, existing mechanisms will be strengthened, further action will be taken, and everyone's commitment to redressing the damage caused will be promoted (High Commissioner for Peace, 2016, pp. 129-130) (Translated by the author).

Although this Integral System of Truth, Justice, Reparation and Non-Repetition is hardly in the stage of structuring, the text of the agreement thus signed may infer an obligation on the part of Colombian State, and even on the part of the ex-guerrilla group FARC-EP, to proceed –in the near future, to a reparation of the victims of the Colombian armed conflict, in the precise terms of Resolution 60/147 mentioned above, through the tools offered by said System, whose components are the (High Commissioner for Peace, 2016, p. 125):

- The Commission for the Clarification of Truth, Coexistence and Non-Repetition.
- The special unit to search for missing persons in the context and due to the armed conflict.
- The Special Jurisdiction of Peace.
- The set of integral reparation measures for the construction of peace.
- The Non-Repetition Warranties.

Thus, it is from these instruments, norms, judicial antecedents and expectations, from which arises the duty of the States, and specifically of the Colombian State, to repara the victims of human rights violations, understanding, of course, that the victims of the armed conflict are also, and for that reason, victims of serious violations of their human rights.

However, it being clear that there is a duty of the State in this regard, it is necessary to reflect close to who, in the current Colombian context, are holders of the right to reparation.

Characterization of Victims of Human Rights Violations

Regarding the characterization of victims of human rights violations, Resolution 60/147 establishes that "victims" are all persons who have suffered damages, individually or collectively, including physical or mental injuries, emotional suffering, economic loss or impairment fundamental rights, as a result of acts or omissions that constitute a manifest violation of international human rights norms, or a grave breach of international humanitarian law, including the immediate family or

persons in charge of the direct victim and the persons who have suffered harm in intervening to provide assistance to victims at risk or to prevent victimization (United Nations, 2005). As inferred from the above characterization, the quality of victim occurs regardless of the context surrounding the victimizing acts, that is to say, regardless of whether the human rights violations occur within the framework of an international or non-international armed conflict or not.

However, Law 1448 of 2011 –which determines, at the domestic level, the duty of the State to establish and define the mechanisms to achieve reparation of victims, does establish a restriction in the sense of considering as such, only those persons that had been individually or collectively harmed by events that had occurred since 1 January 1985 and as a result of violations of international humanitarian law or of grave and manifest violations of international human rights standards that had occurred during the armed conflict (Article 3). Right now, in addition to Law 1448 of 2011 and its statutory decrees (including 4800 of 2011), no other legislation in Colombia establishes a duty, at the head of the State, to repair and compensate victims that had acquired this quality for another reasons different than the internal armed conflict. This situation leaves all those people who have suffered different violations of their human rights for causes outside the internal armed conflict, out of the normative scope provided for there, which excludes a large section of the victimized population.

On the other hand, the Final Agreement for the Termination of the Conflict and the Construction of a Stable and Durable Peace signed by the Colombian National Government and the Central Command of FARC-EP, does not define precisely who will be understood in the condition of a victim capable of benefiting from the measures and mechanisms that will be implemented when the document be signed. What it does say, in a very vague reference to the Program for Integral Reparation of Victims (created by Law 1448 of 2011), is that a "victimization map" must be constructed, in which –among other things were included and registered in the universe of victims inscribed in that mentioned Program for Integral Reparation of Victims (High Commissioner for Peace, 2016, p. 185). Although there is currently no certainty about this aspect within the current framework of post-conflict in Colombia, this could mean that the future process of recognition of victims will be somewhat less strict and rigorous than that which has been applied to the interior of the Unit for Integral Care and Reparation for Victims, but will continue to imply, in any case, a substantial limitation on access to the right to reparation, while again excluding all victims of human rights violations that would have reached this quality for another reasons different than internal armed conflict in Colombia¹.

In spite of the above, the victims that constitute the object of study and the proposal that is brought here are those children who have been violated in their human rights, including the right to special protection for physical development –mental and social, education, understanding and love of parents and society, to receive help in all circumstances and protection against all forms of neglect, cruelty and exploitation (United Nations, 1959), which are just some of the rights that the country's children have been deprived of, without distinction to the cause of the victimizing event. And it is not only within the context of an armed conflict that human rights violations occur; as expressed by the General Assembly of the United Nations through Resolution 60/147, by refraining from establishing, as a prerequisite of the right to integral reparation, that the violation of human rights had occurred for one reason or another determined.

Thus, it is already clear that there is a duty to repair and to whom have the right to claim such reparation. It is now necessary to go on to establish what are the characteristics that must meet the reparation to which the States are obliged, specifically the Colombian State.

What is the Repair to which Forces the UN 60/147 Resolution?

In accordance with the terms of Article 18 of UN Resolution 60/147, reparation of victims of human rights violations must be complete and effective and include the following forms: restitution, compensation, rehabilitation, satisfaction and guarantee of non-repetition. The hermeneutic reading of this stipulation, based on an non-positivist (or inclusive, or axiological positivism) posture, makes it possible to infer that the intention of the UN General Assembly to establish the duty to make reparation in these aspects was to compel an integral reparation, in order to cover all the aspects that would have been affected by the violation of human rights. This has been confirmed by, inter alia, the Inter-American Court of Human Rights, for example, when it states:

¹ See, e.g., John Thøgersen and Ulf Schrader, "From Knowledge to Action – New Paths Towards Consumption," *Journal of Consumer Policy* 35 (2012): 1–5; William Young et al., "Sustainable Consumption: Green Consumer Behaviour when Purchasing Products," *Sustainable Development* 18 (2010): 20–31.

Reparations are measures tending to eliminate the effects of the violations committed. Their nature and amount depend on the characteristics of the violation and on both the pecuniary and non-pecuniary damage caused. Such reparations shall not result in the victims or their successors becoming richer or poorer and they shall be commensurate with the violations declared in the Judgment (Inter-American Court of Human Rights, 2006, p. 110).

This reparation, on the material and immaterial levels of the victim, has been called integral reparation or *restitutio in integrum*, which, in addition, is consistent with the classification of reparable items defined by the Office of the Special Rapporteur of the United Nations, within the Draft Principles and Basic Guidelines relating to the redress of gross violations of human rights, according to which reparation of victims should include restitution, compensation, **reconstruction of the life project**, satisfaction and guarantees of non-repetition (United Nations Commission on Human Rights, 1993). (Highlighted out of text).

It is worth mentioning, at this point, that for the purposes of this document, the reconstruction of the life project and measures of satisfaction are of particular importance. The Inter-American Court of Human Rights has defined the first, that is, the reconstruction of the life project –or life plan:

The so-called 'life plan' deals with the full self-actualisation of the person concerned and takes account of her calling in life, her particular circumstances, her potentialities, and her ambitions, thus permitting her to set for herself, in a reasonable manner, specific goals, and to attain those goals" (Inter-American Court of Human Rights, 1998, p. 37).

The second, that is, the measures of satisfaction, involve the inclusion of provisions such as verification of facts and full public disclosure of truth, search for missing persons, official statements or judicial decisions that restore dignity, reputation and rights of the victim, public apologies including acknowledgment of the facts and acceptance of responsibilities, commemorations and tributes to the victims, and the inclusion of precise references to the violations in the teaching of international standards of human rights and international humanitarian law (United Nations, 2005).

The reparation of victims, which must be, as has been said, in a comprehensive manner, entails not only the coverage of the pecuniary aspects that will eventually serve to restore assets and resources lost during the rape –insofar as this is possible, but also involves the satisfaction of certain aspects that were affected by the same violation of human rights, aspects closely linked to both the life project and the victim's emotions.

Scope of Integral Repair and Rol of Symbolic Repair

Having said all this, it is pertinent to bring up the proposal named by Velásquez Zapeta, in 2008, as Maya Kem strategy. According to this, the integrality in the reparation of victims is reached when there is "the synergic articulation of the compensation measures that are applied in a certain place, at the same time and with the democratic participation of the same beneficiary population, at community level, municipal, regional or departmental" (Velásquez Zapeta, 2008, p. 199) (Translated by the author). This strategy involves three forms of work: the active participation of the victims in the design, planning and execution of the repair strategy; respect for victims as subjects of rights and as the ultimate reason for all activity; and the conception of the strategy as a dynamic of flexible application of compensation measures:

Material restitution operations are conceived as a medium around which qualitative and intangible operations (such as cultural restitution and psychosocial reparation) are developed, and it is hoped that these intangible measures will be able to remain longer in each community and that achieve the desired effects of increasing self-esteem and self-valuation of people as citizens subjects of rights (Velásquez Zapeta, 2008, p. 200) (Translated by the author).

However, as stated above, the Colombian context makes it possible to highlight the presence of child victims who have been or have been subjected to ignorance and violation of their human rights, and who, for this reason, need to be repaired, not only from a patrimonial-material perspective, but also, and in addition, from an emotional-immaterial, integral, and ontological perspective. Within that concept of integral reparation that seeks to claim being and allow the reconstruction of his life project from the wounds and traces that the violation of human rights left in his memory, symbolic reparation plays an important role for these effects as long as it seeks to bring the practice and experience of individuals to a level of abstraction that allows one to conceptualize a given fact and articulate it with other concepts so that the individual acquires adequate resilience. This has been hinted in a large part of international doctrine: "[symbolic reparation] can fulfill a relevant psychological function, helping the personal rupture with the traumatic past to which has been bound since the moment of the violation, and helping to integrating it to the present" (Beristain, 2010, p. 120) (Translated by the author).

Thus, the purpose of symbolic reparation consists precisely in allowing the victim, on the one hand, to redefine and resignify his own perception, that is, the perception he has of himself in front of the world around him, and on the other side, to rebuild his project of life from the new story that he has set it. This is precisely the same claim of integral reparation raised within the Maya Kem Strategy. In this sense, it is considered that the exercise and the experience that this process of resignification and reconstruction make the victim through the narratives, enables the achievement of the claims and objectives of the integral reparation to which States are bound, in the way that is going to be explain in the next chapter.

However, attention should be drawn to the fact that in the Final Agreement for the Termination of the Conflict and the Construction of a Stable and Durable Peace subscribed by the Colombian Government and the FARC-EP, no further mention is made of this type of repair. At first, it is established that the Tribunal for Peace:

Without prejudice to the competence of the State Council in respect of monetary reparations, it [the Tribunal for Peace] may establish symbolic restorative obligations to the State and organizations respecting due process and provided that the organization or State has omitted effective procedures to prevent punishable conduct (High Commissioner for Peace, 2016, p. 162) (Translated by the author).

And then, in a second and final moment, it was agreed that collective reparation plans with a territorial approach should include, as one of its elements, "Material and symbolic measures aimed at attending the damage [...] guided to direct victims, individual and collective, such as actions of dignity, memory, homage and commemoration, infrastructure works and commemorative architecture "(High Commissioner for Peace, 2016, p.180).

Thus, although the symbolic reparation fulfills this remarkable resignifying function of the victim, being one of the most important and dignifying aspects of the integral reparation ordered by UN Resolution 60/147, it has not had –until the moment, the scope that corresponds within the Colombian post-conflict scenario.

Why the Narratives?

*We are voices in a chorus that transforms lived life into narrated life
and then returns narrative to life,
not in order to reflect life,
but rather to add something else,
not a copy but a new measure of life;
to add, with each novel, something new, something more, to life.
Our life and everyone's life –there is no narrative adventure that,
somehow, is not a personal as well as a collective adventure,
the experience and destiny of one and all.*

(Fuentes, 1985)

Within a society in conflict such as Colombia, the victims –not only of the armed conflict but all those that are of the different violations of human rights, in addition to claiming recognition as such, demand an effective reparation that allows them to attend to their resilience process. Such a process does not occur, as has been said, by obtaining a pecuniary compensation or similar, but requires a true commitment towards the recognition of the other as the constructive subject of existence, reality and subjectivity of each victim. It requires the insertion and use of symbols that are part of the imaginary of individuals and that allow the apprehension of new values within the daily life of each being. In this sense, it is considered that the identification of the narratives that facilitate that process of resilience, and the understanding of the tools that each of them can contribute in that process, is the mechanism that can possibly transform the silence of children who are victims of human rights violations, in real, individual, and powerful voices, that will reinterpret the process of adaptation, overcoming and reconstruction of a new reality.

Why the narratives? It was previously said that integral reparation has a purpose of rebuilding the social fabric, and that such integrality is achieved insofar as the compensation strategies involve simultaneously the strategy of redress and the

individual himself as a subject of reparation. However, it is not possible to define narratives based on a precise notion of a particular activity, because it would be reducing its ability to articulate and produce meaning within a discourse.

Narratives, according to Anderson's understanding of them, are a two-way discursive process that involves the narrator and all the world which surrounds him, to construct a new and improved meaning of life:

Narratives refers to a form of discourse, the discursive way in which we organize, account for, give meaning to, and understand, that is, give structure and coherence to, the circumstances and events in our lives, to the fragments of our experiences, and to our self-identities, for and with ourselves and others. Narrative is a dynamic process that constitutes both the way that we organize the events and experiences of our lives to make sense of them and the way we participate in creating the things we make sense of, including ourselves... Our stories form, inform, and re-form our sources of knowledge, our views of reality... however, narrative is more than a storytelling metaphor; it is a reflexive two-way discursive process. It constructs our experiences and, in turn, is used to understand our experiences (Anderson, 1997, pp. 212-213).

Therefore narratives, whatever their form, and the methodologies that they incorporate (which contemplate routes that allow the inclusion of the voice and memories of the victims, the retrieval of documentary material, oral testimonies which leads to historical enlightenment and reconstruction of local memories, and make possible this symbolic reparation in addition to the generation of new knowledge and a certain guarantee of non-repetition), presupposes the reconstruction of the narrator's vision of events, a reconstruction that can be achieved either by written forms, or sounds, pictographic or other means. And precisely because of this, because the process of reconstruction of events involves the very voices of those who suffered –or still are suffering the violation of their human rights, the approach that should guide this process is the biographical-narrative, which allows and makes possible –according to Antonio Bolivar, the hermeneutic interaction of the following four elements:

(a) A narrator, who tells us about his life experiences; (b) An interpreter or researcher, who interpolates, collaborates and "reads" these stories to produce a report; (c) Texts, which include both what has been narrated in the field, and the subsequent report elaborated; and (d) Readers, who are going to read the published versions of narrative research. Therefore, the examination of narrative tales involves complex relationships between narrator, informants who have told us stories, and readers who interpret narrative forms from their frames of reference. Biographical accounts are texts to be interpreted (interpretandum) through another text (interpretans), which is basically the research report (Bolivar, 2010, p. 80)(Translated by the author).

Now, as the author mentioned above points out, once the stories that constitute the particular vision of each victim have been obtained, this narrative/story becomes a text/speech capable of being interpreted and, above all, capable of raising the voice of each one of the victims and resist the oblivion with which time and indifference conceal the individual and collective reality of each violation of human rights. In this sense, the recognition of the harm and pain that individually and collectively has suffered each victim, is especially important insofar as it allows, not only the individualization of each child as a particular subject within the conflict –and the postconflict, with its different and particular conditions and contexts that confer him or her a special and unique sense to his loss and his pain, but also allows the individualization of the precise measure of symbolic reparation that will enable, in that particular child, his repair, individual and –why not personalized.

And that is precisely the fault of the current measures of symbolic reparation that both the Colombian Constitutional Court and the Inter-American Court of Human Rights are ordering in those cases related to non-international conflicts and transitional justice: See, for example, the measure of symbolic reparation ordered by the Inter-American Court of Human Rights in the case of the Rochela Massacre v. Colombia, in which it was ordered:

A plaque with the date of the events and the names of the victims will be placed at the Courthouse of San Gil municipality, Santander department. Likewise, a photographic gallery of the victims will be installed in a visible and dignified place, with prior authorization from their representatives" (Inter-American Court of Human Rights, 2007, p. 81).

What does this measure say about each one of the victims whose names were recorded on that plaque? How can sons and daughters, wives and husbands, family and close friends feel repaired for the loss of their loved ones, by the inclusion of their names on a commemorative plaque? How can it talk about the particular context of each one of these victims, about the work they were doing, about their importance within a community, within a family? These immobile, inert

measures, even when they try to recover the historical memory of the victims, do not really fulfill the purpose of the symbolic reparation of all the victims involved in that loss.

The exercise through narratives, on the other hand, focuses on the individuality of each person –in this case in each one of the children who have suffered some violation of their rights during the conflict, to intervene in an active and positive way in the process of narration, comprehension and resignification of each life experience, in order to contribute to the reconstruction of both the project of individual life that was affected by the conflict and the social fabric that was broken on the occasion of the same.

However, this exercise cannot remain solely in the recovery of such narratives/stories. The life histories narrated by children victims of human rights violations, in order to have the reparative effect that they are expected to have, should be read and, above all, interpreted in the mentioned two-way discursive process. As González-Monteaudo said, quoting Fraser:

'Learning and change result from the integration of concrete emotional experiences with cognitive processes: conceptual analysis and understanding'. Through learning, the adult symbolically travels from dependence to autonomy, from passivity to activity, from selfishness to altruism, from self-rejection to self-acceptance, from imitation to originality, from narrow interests to broad interests (Fraser, 1995:9) (González-Monteaudo, 2017, p. 46).

For this reason, it is proposed a methodology of analysis –comprehensible and interpretive based on hermeneutics, but not that one which is possible within a single discipline, but that one which constitutes an interdisciplinary exercise, since human realities can not be approached, in the full extent of their complexity, from a single disciplinary field. For this reason, the narrative biographical method, which requires a hermeneutic perspective –in this case interdisciplinary, stands as the best mechanism to achieve the reading of the speeches that will constitute and shape the narratives, as the way that summarized by Bolívar:

Narrative-biographical research, as a branch of interpretive research, shares some of the general methodological principles of qualitative research, especially that interpretive or hermeneutic perspective, whose object is essentially discursive texts (Denzin and LINCOLN, 2006; VASILACHIS, 2006) (Bolívar, 2010, p. 79)(Translated by the author).

Thus, the mechanism proposed here through narratives becomes a dialogical exercise between victims and readers that, precisely because of this characteristic, makes possible reflection and with it also a change. One thing will be to read the conflict from the statistical data, or even from the same Peace Agreement, and another will be read it from the narrative made by anyone who has been affected by it, or by any other violation of their human rights. As the sociologist Sam Richards points out, regarding the possibilities offered by direct dialogue between the parties to the conflict: "These conversations, which previously seemed impossible to have, generate reflection, and reflection generates change" (Richards, 2016) (Translated by the author).

Conclusion: Biographical-Narrative Exercise as an Act of Symbolic Reparation

According to the insinuations above, narratives have some properties to make the narrator give a certain meaning to his reality, according to the experience and the ontological resources available to him, but also according to that rational process with which he deals with that reality; but this process can be –in many cases determined precisely by the wounds and emotions to which the traumatic experience leads the victim. And it is that, according to Bruner, life, experiences and reality in them are meaningless, because it is the individual, each person who lives, experiences and is immersed in a reality, who confers to this reality the sense that his judgment and his reflection allow him.

[...] The mimesis between life so-called and narrative is a two-way affair: that is to say, just as art imitates life in Aristotle's sense, so, in Oscar Wilde's, life imitates art. Narrative imitates life, life imitates narrative. "Life" in this sense is the same kind of construction of the human imagination as "a narrative" is. It is constructed by human beings through active ratiocination, by the same kind of ratiocination through which we construct narratives. When somebody tells you his life—and that is principally what we shall be talking about—it is always a cognitive achievement rather than a through-the-clear-crystal recital of something univocally given. In the end, it is a narrative achievement. There is no such thing psychologically as "life itself" At very least, it is a selective achievement of memory recall; beyond that, recounting one's life is an interpretive feat. Philosophically speaking, it is hard to imagine being a naive realist about "life itself" (Bruner, 2004, p. 692).

Thus, the narrative process of a life story involves an expression of the way in which the person perceives and processes internally their experience and their own perception of their place in the world. In this way, a victimizing fact such as those

involving a violation of human rights will be perceived –and narrated by the victim of the same, by the child who suffered this violation, in a way that will directly correspond to the capacity that has that child to understand that situation, to process it in his mind and to find a way to overcome it. And although the above-mentioned author argues that people are habituated to a certain way of perceiving their reality and their experience in the world, so they make it a kind of guide to structure all their experience and their future life (Bruner, 2004, p. 708), the fact is that narratives, because they involve a form of expression, an act of language (written, musical, pictorial, etc.) and therefore an "act of meaning" (Bruner, 1990) the capacity to provide to each child victims of human rights violations with the necessary tools to build and transform their reality, so they can understand it and, with it, give it a new, renewed sense that calms the pain and close the wounds with which this reality marked them.

In 2011, Angus & Greenberg indicated, in what they called a Dialectic-Constructivist Narrative Model applicable to patients with a diagnosis of depression, that the process by which the patient exposes the narratives, the accompanying life stories, was foundational to he could give a new emotional meaning to his experience, and could attain a new understanding of himself (Angus, et al., 2012, p. 55). Although this model was designed for the treatment of patients with depression, it was intended to achieve that the experiences and perceptions that had led the patient to that state of depression, could be understood and articulated –through narratives– to other perceptions and images of himself, that allowed him to reach an emotional transformation, an emotional change, a healing of his wounds.

Further-more, they note that it is the narrative scaffolding of emotional experiences that provides a framework for the organization and integration of felt emotions with unfolding action sequences. For Angus and Greenberg (2011), core emotional experiences such as pain, hurt, sadness or loving compassion need to be situated and symbolized in the context of personal stories so that important information about a client's needs and goals, and the personal meaning of what happened, can be further articulated and understood...

The meaning of an emotion is understood when it can be organized within a narrative framework that identifies what is felt, about whom, in relation to a specific need or issue. As such, the reflexive processing and symbolization of clients' emotional experiences, in the context of salient personal stories, is viewed as a key intervention strategy that enables clients to meaningfully integrate their narrative and emotional lives, as a vehicle for therapeutic change (Angus, et al., 2012, p. 55).

According to the process written by these authors, narrative expression would allow victims of human rights violations a sincere and deep understanding of their own emotions, while allowing the visualization of different perceptions of themselves and their value in the world. In this way, it is considered that the implementation of this Model would be appropriate to achieve the other purposes of symbolic reparation, that is, to heal the wounds that the violation of human rights left in the child victims of the same.

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Professional Discourse as Social Practice

Silvia Blanca Irimiea

Abstract

Professional discourse (PD) has come under close scrutiny for the last two-to-three decades. The discipline termed 'professional discourse' developed side by side with the related fields of organizational discourse, workplace discourse, institutional discourse, and more recently, corporate discourse, all related to or rather subservient to specific forms of communication. From the earliest studies and continuing today, communication-related studies have been interdisciplinary, drawing on sociology, psychology, anthropology, linguistics, and any discipline that could shed light on human behaviour in particular settings. It is the purpose of the present article to show the link between professional discourse and social practice and to link it to sociological theories. The study goes out from a presentation of PD (Gunnarson 1997), the differences between the terms 'institutional discourse' and 'professional discourse' as proposed by Sarangi and Roberts (1999: 15-19), Koester's definition of 'institutional discourse', Gotti's notion of 'specialist discourse', Drew and Heritage's (1992:3) notion of 'institutional talk'. The characteristics of PD are viewed in terms of the functions it may perform and draw on Chiappini and Nickerson (1999), Linell (1998), Mertz (2007), and Kong (2014). Social practice and social practice theory, on the other hand, build on the tenets of Bourdieu (1989), Giddens (1984), Schatzki (2002), Reckwitz (2002), Jackson (2005) and Holtz (2014). While discourse, in general, has been viewed from the social structuration perspective by SFL and CDA scholars, the PD relationship to social practice followed the social constructionist approach. PD is explicated through the role discourse plays in professional socialization and identity creation (Kong 2014, Smith 2005). Other notions, such as Wenger's (1998) 'community of practice', 'shared repertoire' are discussed in relation to the use of PD as well. Finally, possible directions for further research inquiry are put forward.

Keywords: professional discourse, social constructionist theory, social practice, professional socialization, identity formation

Introduction

The research paper seeks to examine the way in which professional discourse relates to social practices and the role(s) it performs vis-a-vis society.

Professional discourse studies have developed in the last two-to-three decades. As a discipline it has been dealt with in a scholarly manner by many applied linguists and discourse analysts. The first notable work on professional discourse is *The Construction of Professional Discourse* (Gunnarson et al., 1997), an anthology which became referential for the study of professional discourse. According to Gunnarson (1997), professional discourse emerged from the overall discipline of applied linguistics and applied discourse analysis and belongs to the area of languages for specific purposes (ESP) or specialized languages. The discipline termed 'professional discourse' developed side by side with the related fields of organizational discourse, workplace discourse, institutional discourse, and more recently, corporate discourse, all related to or rather subservient to specific forms of communication.

From the earliest studies and continuing today, communication-related studies have been interdisciplinary, drawing on sociology, psychology, anthropology, linguistics, and any discipline that could shed light on human behaviour in particular settings. It is the purpose of the present article to show the link between professional discourse, social practice and sociological theories. The scholars who addressed the relationship between discourse, in general, or other forms of discourse, such as political, media, educational, organizational, etc. and social practice theories embraced the structuration theory proposed by Giddens (1979/1994). The approach has been reflected in the collection of papers on SFL and CDA *Systemic functional linguistics and critical discourse analysis: studies in social change* (Harrison and Young 2004). Both SFL and CDA have developed indepth analyses of discourse in several settings, inviting researchers to find new

transdisciplinary ways to continue the investigations of discourse and to theorize on the dialectics of discourse. In contrast, professional discourse has been investigated less thoroughly from a *social constructivist* perspective (Kong 2014, Smith 2005).

The present study goes out from a presentation of PD which is indebted to Gunnarson (1997), from the differences between the terms 'institutional discourse' and 'professional discourse' as proposed by Sarangi and Roberts (1999: 15-19), Koester's definition of 'institutional discourse' (2010), Gotti's notion of 'specialist discourse' (2003) and Drew and Heritage's (1992: 3) notion of 'institutional talk'. The characteristics of PD are viewed in terms of the functions it performs and draw on the works of Chiappini and Nickerson (1999), Linell (1998), Mertz (2007), and Kong (2004). Social practice and social practice theory, on the other hand, build on the tenets upheld by Bourdieu (1989), Giddens (1984), Schatzki (2002), Reckwitz (2002), Jackson (2005) and Holtz (2014). The PD relationship to social practice is then explicated through some theoretical principles grounded on *constructionist* views and on the role discourse plays in *professional socialization and identity creation*. Other notions, such as Wenger's (1998) 'community of practice', 'shared repertoire' are discussed in relation to the use of PD as well. Finally, possible directions for research inquiry are put forward.

The research is based on and valorizes the research of four previous studies on professional discourse ('Professional discourse, Professional workplace discourse', 'Workplace discourse', and Organizational and institutional discourse') published in 'Rethinking Applied Linguistics' (Irimia, S. 2017).

Professional discourse and the related discourses

Professional discourse has a relatively recent history but has developed rapidly into a complex interdisciplinary study. It emerged from (social) realities and has become the object of discourse analysis, or rather applied discourse analysis, and as part of applied linguistics. It has been approached as a complex interdisciplinary study to which some methods of analysis used for the study of its subservient disciplines have been applied.

Professional discourse, as well as workplace and institutional discourse have generated a debate among discourse analysts regarding their identity and their association with other fields of professional specialism. Bargiela-Chiappi and Nickerson (1999) speak about three types of discourse: a discourse called by Gunnarson et al. (1997) 'professional discourse', an 'institutional discourse' described by Agar (1985), Drew and Sorjens (1997), and a 'business discourse' (Bargiela-Chiappi and Nickerson (1999). Professional discourse was described by Gunnarson et al. (1997: 5) in the introduction to their book *The Construction of Professional Discourse* as belonging to some domains like legal, medical, social welfare, educational and scientific for which it represents 'a unique set of cognitive needs, social conditions and relationships within society at large'. Bargiela-Chiappi and Nickerson argue that 'beyond the specificity of individual professional discourse there are common underlying processes' (1999:1), without, however, highlighting them. *Institutional discourse* as promoted by Agar (1985) was viewed as an 'interaction between an expert and a lay person'. According to these definitions, Bargiela-Chiappi and Nickerson classify professional discourse as 'a hyper-category that encompasses several others' and suggest that or 'rather it is a collective category where discourse is intended in the singular and towards which other institutional genres converge by virtue of sharing some of its characteristics' (1999:1). In contrast, *business discourse* 'can be seen to be sharing in many of the general characteristics of professional discourse not only through *intertextuality* but also through *interdiscursivity*, that is through constitutive linguistic features which can be found in various business discourse genres' (Idem.). Bargiela-Chiappi and Nickerson (1999:1) consider that 'the status of the interactants could be seen as a decisive element in the distinction between professional and business discourse: as already mentioned above, in the former (but not in the latter) a lay person is often involved and the professional discourse is therefore of an institutional nature'.

Yet, some other authors, like Almut Koester (2010), following a longer research tradition, launched the notion of 'workplace discourse', described as a type of discourse that belongs to professional discourse, to institutional discourse and also to business discourse. Koester goes out in his argumentation from Wenger's (1998) 'community of practice' category and from Swales' (1990: 24-27) 'discourse community' notion. Wenger's (1998: 72-73) *community of practice* was based on three components: mutual engagement, joint enterprise and shared repertoire. Swales' *discourse community* consisted of six components: (1) a set of public goals, (2) mechanisms of communication among its members, (3) participatory mechanisms aimed at providing information and feedback, (4) one or more genres in the communicative repertoire to further its aims, (5) a specific lexis, (6) a threshold level of members with a suitable degree of relevant context and discursive practice (Swales, 1990: 24-27, quoted in Koester 2010: 8). Koester's book lays emphasis on how discourse community uses discourse, or more specifically, how it uses 'one or more genres'. In his book Swales, like many other analysts, opted

for a rhetorical stance, paying more attention to the description of genres and overlooking the contribution of communities. In contrast, other analysts belonging to the social constructionist school of genre, including Freedman and Medway (1994), focused more on 'linking genres to the values and epistemology of the discourse community' (Koester, 2010: 8). According to Koester, Wenger's notion of 'shared repertoire' is a more comprehensive notion than the notion of 'genre', as it embraces much more, both linguistic and non-linguistic elements and is defined as 'notions, words, tools, ways of doing things, stories, gestures, symbols, genres, actions and concepts' (Wenger, 1998: 82).

The emergence and development of professional discourse studies

Designations

Professional discourse emerged from the overall discipline of applied linguistics and applied discourse analysis (Gunnarson, 1997). It belongs to the area of languages for specific purposes (ESP) or specialized languages and can be assigned different other designations, such as *special languages*, *specialized languages* and more recently, *Academic and Professional Languages*. Raquel Martinez Motos (2013) imports the term *Academic and Professional Languages* from Alcaraz (2000). Gunnarson (1997: 285) cautiously referred rather to 'applied discourse analysis' than to 'professional discourse' although most of her work is centred on professional discourse. As editor (along with Linell and Norberg) she also titled an anthology 'The Construction of Professional Discourse (1997)', an anthology which became referential for the study of professional discourse in the 1990s.

The first decade of the 21st century has launched a new concept of society, a 'knowledge-based' society, characterized by *interdisciplinarity* and a pronounced tendency towards *specialization*. It also continued the uncertain identity of these types of discourse by developing other designations. The term 'Academic and Professional Languages' (Motos, 2013:4) appears to be the most recent term used with reference to what has been called traditionally *technical language*, *special language*, *specialized language*, *language for specific purposes*, *professional language*. The term, coined earlier by Alcaraz (2000), refers to the language used by specific knowledge or professional communities or groups, such as chemists, lawyers, physicians, etc., to account for the shared values and institutions and the use of the same genres and terminology in their intra-community communication.

At the same time, Kong (2014) uses the designation 'professional discourse' to refer to the same type of language. Given the lack of consensus among scholars regarding the designation and the boundaries that might separate the concepts we shall refer only to 'professional discourse' as it was adopted by Kenneth Kong (2014).

The practice-related origin of professional discourse and its theoretical tenets

According to Kong (2014), professional discourse studies have diverged into two directions: on the one hand, the applied discourse studies in the form of case studies and conversation or interaction analyses emerged earlier than the theory-related tenets of the discipline. They go back to the early 1970s and are indebted to the applied discourse research carried out mainly in educational settings. This research was associated with and focused on classroom interaction. Kong points out that 'professional discourse analysis has been deeply entrenched in the traditions of the teaching of English for Specific Purposes (ESP), in Britain and on the European continent, and the teaching of composition and rhetoric in the US'. He also notes that 'This pedagogical focus has shifted attention away from the central issues of power and domination to the more practical values of use and function.' (2014: 2)

On the other hand, the theoretical tenets of professional discourse, focused entirely on what was called 'professional discourse', emerged later, in the late 1990s, stimulated by the development of microanalyses in the field. The theoretical framework of professional discourse (PD) grew out of the interest of researchers in more reality-bound areas of society, where discourse is used in real-life communication for the purpose of carrying out activities and solving problems. One scholar to address the issue consistently was Gunnarson in 1997.

Both the theoretical framework and the practical research were focused on language use in authentic, work-related settings. Several analysts, such as Bazerman and James Paradis (1991) focused on writing in professional communities, Drew and Heritage (1992) viewed spoken discourse in a variety of professional settings, while Firth A. (1995) analyzed intercultural negotiations.

The studies carried out in the first decade of the 21 century, attempted to define what 'profession' and 'professional' mean. According to a very succinct definition, *professional discourse* is the language used by professionals, such as lawyers,

doctors and engineers. Gradually, the term 'professional' was extended to many other new professions, which are part of a phenomenon that Gee et al. (1996) call the 'new work order'. Kong defines professional discourse as 'the language produced by a professional with specialist training to get something done in the workplace' (Kong, 2014: 2). In an attempt to show the differences, Kong's definition blends all three major features: 'a professional', 'specialist training' and 'workplace', although the fact that this particular discourse is used in the workplace may raise ambiguities or confusion.

However, the broadest definition of professional discourse is provided by Linell (1998), who affirms that 'professional discourse can be divided into three categories:

- (1) intraprofessional discourse, or discourse within a specific profession, such as communication among academics;
- (2) interprofessional discourse, or discourse between individuals from or representatives of different professions, such as communication between medical doctors and pharmaceutical sales persons, or between accountants and engineers; and
- (3) professional—lay discourse, such as communication between lawyers and their clients, or between advertisers and their potential customers'(quoted in Kong, 2014: 3).

Kong speaks about an additional category of discourse, the *regulatory professional discourse*, a discourse used to regulate or control a profession. He argues that

'This category includes, for example, the codes of practice issued by a hospital to doctors and nurses. Regulatory professional discourse, usually taking an occluded form, should belong to the categories of intraprofessional or interprofessional discourse. Certainly, regulatory discourse can be written by peers or professionals of other categories but there is a very significant difference compared with other kinds of communication, mainly in that regulatory discourse has a very strong normative function in shaping and forming the profession in question'(2014: 3).

Just like any kind of discourse, the main function of professional discourse is to provide and exchange information. Kong adds to this function or dimension another important dimension, 'the *interactional or affective function of language in professional contexts*, where interpersonal negotiation of meaning is always at stake' (Idem.).

Just like any form of discourse or communication, professional discourse may be targeted at the following actors: (1) professional peers, (2) different professionals and (3) laymen. Finally, it can be used as a regulatory means to control the practice of professionals themselves.

Social practice and social practice theories

Notions such as 'social practices', 'social', 'society' have become highly debated issues associated with an increasing number of disciplines that study individuals and their activities. The discussion of discourse and its role in social practice can start from the assumption that 'language is the product of culturally, historically and ideologically driven generalizations and classifications which tend to stereotype individuals and solutions to problems' (Rojek et al. 1988, quoted in Kong, 2014:3).

Activities, behaviours, routines, emotions, etc. take place in a social environment, since an individual cannot live, function, and survive unless he lives in a group or community of human beings. All human dwellings develop in a social context, thus sociologists, anthropologists, psychologists, linguists, etc. also study the 'social', which reversibly, is constituted by 'the behaviour of individuals who have some freedom to choose among alternatives and hence the individual and his/her incentives and decision-making strategies cannot be neglected' (Holtz, 2014, 2.1).

Social practice theories (SPT) go back to theorists such as Bourdieu (1989) and Giddens (1984) and view practices as the 'central starting point for understanding social systems' (Idem.). Giddens (1984) is the promoter of the theory of *structuration*, which views social practices as 'mediating between actors and structure and puts them in central stage'(Idem.). Giddens postulates that 'The basic domain of study of the social sciences, according to the theory of structuration, is neither the experience of the individual actor, nor the existence of any form of societal totality, but social practices ordered across space and time'(1984:2).

Social practices have received growing research attention as a promising area that can provide valuable insights into everyday activities, routines and relationships among human beings. According to Holtz (2014, 1.1.), they refer to 'everyday practices and the way these are typically and habitually performed in (much of) a society'. The practices are important, even vital to humans, are meaningful and represent 'parts of their everyday live activities' (Idem.). Quoting Reckwitz (2002), Holtz explains that these practices are 'routinely performed and integrate different types of elements, such as bodily and mental activities, material artefacts, knowlede, emotions, skills, and so on' (2014, 1.2.). Reckwitz provides a comprehensive definition of social practices:

'a *practice*'...is a routinized type of behaviour which consists of several elements, interconnected to one other: forms of bodily activities, forms of mental activities, "things" and their use, a background knowledge in the form of understanding, know-how, states of emotion and motivational knowledge. A practice – a way of cooking, of consuming, of working, of investigating, of taking care of oneself or of others, etc. – forms so to speak a "block" whose existence necessarily depends on the existence and specific interconnectedness of these elements, and which cannot be reduced to any one of these single elements' (2002: 49-50).

The 'block' of these elements forms an 'enduring, self-stabilizing pattern' (Holtz, 2014), whose elements seem to "glue together" (Røpke 2009). Røpke opinionates that 'a practice is reproduced by individuals, while new individuals are recruited to the practice' (Holtz: 2.4.). Holtz (quoting Reckwitz 2002) suggests that social practice 'constitutes a situation that captures individuals in a specific behaviour which adds to the reproduction of this practice across space and time' (Idem.) Hence it follows that *individuals* are 'carriers of practices' who do not freedly accept or choose between practices on the basis of their free choice, on the usefulness practices bear to them or on the basis of their concepts or determination, but who are "recruited" to practices according to their background and history' (Reckwitz 2002, quoted in Holtz 20014: 2.4).

Theorists, including Schatzki (2002), Reckwitz (2002), Shove and Pantzar (2005) and Warde (2005), conceptualized practices and concluded that in the literature of social practices 'there is no generally accepted or dominant list of elements that constitute a practice' (Holtz, 2014: 2.5.). However, in their conceptualization of practice, three components are important: material, meaning and competence components. It whould be noted that these categories are not clearly defined, have no clear boundaries, and are 'partly embodied in the practitioner' (Idem.). These components are linked by individuals when engaging in a practice (Idem.).

The conceptual framework of practices is basically formed by individuals, whose role is to integrate the components in the performance of practices and processes, which link the components (Shove and Pantzar 2005). Shove and Pantzar (2005) suggest that a *practice* is a configuration of three components: *material*, *meaning* and *competence*, which are partly embodied in the practitioner. The material component represents all physical aspects of the performance of practice and human body. It includes all material artifacts and bodily activities. Shove and Pantzar (2005) also postulate that 'The components are linked by individuals when performing a practice' (Holtz, 2014). For example, the activity 'going to work' is made up by going to the bus stop, buying a ticket, getting on the bus, taking a seat, etc. The *meaning* component includes the issues that are important for the material component, such as understandings, beliefs and emotions. In the example 'going to work' they represent the issues: price, social status, flexibility, etc. Finally, *competence* involves all the skills and knowledge that are instrumental in performing the practice. In the given example, they refer to: driving skills, knowledge of public transort, buying tickets, bus, stops, etc. Shove and Pantzar (2005) assume that the individual who is an 'empty container', in which 'meaning and competence are embedded and evolve', links the components 'making the practice as a composition of components complete' (Holtz, 2014).

Theorists hold the view that for a practice to be successful, a basic required feature is 'coherence'. It ensures two qualities to practices: peristence and spread which, in order to function require at least two conditions: cognitive consistency (Read and Simon 2012) and routine behaviour. The latter means that human actions are based on habits which are performed, 'efficiently, effortless, and uncounsciously repeated or transfered from similar situations in the past to the current situation' (Holtz 2014: 3.7.) . Theorists opinionate that competence and material must fit and that the 'fit' is inherent in human nature or in 'deeply ingrained aspects of the respective culture' (Idem.). If the components 'fit', the routine runs smoothly and the individuls do not feel the need to change it.

However, social practice theory does not explain how the components 'glue together', how certain practices become successful, are spread and preserved, while other practices are more prone to extinction.

Professional discourse and social practice

Discourse as social practice

From the relatively broad range of discourses, political discourse has been prevalingly investigated by Systemic Functional Linguistics and Critical Discourse Analysis scholars as *social practice* and as a *means* of analyzing current global changes. The endeavour of SFL to study the relationship language bears to society stems from the very mission SFL has devoted its research to. Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) has developed in the last 45 years as a theory and research area which examines the functions that language performs in society. To this purpose, language scholars have directed their attention to the examination of 'real' language events 'to understand the purposes language serves in a variety of contexts, and to understand the way language itself functions' (Young and Harrison, 2004:1). In a collection of papers on SFL and CDA edited by Harrison and Young in 2004 and titled *Systemic functional linguistics and critical discourse analysis: studies in social change*, SFL scholars have problematized different aspects affecting social life and social change both at global and national level, trying to find out how national (Fairclough 2004, Abdullah 2004, Hoon 2004) or institutional identity is being shaped by texts and discourses. SFL scholars investigated the discourses used in such areas as culture (Adendorff 2004), education and schooling (Christie 2004), legislation (Carvalho Figueiredo 2004), the media (Polovina-Vukovic 2004), bureaucracy (Harrison and Joung 2004), business, etc. Their intent was to show how discourses are used to create or alter identities and to provide linguistic evidence of how discourses structure and are structured by institutions in government, education and industry. In pursuing these purposes the authors analyzed the data resulting from some selected texts, most of which pertain to political issues and the mentioned ones.

From among the SFL oriented researchers who engaged in this study, Meurer (2004) comes as close as possible to Giddens' *structuration theory* and shows how it can be used to SFL and CDA analyses. Meurer uses structuration theory and social practice to analyze Noam Chomsky's *On the Bombings* (2004) text. In addition, Meurer demonstrates how 'intercontextuality' (a concept derived from and in analogy to 'intertextuality' and 'interdiscursivity') can determine and be influenced by other texts, discourses, genres and social practices.

Fairclough (2004) analyses Tony Blair's *Foreword* to a UK Department of Trade and Industry White Paper called *Our Competitive Future: Building the Knowledge Economy*, where he employs: 'texturing', modality representations of the processes (material, existential, relational and verbal) and relations, the actors involved in the processes (human, non-human), agency- non-agency features, the relationship between sentences (additive, contrastive, elaboration, etc.), the number of sentences and clauses and their relationships, the overall semantic pattern or rhetorical formation of the text to cast a glimpse at how texts and interactional analysis can reflect social changes. Furthermore, he uses these features to theorize on the dialectics of discourse. Fairclough concludes that the discourse in question is a new discourse constituted in relation to or as a result of the subversion of other discourses. Fairclough did not analyse the text from the points of view of genre and style, 'as a form of political action' and as a form of 'constituting the identity of a political leader'. He asserts that 'Discourses can be socially constructive, i.e. social life can be remodelled in their image', but admits that 'there are no guarantees in that regard' and that 'There are conditions of possibility for discourses to have such constructive or performative effects' (Fairclough *et al.* 2002). He also suggests that such a text is 'positioned' in complex chains or networks of texts with which it 'contracts intertextual relations, both retrospective and prospective' (2005:114), and that the concept of *recontextualization* can illuminate the dynamics of these relations (Bernstein 1990). Fairclough introduces the concept of *orders of discourse*, which stand for 'the linguistic moments of networks of social practices, whose elements are discourses, genres and styles.' (Idem.) Starting from there, Fairclough invites researchers to embrace 'transdisciplinary' ways for discourse investigations and text analyses and to link linguistic analyses to social analyses thus helping linguists contribute more substantively to social research.

Professional discourse as social practice: professional discourse and social constructionism

In contrast to discourse, in general, professional discourse has been investigated less systematically and less thoroughly in relation to society and social practices and/or social change. The research oriented towards social practices and society has been grounded on social constructionist theories and less applied to specialized texts and genres representing professional discourse. Professional discourse has been approached through interactional discourse analysis, written and oral discourse and genre analyses, and through rhetorical analyses. In spite of some forthcoming studies carried out in professional discourse, the studies cannot be subsumed to a coalesced research method or movement. The theoretical

stance adopted by professional discourse researchers has rather been social constructionist-grounded as reflected in Kong's work *Professional Discourse* (2014).

One obstacle in the broader and more indepth study of professional discourse in relation to society has been the somewhat unclear identity of professional discourse due to its convergence with so many other discourse types. Professional discourse refers to discourse used in a specific profession or context, such as education, politics, health, etc. domains which can be associated with institutions and organisations, which, in turn, have been investigated by SFL, CDA, institutional and organizational discourse scholars.

Another reason for the lack of a sustained interest in professional discourse and the lack of a coherent movement can be partly explained through the researchers' concerns which have been channelled in the direction of genre analyses. Such a research area seemed more instrumental in teaching teachers, professionals and students how to use profession-specific genres and texts, both in writing and in oral communication in order to help them become successful in their professions. Kong (2014: 3) acknowledges this assumption in the following words: 'the pedagogical focus has shifted attention away from the central issues of power and domination to the more practical values of use and function'. He recognizes the advancements made in other areas of discourse, admitting that 'there are many issues that have been intensely raised in other cognate approaches (e.g. Critical Discourse Analysis) but remain unanswered or even unexplored in the analysis of professional discourse'. Kong adds that 'There are several theoretical assumptions that have to be spelt out before we move on, such as social constructionism and social practice, socialization and identity, and indexicality, reflexivity and performativity' (Idem.). This is the reason why Kong has devoted a great deal of attention to these issues.

According to the *social constructionist* perspective, discourse is 'a set of meanings, metaphors, representations, images, stories, statements and so on that in some way together produce a particular version of events ... Surrounding any one object, event, person, etc., there may be a variety of different discourses, each with a different story to tell about the world, a different way of representing it to the world' (Burr 1995: 48 quoted in Kong 2014:3). This definition of discourse is reverberated by Gee, who understands discourse with capital D as 'ways of being in the world, or forms of life which integrate words, acts, values, beliefs, attitudes, and social identities' (1996:127). From these definitions, Kong infers that 'Any artifacts are hence constructed out of certain cultural, historical and ideological contexts and cannot be assumed to be natural or context-free' (Kong 2014: 3).

In respect of the relation discourse bears to social practice Kong states that:

In a similar vein, discourse has been regarded as a form of social practice in which users of any discourse are not aware of their own actions in an interaction. They behave the way they do just because it is the way of being and acting in that particular situation. For example, classes have been conducted in the traditional format of Initiation-Response-Follow-up, which means it is always the teachers who initiate questions, topics and so on, and it is always the students who respond to them, leading to the follow-up acts of the teachers. (2014:4)

The example provided by Kong in the quoted lines accounts for the use of discourse by different actors or interactants as a 'form' of social practice in line with the social constructionist perspective. Hence Kong draws the conclusion that

'Teachers and students cooperatively construct this social practice every day without tacit knowledge or overt awareness of the pattern but it is this very pattern that leads to a particular classroom reality and consequently the unequal power distribution between teachers and student'. (Idem.)

Kong's example is suggestive in several respects: first, it reaffirms the scholars' tendency to revert to examples drawn from teacher-student interactions and to draw on pedagogical issues; second, it states that both interactants, i.e. both teacher and students, are co-participants in the construction of a social practice; third, the participants in the practice act unawares of the pattern they enact; fourth, a particular social practice turns into a classroom (e.g. contextualized social) 'reality'; fifth, the pattern, or social practice perpetuates an unequal role and power distribution in society. Since the interaction between teacher and student is an unequal one but does not have other social consequences or implications, at this point Kong does not pursue the issue further.

Written professional discourse

In regard to the written manifestations of professional discourse, Kong quotes Rafter and Rubin (1988) and suggests that

'written text is a form of social constructionism because (1) writers construct mental representations of the social contexts such as audience and power difference during the writing act; (2) writing as a social process can articulate or constitute social contexts; (3) a text may be a collaborative effort of a group of people; and (4) writers assign "consensual values" to writing, thereby constructing a particular dimension of social meaning'(Idem.).

The quoted fragments clearly suggest that professional discourse and professional written discourse represent forms of 'social constructionism' thereby revealing the social constructionist underpinnings of his writings.

Kong further notes that the reader of a written text engages in a social interaction in which he negotiates the meanings like in a face-to-face interaction. Kong quotes Smith, who interprets the text-reader interaction as a 'text-reader conversation' where: 'first, a reader has to activate a text and becomes an active agent of the text; second, the reader has to respond to it in any ways relevant to his or her work'(Idem.).

Smith (2005) assumes that written texts play an important role in 'constructing social organization in different locations and at different times', a role which she explains:

The capacity to coordinate people's doings translocally depends on the ability of text, as a material thing, to turn up in identical form wherever the reader, hearer, or watcher may be in her or his bodily being...Texts suture modes of social action organized extralocally to the local actualities of our necessarily embodied lives. Text- reader conversations are embedded in and organize local settings of work. (166, quoted in Kong, 2014: 4)

According to Smith (2005), first, texts, if they are well written, in their material and established form, play an essential role in coordinating people's actions wherever people act. Second, texts ensure the integration of social actions into the social context, which she calls 'local actualities of our necessarily embodied lives'; third, and very importantly, such 'conversations' 'are embedded in and organize local settings of work', which in our interpretation refers to the local professional or workplace environment.

In addition to these considerations, Smith (2005) points out the reasons why texts may have a universal value and may be used by people 'independent of local time, place or person': texts used permanently or constantly create patterns or standards, and due to printing technologies they can be used by any social organization or user, for the same purposes' (quoted in Kong, 2014: 4), we might add.

From the above quoted fragments, Kong concludes that 'written text should be regarded as a social action or social practice that happens at a particular time when the writing is created. It is activated again when a reader reads it and responds to it in an appropriate way, possibly leaving a long gap between production and reception' (2014:4). At the same time, Kong warns that such an interpretation of texts is too general ignoring at least two factors: on the one hand, the subjectivity of the receptor or reader, who is at liberty to interpret the text in his own way, second, the nature of the text may be different, thus resulting in different effects, and third, the social context in which a text is used may differ from the one in which it was generated, hence it may also result in misuses or misinterpretations.

The social roles played by professional discourse: professional socialization, identity formation, reflexivity, performativity

We shall consider some stances in which professional discourse accomplishes social roles or functions. Discourse has acquired several specific roles vis-à-vis the use of language and the society in which it is used. First, it plays an important role in *professional socialization*, which is 'the process by which individuals acquire specialized knowledge, skills, attitudes, norms, and interests needed to perform their professional roles acceptably' (Eden 1987, quoted in Kong, 2014: 5).

Kong (2014) estimates that the role discourse plays in professional socialization is important for at least two reasons: on the one hand, professional 'attributes' or 'frames' are acquired mainly through discourse or through what Wenger (1998) calls 'mutual engagement' (understood as engagement in interactions) and 'shared repertoires'. This is a complex process which takes place in a community of practice, which in turn is based on the commonly constructed collection of social practices (in essence, 'shared repertoires') resulting from interactions ('mutual engagement').

On the other hand, the importance of discourse for professional socialization is made relevant in the *competence* of a professional, a competence which rests mainly upon his or her ability to use the 'specialist or special language', or rather appropriate language, in a particular situation and work environment. This reversible and cyclic process makes the use of

'professional' discourse extremely important for the *professional identity* of a professional. A professional is identified by the community he belongs to and by his discourse. A mismatch or gap between the pretended professional identity and the language used may create doubts about the real identity of the professional and may result in social unacceptability or dismissal. McClean (2010) compared letters of advice written by law students and those written by professional lawyers and concluded that the identity-forming process of a professional lawyer is a permanent accommodation of contradictory and incompatible voices. Similarly, Dressen-Hammouda (2008) demonstrated that novice geologists use different writing strategies than expert geologists.

However, the studies told little about how these groups of professionals construct their identities in written professional discourse and what particular aspects are involved. In addition, Ochs (2001: 228) points to the need to find the 'over-arching, possible universal, communicative and socializing practices that facilitate socialization into multiple communities and lifeworlds. Kong upholds the view that

'Attributes and frames inherent in a profession are part of the identity a professional is claiming to have, and the language used by professionals has an indispensable role to play in creating and indexing those professional attributes and frames. Language use specific to a profession and the identity a professional claims to have create a mutual and inseparable relationship. The reason why a professional speaks and writes in certain ways is because he or she carries or is developing a legitimate identity which is projected in his or her discourse.' (2014: 6).

Reflexivity is another concept to 'respond to the social environment, diluting the importance of individual agency in social action' (Kong, 2014: 8). It is a concept that refers to the social practices that are reflected in utterances. For example, reflexivity is regarded as a 'reflexive action to respond to the needs and immediate context through an unconscious effort of language users' (Idem.) 'Reflexivity', 'indexicality', and 'performativity' are relatively new to professional discourses studies and have been borrowed from cultural and linguistic anthropology and applied to professional discourse, where the three concepts are fairly well established. (Agha 2006; Duranti 1997; Hanks 1996).

Reflexivity is underscored by the notion of *performativity* (Bauman and Briggs 1990; Butler 1990), another concept that stands for 'the production of our social and cultural identities through creative use of contextual and interactional resources' (Idem).

Further questions to be answered

In spite of the progress registered by professional discourse studies, there are many questions that may trouble the scholarship. A first question to be raised may relate to how the concepts of *power*, *domination* and *control* are entrenched in professional discourse and what pressures do the power holders exert on the employees by using discourse? Going out from the assumption that 'language is the product of culturally, historically and ideologically driven generalizations and classifications which tend to stereotype individuals and solutions to problems' (Rojek et al. 1988, quoted in Kong, 2014:3) further studies can look at community discourse from this point of view. According to the social constructionist perspective, discourse is 'a set of meanings, metaphors, representations, images, stories, statements and so on that in some way together produce a particular version of events' (Burr 1995: 48), so research could be driven in the direction of finding out how these representations account for the power position assumed by those holding it in a workplace or among professionals.

Language is bound to society, to its use in society for different social or professional purposes. It is similarly bound to social practices and, finally, politics, the politics involved in the issues pertaining to a profession. Then, politics will reflect different ideological approaches or tenets that belong to a 'profession' or are inherent to it. Ideology in professional discourse must be looked at from the points of view of the definition of ideology and its functions vis-à-vis professional discourse, the cognitive processes involved and the linguistic representation they may have. Ideology is also characterized through social dimensions and representational dimensions. All these representations and their modes of linguistic realization must be analyzed in close connection with the performers or participants in the professional processes (activities), in cognitive processes, in relational and representational processes.

In order to determine the identity-creating variables, research should first consider samples of *intraprofessional discourse* or discourse within a profession (Linell, 1998) and then check the variability of the samples in the context of interprofessional discourse, that is discourse between individuals or representatives of different professions (Linell, 1998), and in the context of professional-lay discourse interaction.

Conclusions

Professional discourse has become a research area in the last two-to-three decades. The discipline termed 'professional discourse' developed side by side with the related fields of organizational discourse, workplace discourse, institutional discourse, and more recently, corporate discourse, all related to or rather subservient to specific forms of communication.

Professional discourse, just like other communication-related studies, has been studied as an interdisciplinary area, drawing on sociology, psychology, anthropology, linguistics, and any discipline that could investigate or explain human behaviour in particular settings. The purpose of the present article was to show the link between professional discourse and social practice and to link it to sociological theories. Professional discourse has been positioned within the framework of sociological theories which could help linguists understand how language, as a social construct, is shaped by the context in which it occurs and, reversibly, how the contexts are influenced by discursive events. It stood also in the intent of the author of the present paper to highlight this dialectical view of the relationship between language and society.

The study showed the differences between the terms 'institutional discourse' and 'professional discourse' as proposed by Sarangi and Roberts (1999: 15-19), Koester's definition of 'institutional discourse', Gotti's (2003) notion of 'specialist discourse', Drew and Heritage's (1992: 3) notion of 'institutional talk'. The first and second decades of the 21st century continued the discussions on the blurred boundaries of these types of discourse, sometimes changing the designations, thus creating more uncertainties.

Against the background of other debates regarding the notions of 'profession' and 'professional' aimed at clarifying the concept of professional discourse, Kong defines it as 'the language produced by a professional with specialist training to get something done in the workplace'(2014:2).

The concept of social practice and social practice theory were based on the tenets of Bourdieu (1989), Giddens (1984), Schatzki (2002), Reckwitz (2002), Jackson (2005) and Holtz (2014). While discourse, in general, has been viewed from the *social structuration* perspective by Systemic Functional Linguistics and Critical Discourse Analysis scholars, the relationship of professional discourse to social practice was interpreted by the promoters of professional discourse in the *social constructionist* vein. The SFL and CDA researchers have adopted Giddens' structuration theory and have carried out complex analyses whereby they demonstrated the dialectics between discourse and the social context, or the New Capitalism (Meurer 2004, Fairclough 2004). In contrast, professional discourse adepts have embraced the social constructionist theory, but were less involved in demonstrating the interdependent relationship between language/discourse and the underlying social context. Kong (2014:3) recognizes the advancements made in other areas of discourse, admitting that 'there are many issues that have been intensely raised in other cognate approaches (e.g. Critical Discourse Analysis) but remain unanswered or even unexplored in the analysis of professional discourse'. Kong adds that 'There are several theoretical assumptions that have to be spelt out before we move on, such as social constructionism and social practice, socialization and identity, and indexicality, reflexivity and performativity' (Idem.).

Professional discourse was explicated in the present study through the role it plays in professional socialization and identity creation (Kong 2014, Smith 2005). Adopting Wenger's (1998) notion of 'community of practice', Kong (2014) suggests that in the process of professional socialization, i.e. 'the process by which individuals acquire specialized knowledge, skills, attitudes, norms, and interests needed to perform their professional roles acceptably' (Eden 1978), quoted in Kong 2014:5), professional 'attributes' are acquired mainly through discourse or through 'mutual engagement' and 'shared repertoires' (Wenger 1998).

Professional discourse is extremely important for the *identity* of a professional given that a professional is identified by the community he belongs to and by his discourse, while a mismatch between the pretended professional identity and the language used may be sanctioned by the professional community.

Finally, professional discourse researchers have moved a long way ahead, but in spite of the progress registered by professional discourse studies, there are many questions that require further consideration from the scholarship. Issues such as *power*, *domination* and *control* expressed in professional discourse, the formation of professional community identity and individual identity, the contribution of individuals to professional community discourse and so on represent possible directions for further research inquiry.

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Policy in Relation with Health of Citizens

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Abstract

Policy is a key factor of development and demolition of a particular country, especially Kosovo as a new country in the region. Studies showed that there is a link between economic policy, inequality and health of the population. One of the biggest surprises in the literature and studies in Europe and America is that there are few studies on policy variables and their impact on health and income. Health is the main factor, affecting the social and the welfare, also lack of health come as a result of political factors (Vincent Navarro, 2008). Rudolf Virchow stated that "Medicine is a social science while politic is nothing except the high-level medicine". The biggest development in the political field, were done by avoiding affects, welfare and directly affects health of citizens (Navarro V., 2000). Recently there were too many changes in governments confusing population so we wanted to study the current policy and to clarify if policy is a factor that affects health. Participants in this research were 86 citizens (64 percent males) in five cities of Kosovo chosen systematically sample. We used four questionnaires: Self-created questionnaires to measure the current state of the political based on two other questionnaires, we used Ault Hope Scale (AHS) (Snyder C. R., et. Al., 1991) to measure hope, Centre for Epidemiological Studies Depression Scale (CES-DS) (Radloff, 1977) to measure situation of current depression in general population and The Satisfaction with Life Scale (SwLS) (Diener et al., 1985) to measure satisfaction. (Data were analyzed using the statistical Package for social science (SPSS, 22). Results show that citizens are disappointed by the current political situation in Kosovo (72.5 percent). Also 73.2 percent of the respondents accepted that they are too agitated to recent political events, which consequently follows that 47.2 percent of them have been depressed. These studies show that political situation is an indicator factor in health and wellbeing of citizens directly, or indirectly by increasing the scale of depression and anxiety. Policy is the main discussion topic in society and also in family so there is plenty of space to study the current policy and the effects on social wellbeing..

Keywords: Political beliefs, health, wellbeing, empirical evidence.

Political Beliefs, Wellbeing, Hope and Satisfaction with Life

Countries develop policies in order to create a deliberate system to guide decisions and achieve rational outcomes. These policies are often developed to be implemented as protocols or procedures. The reason behind this is to assist both subjective and objective decision-making of the population in general (University of Sidney, 2016). In this direction, health policies are also developed and implemented. According to the University of Sidney (2016), these policies are often presented in public as a discussion regarding the health system issues and aim to enhance research and decision making in order to produce better services and qualitative health care. That being said, health is considered as the main factor affecting social life and wellbeing. However, the lack of health among a population is often a result of bad political decisions in specific countries (Navarro et al., 2006). In turn, as wellbeing is directly affected, living in that country does not satisfy the necessary needs. In other words, the wellbeing of an individual's life and all its aspects is affected the most (Diener et. al., 2009). Wellbeing, however, can be subjective and objective. Summer (1996) showed that subjective wellbeing is related to an individual's preferences, needs and desires while objective wellbeing is usually related to social, mental and physical health. Further, Summer (1996) also showed that there is a relationship between wellbeing and policies. This suggests a direct relationship of policies with the economy, which in turn is related to general wellbeing and health. Health in terms of

policies is usually referred to as medicine. That is why people usually say that policies are nothing more than high-level medicine. Thus, as argued above, most of the policies are directed towards the development of medicine, which increases wellbeing and health (Navarro & Shi, 2001). However, policies are not always directed only towards medicine. Happiness is also an outcome of good policies.

That is why Layard (2006) studied happiness and the causes of happiness. Layard argues that when you ask people what makes them happy, the answer is usually *money*. This yielded in researching happiness and income. The latter is usually an outcome of the policies. He came up with the results that money and income status make people happier. Layard (2006) argues that this is in line with other studies which also suggest a positive relationship between economical status and income (Pen & Tinbergen, 1977; Sen, 1997). However, Easterlin (1974) does not suggest the same pattern. He suggests that the relationship is not linear but curvilinear. That being said, the wealth of nations and average happiness are related, but not with poverty in an absolute sense. Likewise, no linear relationship was found from Bjørnsgov, Drehe, and Fischer (2007) and Fahey and Smyth (2003). The findings however are very mixed. That is because Berg and Veenhoven (2010) found a relationship between policies and wealthiness which indirectly affects the happiness of a population. The interesting part is that there are no significant differences between countries. This means that people are used to living with the income they already have and are happy enough.

Aim of the Study and Hypotheses

As we already know that there is a relationship between policies and wellbeing indirectly, and we do have some positive results, the current study aims to check whether the perception regarding the political situation affects the general depression of a population and their happiness. Thus, three hypotheses were developed, however, we do not specify the direction of the relationship because we believe that this depends on the positive or negative perception regarding the current political state.

H1: Perception regarding political state affects depression.

H2: Current political state impacts satisfaction.

H3: Current political state also impacts hope.

Methodology

Sample

Participants in this research were 86 citizens (64% males) which were selected based on the random formula. Thus, one participant from every third house in each of the five cities in Kosovo was selected. Around 40.7% of the participants did finish their high school and on average participants reported their health state as good.

Instruments

We used four questionnaires: (1) a self-created questionnaire to measure the current beliefs regarding the actual political state, (2) Adult Hope Scale (AHS; Snyder et al., 1991) to measure hope, (3) Centre for Epidemiological Studies-Depression Scale (CES-DS; Radloff, 1977) to measure current depression in the general population, and (4) the Satisfaction with Life Scale (SwLS; Diener et al., 1985) to measure satisfaction with life.

Procedure

This research project was designed to achieve our objective as accurately as possible and all the risks were considered. Then, we started collecting the data in the field. We asked for permission from every person we selected to participate in the study prior to completing the questionnaires. The questionnaires were self-administrated and the time it took to complete all the questions was 15-20 minutes. We made sure that participants did not forget any of the questions because every non-complete question would doubt the reliability of the study. The same procedure was used by all five researchers engaged in this project from five cities of Kosovo. Lastly, the data was analyzed and the hypotheses were tested.

Results

Below you will find the main findings of this study. All the analyses were correlation analyses due to the cross-sectional design of this study. Thus, we tested each of the hypotheses aforementioned.

Fast Facts

- 14.0% were disappointed with the way the actual government leads.
- 39.5% thought that there is hope and that life in Kosovo will get better.
- 81.5% were frustrated about the current political state in Kosovo.
- 73.2% were concerned about recent political events.
- 58.1% thought that the political state is not getting any better.
- 57% thought that comparing the political state before 2008 right now we stand much better.
- 61.6% of people don't think that they have the strength and power to change anything in the current political state.
- 54.6% were convinced that the future will be better than the present in Kosovo.
- 59.3% consider that corruption is one of the biggest lacks in the current policies.
- 44.2% were worried every day about the current political state.

Main Results

Results showed that participants were satisfied with life more than average ($M = 19.10$, $SD = 5.25$). Similar findings were found regarding hope ($M = 30.73$, $SD = 7.50$) and depression ($M = 30.30$, $SD = 4.99$).

Table 1.

Descriptive Results of Satisfaction with Life, Hope and Depression

	<i>n</i>	<i>Min</i>	<i>Max</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Satisfaction with Life	86	8.00	31.00	19.10	5.25
Hope	86	18.00	52.00	30.73	7.50
Depression	86	19.00	46.00	30.30	4.99

Results presented in Table 2 showed that there is a positive correlation between depression and hope ($r = .137$, $p = .013$). However, no significant correlations were found between depression and satisfaction with life, and hope with satisfaction with life.

Table 2

Correlations among Depression, Hope and Satisfaction with Life

Variables	1	2	3
1. Depression	/		
2. Hope	.137*	/	
3. Satisfaction with Life	.098	.089	/

Further, results showed that there are positive correlations between debates regarding politics in different situations. Please refer to Table 3 for the full list of correlations.

Table 3

Correlations among the Debates Conducted in Different Situations

Variables	1	2	3
1. Debate regarding politics in family	/		
2. Debate regarding politics in the workplace	.537**	/	
3. Debate regarding politics during the free time	.669**	.737**	/

Discussion

This study aimed to provide context-based empirical evidence regarding the relationship between political beliefs in terms of the current perceived political situation. Thus, we measured depression, hope, satisfaction with life and the opinions of participants regarding the actual political state. Based on this study we have come to some conclusions that support the literature regarding the indirect impact of policies on our wellbeing and everyday life. Our results showed that there is not a direct relationship between the current political beliefs and satisfaction with life. However, we found a positive relationship between depression and political beliefs. That being said, we can assume that depression is related to wellbeing. Thus, political beliefs are related to wellbeing as well. This provides some kind of support for hypothesis 1. However, we did not find support for hypotheses 2 and 3. That is because we did not find a direct significant relationship regarding the relationships between the current political beliefs, satisfaction with life and hope. However, we do not have enough evidence considering this study's limitations to conclude that these relationships do not exist. Previous evidence suggests that hope, depression, satisfaction with life and political beliefs are related directly or indirectly. Thus, these results should be interpreted with caution.

Further, almost half of the participants showed that there are worried regarding the political state in which we were at the moment. In addition, political debates are part of their everyday life, and this could be due to their worry regarding the actual situation. Although this could be the case, the more participants talk about politics in different situations, it transfers also to other situations such as during work or during free time. This, however, does not mean that political discussions are their main topics.

Conclusions and Recommendations

Based on the results we conclude that political beliefs are indicators in many ways, but not directly in satisfaction with life and hope. However, political beliefs are found to be related to depression, which may be an indicator that wellbeing is affected. Also, we conclude that political debates are part of our debates in our everyday life.

We recommend further research regarding political beliefs and mental health factors. So different studies regarding the relationship between political beliefs, social life, economy, income, wellbeing, satisfaction with life and other factors are necessary to generalize these findings.

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The Bulgarian Occupation Zone During World War II

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Abstract

After the invasion of Yugoslavia, especially Kosovo by the German army in World War II (1941), Kosovo was divided into three occupation zones, which were defined in the Vienna talks. In addition to the interests of the big countries like Italy and Germany, the latter also sought to meet the demands of Bulgaria, another ally of the Fascist Bloc. Thus, Bulgaria sought to pass under its rule a part of the districts of Gjilan, Vitia, Old Kacanik, the region of Presevo, Kumanovo, Skopje, Veles, Prilep and Bitola. In these regions lived about 200.000 Albanians, who came under Bulgarian occupation. Thus, the Bulgarian occupation zone covered an area of 900 km², with 60.842 inhabitants, or 8% of the total area of Kosovo and over 9% of its population. The Bulgarian invaders declared all Albanian territories annexed by them as an integral part of the Bulgarian Kingdom. The policy followed by the Bulgarians against the Albanians during their rule in these areas was usually of the ordinary brutality. Albanians were interned, imprisoned, and killed in the most inhuman ways. In others word, they have been denied every national and human right. As a result of the violence and pressure on the part of the Bulgarian invaders, by September 1942, 3.000-4.000 Albanians were displaced from their lands invaded by the Bulgarians.

Keywords: World War II, Kosovo, Albanians, Bulgarians, occupation zone, etc.

Introduction

The Partition of Kosovo in Occupation Zones

From The beginning of the year 1941, the political situation in the Balkans became worse and reached its peak on April 6th, when the 12th German division backed by Italian and Hungarian troops, started the war against Yugoslavia and Greece. (AIHT, A-VIII-297, 1977, 19) The ongoing attacks against Yugoslavia lasted until May 17, (*Fjalori Enciklopedik, N-Zh*, 2009, 2129) forcing it to sign a declaration of surrender (in the building of the Czechoslovakian embassy), which entered into force on 18 May 1941. (Ali Hadri, 1978, 15). The conquest was accompanied by the dismemberment of the Yugoslavian territory between the German, Italian and Bulgarian invaders. The intentions of the fascist bloc, which were toward realization, included also the Albanian territories. (Historia e Popullit Shqiptar IV, 2008, 129-130).

With the conquest of Yugoslavia and Greece, the Axis Alliance aimed at almost the entire continent of Europe. Thus, after the war of April 1941 the Yugoslavian Kingdom de facto ceased to exist as a kingdom. The Allies also divide the areas of interest between them. With the initiative of Hitler from 27 March the orientation plan has been drafted, which that was concretized on 12 April in „the temporary intentions for the separation of Yugoslavia“. With the initiative of the German foreign Minister Ribbentrop a meeting was organized in Vienna (18 to 23 April 1941) in order to reach an agreement on the final division of Yugoslavia. In addition to Ribbentrop, his Italian counterpart, Galeaco Ciano, and other personalities participate in this meeting who are interested in the partition of Yugoslavia. (Ali Hadri, 1978, 15)

At the Vienna meeting, an agreement was reached between representatives of Berlin and Rome, where the new political map of the Balkans was assigned. Its boundaries were based on the principles of dividing the zones of influence between Germany and Italy, not leaving aside the interests of Bulgaria (Kristo Frashëri, 2008, 295), which were accepted by Germany. The interests of these three Allied countries coincided in the Albanian lands, which were within Yugoslavia. Therefore, after the invasion of Kosovo on 12 April 1941, it was divided between those three states: Italy, Germany** and Bulgaria. (Historia e Popullit Shqiptar IV, 2008, 129-130)

We will focus only on the Bulgarian occupation zone, which is the main subject of this study. Thus, Bulgaria's interests in the Balkans were discussed as well in Vienna. Therefore, finding support at its German-Italian allies, it was decided to pass

under Bulgarian rule a part of Kosovo and other Albanian regions of today's Macedonia. Thus, within the Bulgarian area, belonged a part of the districts of Gjilan, Vitia, Old Kaçanik, Presevo, Kumanovo, Skopje, Veles, Prilep and Bitola (Muhamet Shatri, 1997, 20; *Historia e Popullit Shqiptar IV*, 2008, 129-130). In these regions there lived about 200.000 Albanians who came under Bulgarian occupation.

Despite the agreement reached between the allies in Vienna (23 April 1941), its implementation posed practical problems throughout the existence of occupation zones. All this is due to internal and external factors. The internal factor is related to the demands of the Albanians to join the Italian area, in which the rights of Albanians were more guaranteed than in the Bulgarian one, while the external factor was mainly related to the claims of Bulgaria and Italy to extend their influence as far as possible.

Thus, the initial agreement foresaw that not only Mitrovica, but also a part of the Mitrovica-Prishtina-Ferizaj railroad, and even Prishtina and Ferizaj to join the German occupation zone (Ali Hadri, 1978, 16). The German version was similar with the Italian one in terms of the border assignment in Kosovo, but the Italian version was wider. This was foreseen for the establishment of the border in the Bulgarian zone and foresaw also that Old Kaçanik and Sterpca, which had an Albanian majority and were given to Bulgaria (Ali Hadri, 1978, 16), to become part of the Italian zone. Later, because of the above-mentioned interests, the line of demarcation did not remain the same as the invasive states had agreed. This is due to the fact that the Italians expanded their area, including even Pristina and Ferizaj, and to Orlovic's Suka, the border between the invasive zones of Germany, Italy and Bulgaria was set in the Suka of Orlovic (AQSh, F. 149, v.1941, d. I-1170, 93).

The stationing of the Bulgarians in Kosovo and the creation of their own zone

In the spirit of the Vienna Agreement and for the purpose of determining the demarcation line between the German and the Bulgarian zone, a meeting was held in Vranje on 11 June 1941. The German commission consisted of Colonel Botmer and senior military advisor dr. Hanle, while the Bulgarian commission consisted of Colonel Stomatova and Lt. Colonel Matikarov. At this meeting, an agreement was reached whereby the border line between the German and Bulgarian zones was established, in Valladicak in the center of Kukavica, then the northern boundary of the Vranje district (Fehmi Rexhepi, 1998, 63). Thus, in Kosovo the Bulgarian occupation zone included the today's municipality of Gjilan (20 villages), Vitia (22 villages), and Kamenica (5 villages), with a surface of 411km² and within this area lived 32.196 inhabitants. In the Bulgarian occupation was also Ferizaj and his surrounding (16 villages) included, with an area of 189 km² in which lived a population of 12.772 inhabitants, and the surrounding of Kaçanik (42 villages), with an area of 300 km² and 32.196 inhabitants, were lived 15.874 people.

So the Bulgarian occupation zone, alone in Kosovo included 103 villages with a surface of 900km² with 60.842 inhabitants, or 8% of the territory and over 9% of his population (Muhamet Shatri, 1997, 20).

Likewise, many Albanian villages of towns like Struga, Tetovo, Gostivar and Kerçova, that were included under the Italian occupation zone, remained under Bulgarian rule. (AQSh, F. 149, v. 1941, d. I-1170, 93). On the basis of a letter dated 28 May 1941, by Riza Drini (Prefect of Shkodra with missions in Struga), addressed to the Prime Minister Shefqet Verlaci, we learned that the Italian troops withdrew from the town of Ohrid and that the town of Struga is in danger (AQSh, F. 149, v. 1941, d. I-1170, 93).

Immediately after the invasion of these zones, two battalions of the Bulgarian invading troops were deployed to these areas to keep the situation under control. Regarding the Bulgarian official policy, it can be said, that there is a continuation of their policy during the First World War*, as Serbo-Croatian was replaced with Bulgarian in all administrative levels, including education (Noel Nalcolm, 2011, 371-372.). Moreover, the whole administrative personnel came from Bulgaria.

But the Bulgarian government was dissatisfied with regard to the area of influence. This dissatisfaction was expressed on 2 September 1941, by the Bulgarian President, Fillovi and the Army Minister Daskallov. Besides that, they stated that they are not satisfied with the designation of the border line in Western Macedonia nor with the attitude of Italy (Ali Hadri, 1971, 99). Despite this, the Bulgarian leadership didn't want to break their relations with Italy in this issue. But, according to them, the demarcation should answer the historical, strategic and economical viewpoint (Ali Hadri, 1964, 679). Despite their dissatisfaction and their constant demands, the demarcation line between the occupation zones of Italy and Bulgaria was never change, with the exception of the town Ohrid.

That what the Bulgarians didn't reach in the case of the demarcation line with the Italian zone, they achieved with the German one. So the Bulgarians couldn't manage to extend their occupation zone into the Italian area, but they could do so in the direction of the German zone, because of the Germans' demand (Ali Hadri, 1964, 680). According to the German Commander for Southeast, dated on 20 December 1941, the Bulgarian occupation zone was supposed to include, among others, the majority of Kosovo with centers such as Pristina and Mitrovica (Ali Hadri, 1971, 99). However, Hitler didn't allow Bulgarian troops to be placed in these towns at that time, but allowed that the Bulgarian occupation zone to expand later. Thus, on 15 January 1942, the districts of Llap were included within the occupying zone, and on 7 January 1943 the districts of Mitrovica and Vushtrri became part of this zone. The enlargement of the Bulgarian occupation zone has been done with the good will of the Germans, as it was interested that Bulgaria defends the backward line in southeastern Serbia, so that the German troops can be used on the eastern front. (Ali Hadri, 1964, 680).

On the other hand, none of the conquered peoples like the Serbs, Montenegrinians and Albanians were satisfied with the demarcation line (Ali Hadri, 1964, 680). The Italian government insisted that Sterpca and Old Kacanik should become part of their occupation zone, arguing with the fact that the vast majority of their population was Albanian. However, the Italian demands collided with those of the Bulgarians, and therefore she insisted that the borders of her ruled zone shouldn't be touched. For this attitude, Bulgaria found Germany's support, which had secured the right to exploit Bulgarian mining assets. Overall, in the summer of 1943, a re-enactment of the borders between the Italian and Bulgarian occupiers took place in the area of the sub-prefecture of Gjilan. So, the Italian zone was joined by the villages like Sadovinë of the Jerli and Verhani (today villages of the Vitia municipality), then Godanci (today a village in the municipality of Shtime) and some other villages. The controversy between Bulgaria and Italy over the expansion of the occupation zones lasted until September 1943, when the latter capitulated. After the capitulation of Bulgaria, in September 1944, Albania's borders expanded to the vicinity of Skopje and from there to Kumanovë, Preshevë and Bujanocë (Muhamet Shatri, 1997, 20).

The position of Albanians in the Bulgarian area

The Bulgarian conqueror proclaimed all the Albanian lands annexed by them as an integral part of the Bulgarian Kingdom. Bulgaria followed a tolerant policy towards the Serbian population in these areas, which aimed at their assimilation because they considered them as Moravian Bulgarians (Idriz Halabaku, 1978, 470). This policy of the Bulgarians against the Serbian people was followed by the beginning of the year 1943. Unlike the Serbs, the Bulgarians pursued a very discriminatory policy against the Albanians during their reign (August 1941 - September 1944). They were interned, imprisoned, murdered in brutal ways. Thus the Albanians in this zone of occupation were denied every basic right. (Muhamet Shatri, 1997, 32).

Immediately after the occupation, the Bulgarians began with the administrative-judicial and police-military arrangements, which was done in several phases. Firstly, a military reinforcement took place in the middle of April 1941. Even during the months July-August, the supreme Bulgarian commander made a military reorganization by moving huge military forces into the occupied territories, while in the occupied zone of Kosovo, 2-3 battalions were placed with a total of 450 to 500 soldiers who were distributed in the municipality of Kaçanik district. Most of the Bulgarian soldiers were deployed along the Italian-Bulgarian border, while the main military headquarter was located in Zhegër.

In the Bulgarian occupied zone in Kosovo there was only one police circle located in Kaçanik, which had 81 police officers. In Kaçanik district, there existed also a cohort of counter armed groups, consisting of 40 people, placed 10 in Kaçanik, about 20 in Viti and several others where they were needed. The people of these cohorts were Bulgarians, who were placed in these lands during the Balkan Wars and the First World War. They had salaries and were paid for obligations, i.g. against those with anti-Bulgarian disposition. After regulating the military-police, it also makes the administrative and judicial territorial regulation of other bodies and institutions. The country was divided into districts and districts into municipalities. At the head of these institutions stood the provincial director and the district director in the kmeti municipalities (alderman). Each village had a superior kmet who answered to the mayor. In every state institution worked a number of officers who were in charge of propagating the Bulgarian language (Daut Bislimi, 1997, 57).

¹⁾ The attitude of the Bulgarian politics caused in the first place the Serbian people to create illusions that with the help of the Bulgarian power they would oppose the Albanians. During the Bulgarian occupation, there were several cases where Serb families living in the Italian zone crossed over to the Bulgarian occupation zone, as a result of the conditions provided by the Bulgarians to the Serb population. This conditions were only in the area of occupation in Kosovo, but in the occupation zone in Macedonia Serbs did not have this position.

In a report of Ramadan Presevo⁸ submitted to the High Commissioner for Kosovo, Dibra and Struga-Prizren reported the Bulgarian atrocities against the Albanian population in the provinces of Presheva, Kumanova, Skopje, which took place in the period between 10th and 17th of May 1941. In this report, among others it is stated "In the prefecture of Presheva, in the village of Shunicë (Zhunicë) they have beaten the village chief Adem Mehmeti, because he did not let them plunder the village, then the Bulgarian Army has robbed by accident garments of women and grain, and beside these they have beaten many people in the village and have also plundered 7,000 pounds of grain and 20,000 pound of grass... also in Sumolic village they have plundered the clothes of the mosque... this report presents the violence exercised by the Bulgarian army in the villages of Cenotic, Bilic, Negofe, Noesel, Trnoc... In Skopje, more than 50 people were imprisoned, just because they have placed white plis on their head... about these 50 people, we were for a few days unaware of their fate. Likewise, dozens of other people were beaten and robbed in this city, and even by the violence exercised by the Bulgarian police, Muhmut has died". (AQSh, F. 23, v. 1941, d. 25, 236). Always according to this document "On the 13th day of the month, market day, the Bulgarian army had placed machine-guns, each with eight soldiers to gather the people and to rip down their white plis, which made it clear that you are not a Shqyptar but you are a Bulgarian, and of these more than 300 were imprisoned at Jahja Pasha's Mosque where they were kept arrested until 6 o'clock after lunch". In this case Ramdan Presheva himself was a witness. "Also on 13th, on the road called Toptana coming from Kačanik, from more than 300 young people their white plis have been torn in pieces and they have been imprisoned in the barracks called Tophane and nothing is known about their situation" (AQSh, F. 23, v.1941, d. 25, 237) In a letter from the deputy prefect of Gnjilane, Yahya Bacaj, sent on September 17th 1941, to the High Civil Commissariat for Kosovo, Debar and Struga and the the Prefecture of Pristina, through which the latter announced that 21 Albanian families because of persecution by Bulgarians, as well as others due to the political nature were forced to flee their homes and settle within the Albanian border (AQSh, F. 23, v. 1941, d. 25, 245-246).

In an information from the deputy prefecture of Gjilan, dated 4th of October 1941, reported to the Prefecture of Pristina on the killing of Isuf Hamid by the Bulgarian army. They also called for intervention in order to take action through diplomatic ways to stop the violence exercised systematically by the Bulgarian army to the detriment of the Albanian element. (AQSh, F. 167, v. 1941, d.72, 45-46). During the year 1941, there were successive requests directed to the authorities like the senior civilian commissar, and the leaders of the prefectures and sub-prefectures who were informed about the plundering of the population, mistreatments, imprisonments, and killings of the Albanian population by the Bulgarian invaders. Such is the request from the sub-prefect of Gostivar, Xhavit Kallajxhiu, sent on 16 December 1941, to the prefect of Dibra, whereby the latter is informed of the mistreatment and plundering of Albanian citizens by Bulgarian guards at the border crossing point in Zhelino (AQSh, F. 266, v. 1941, d. 80, 1) There were also problems in relation to the occupation zone during 1941. Thus, after the withdrawal of the Italian army from the town of Ohrid, anxieties began to spread around the Albanian and Serbian population, as a result of the psychological pressure exerted by the Bulgarian army on the civilian population. The Albanian population was very concerned, because "...news are spread that Bulgaria is trying to get Struga as well" (AQSh, F. 149, v.1941, d. 1-1170, 93).

A law issued at the end of 1941 threatens with death penalty for „any form of propaganda against the Bulgarian state“ (Noel Nalcolm, 2011, 371-372) It looks like the law on protection of the state (Zakon za zashitata na drzavata), which came into force on 16 December 1941. (Fehmi Rexhepi, 1998, 58) Through this law, sanctions were extended to all those who attacked or violated the ruling Bulgarian regime. Based on the research done at the Albanian Central State Archive, which contains dozens of documents that inform us about the violence and pressure exerted by the Bulgarian army against the Albanian population, who were forced to move from their territories.

During 1942, the Bulgarian invaders excessively increased the violence against the Albanian population, mostly at the border crossing points where the large Albanian families were mistreated. Based on a letter dated 20 January sent by the Prefecture of Dibra, which reaches up to the General King's Vicar, we learn about the mistreatments of the Albanian families from Jelovic of Gostivar at the border point by Bulgarian guards. (AQSh, F. 266, v.1942, d. 80, 2-3)

With the goal of being well-informed about the position of Albanians in the Bulgarian occupation zone and the position of Bulgarians in the Italian occupation zone, the General King's Vicar sent a letter on 5 March 1942 to the Ministry of Free Lands, through which the latter sought information (AQSh, F. 266, v. 1942, d. 83, 1-3).

⁸ Ramadan Presheva, a member of the Kosovo Committee.

According to a letter, the Bulgarian government will announce from 17 April on, the mobilization of all inhabitants, where there will be mobilized all from the birth year 1887 to 1923 (at the age of 19-55). This call invites all residents not to avoid this call. From this call, „many Albanians and a part of Gostivar took advantage of the case, to cross the border“ (AQSh, F. 152, v.1942, d. 402, 1).

With a letter from the Inspector General for Kosovo, sent on 28 May 1942, informs Koço Tasi the Prime Minister „about the ill-treatment of 700 (seven hundred) Albanian by the Bulgarian authorities; men, women and children from the areas under Bulgarian control cross the boundary to the Municipalities of Partesh and Pozharan and resettled on Albanian land in the villages of Gjilan and Ferizaj, near the border“ (AQSh, F. 814, v.1942, d.14, 5). About these ill-treatments the general inspector for Kosovo Koço Tasini, informed on 28 May 1942 also the Prefecture of Prishtina as well as the sub-prefectures of Gjilan and Ferizaj (AQSh, F. 814, v. 1942, d. 14, 7). He is also informed on 9 June 1942 about the murder of the farmer Ibrahim Hasani by Bulgarians (AQSh, F. 152, v. 1942, d. 405, 2).

But despite the expansion of Bulgarian space, yet the Bulgarians were still not satisfied with the occupation zone and their claims for expansion of their zone were perpetual. In order to achieve these objectives, the Bulgarian authorities had organized various circles to exert pressure on the Albanian population, which would be forced to leave their homes. According to a document, it is proved that such organizations „in the village Klemeshtan of the Municipality of Meshavishit in the district of the sub-prefecture of Struga, is often seen a group of about 180 people armed with rifles, machine guns and bombs. Based on our information, this armed group came from Bulgaria“ (AQSh, F.152, V.1942, d. 293,41). In order to accomplish its goals, the Bulgarian occupiers activate extreme Macedonian-Bulgarian circles, and from 1942 on also the relations to the Chetniks of Drazha Mihajlovic (Muhamet Shatri, 1997, 32).

The discriminatory policy followed by the Bulgarians provoked the displacement of Albanians from their own lands. Thus, in a report by the Ministry of the Free Land on September 1942, it was noted, that as a result of violence and pressure by the Bulgarian occupiers until September 1942, more than 3.000-4.000 Albanians are displaced from the Bulgarian occupied zones (Muhamet Shatri, 1997, 32). Meanwhile, in another report that came from the same minister stated that „more than 3.000 Albanian inhabitants of the Karadag Mountains in Kosovo, Kumanovo, Kacanik, Presevo, Skopje, Bitola have been forced to abandon their homes and are in difficult conditions in Gjilan, Ferizaj, Tetovo and Debar“. (AQSh, F.151, v. 1944, d. 71, 1-11). In the Bulgarian occupation zone during the whole period of their rule, the Albanian population also suffered for the most essential things such as bread. This is best explained by the fact that in Struga's sub-prefecture with about 60.000 inhabitants, at least half of the population was in need of bread. (AQSh, F.886, D.1103, 1) Whereas, in a report about the inhabitants of Kaçanik, it is said that residents need grain. Furthermore, this report describes the situation best, where Albanians were not allowed by Bulgarian authorities to take 20 kg of grain which they bought in Albania, because it was considered as smuggling. (AMPJ, F.151, V.1944, d. 99, 14)

In a telegram dated 31 from the Prefecture of Dibra, was asked for a diplomatic demarche directed to the Bulgarian government for not torturing Albanians. This notice stated, inter alia: „Information from reliable sources state that the Bulgarian authorities started on 27 to mistreat Albanian minorities in Bitola and Prilep. They have arrested a large number of them, and it is not exactly known where they are“ (AQSh, F.149, v. 1944, d. 99, 29).

With a request, the Albanians in the Bulgarian occupation zone seek weapons in order to protect themselves from the Bulgarian and Serbian authorities. In this claim, they had reflected in detail the killings of children from the age of 2 years, who was killed with his father Ramiz Durmishi, up to the age of 70, such as the murder of Rexhep Sherif and dozens of other people and injuring hundreds of others. This document reflects the event of August 15, during which the Bulgarian authorities, in cooperation with the Serbian partisans, attacked believers who were performing the religious obligation during the Taravian time, four of whom died and 24 were injured (AMPJ, F.151, v.1944, d..99, 45-51).

In a document on the massacres against Albanians across the border, on 16 December 1943 of the Gjilan sub-prefecture directed to the Prefecture of Prishtina „“One person named Osman Halili from the village of Svirca of the sub-prefecture of Medvedja and resident in Gjilan has addressed us in an official form to say that: The Drazhistas that are in the Medvedje sub-prefecture and who bear the name Karovski Adred were committing massacreds in the villages of Svirce, Tuplje and Gërbaç, which are Albanian, and the Ravana, Banja, Stara-Banja, Llapashtica, Kapit, Sjamica, Gjylekari and Medvedja villages that are mixed, and in all these can be more than 400 spirits. The massacres are been done in order to force the people leave from there and come to this side (AMPJ, F.151, v. 1944, d.176, 12).

Throughout the period of the Bulgarian rule, demands from the Albanian side for the unfair treatment by the Bulgarians have been done continuously. This proves a request by the Central Committee of the Second League of Prizren, addressed to the Presidency of the Council of Ministers and the Prime Minister, authorizing the Minister of Foreign Affairs, to submit to the Bulgarian authorities the request from the Albanian side, among other things it is said "...many villagers of the Gjilan district have their lands beyond the demarcation line, under Bulgaria, and they have the need to cross over in the Bulgarian regions from time to time ... we are therefore asking for appropriate steps that should be taken by the Bulgarian Consulate General and the competent authorities of Sofia ... to allow the people in question to cross the line of demarcation..."(AMPJ, F.151, v.1944, d.176, 12).

On the other hand, the Bulgarian government, rather than prohibiting the discrimination of Albanians, it continued even to intensify their mistreatment. From an archive document we learn about the improper treatment of Albanians, where among other things is said: "...the Bulgarian government has for days intentionally called for the mobilization of all Albanian citizens that lived in its occupation zone, aged 18-45 ... and sends them to distant places and heavy work and no one should dare to opposes this illegal call..."AMPJ F.151, v.1944, d. 99, 56).

About the torture against the Albanian population, we learn from a report that asked the Albanian authorities to engage in a vigorous intervention and stop such actions from Bulgarians (AMPJ, F.151, v.1944, d.972, 1). While in another report on the Bulgarian cruelty against the Albanians of Skopje, Kumanovo, Presevo, Gjilan, accurate data are provided about the atrocities, imprisonments and killings of the Albanian population by the Bulgarians, where the number of the first is enormous. (AMPJ, F.151, v.1944, d.99, 36)

From the facts described above, we can conclude that the Bulgarian invader in the area of his occupation, pursued an assimilation policy towards all peoples living in the area. So the Macedonians were called Bulgarians, the Serbs Bulgarians of Anamorava, while a discriminatory and humiliating policy was applied towards Albanians. For this reason, the Albanian nationality was undergoing an unprecedented oppression by the Bulgarian occupiers. She did not enjoy basic and national rights. Moreover, no right at all were given such as the right to use the flag, the celebration of historical dates, the opening of schools in Albanian language, etc. Therefore many Albanians have been forced to leave their lands, just to be able to escape the violence of the Bulgarian pressure.

In the Bulgarian area, to oppose the Albanian efforts for emancipation and education in their mother tongue, an organization called "Orle" was formed, which was for primary school children aged 7-14. This pro-fascist and great Bulgarian organization worked to educate and teach the children in the Bulgarian fascist spirit. Thus, the Bulgarian teachers taught the children fascistic songs and poems, then drove them to the streets to sing Bulgarian songs and taught them to salute the fascistic way. (Fehmi Rexhepi, 1998, 82).

But Albanian children from some of the villages of Gjilan and Kaçanik, which were part of the Bulgarian occupation zone, managed to secretly attend the Albanian language courses, which took place in the Italian occupation zone. Thus, in a report by the Presidency of the Extraordinary Kosovo Education Mission sent on 19 September 1941, it is said that "the opening of the summer courses in Kosovo has been one of the few and the most beautiful works that the Albanian state has conducted in those places ... the courses included the rest of the Albanians outside the today's borders, from some villages of Gjilan and the district of Kaçanik..." (AQSh, F. 195, v. 1941, d.180, 111).

Conclusion

In conclusion, we can say that in the Bulgarian occupation zone, the Albanians did not enjoy even the basic human, national and civic rights. This is because the Bulgarian state, working in harmony with the plans of the Nazis, choose no other way than the fascist dictatorship. This systematic violence that Bulgaria did during the Second World War over the Albanian population was realized through the army of this country. In addition to the military, this form of violence was also realized through the Bulgarian state apparatus with its functions, as well as by the fascist organizations operating in this country. All these efforts resulted in enormous consequences for the Albanian population of this part. Reports of displacements, murdering, imprisonments and torture of Albanians on the daily basis, while the lack of Albanian schools, the lack of Albanian civil servants in the administration, the denial of national rights had become a practice followed by the official policy of the Bulgarian state.

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Political Circumstances in Albania from 1920 to 1924

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Abstract

The events that marked the period 1920-1924 are undoubtedly those of an interior character such as the Congress of Lushnja and the Vlora War (1920), the parliamentary elections (1921 and 1923), the June uprising (1924), etc. while the external ones are undisputed the recognition of Albania and its borders at the London Conference (9 December 1921) and its admission to the League of Nations (1921). The democratic system imposed by the Congress of Lushnja, proved to be ineffective. That is, because it didn't bring political and economic stability in the country, but on the contrary caused instability in large proportions, all because of the coup d'état and the numerous uprisings that characterized the period 1920-1922. When the armed political struggle in Albania intensified, nationalist and moderate concepts were created in the Albanian politics. During this period, the Albanian political scene was divided into several political views through North-South contradictions, Muslim-Christian, Zogu-Noli, Conservative-Liberal, and so on. This diversity of religious, regional, political and conceptual character led to political rivalry within the Albanian leadership in Albania over the 1920-1924 period, in the name of democratic principles, even with non-democratic means. By thus creating not only a serious political climate, but also an attempt for radical changes in the country's government, such as the June Uprising of 1924.

Keywords: Albania, political circumstances, the Congress of Lushnja, June uprising, political parties, Zogu, Noli etc.

Introduction

Political circumstances in Albania from 1920 to 1924

After the First World War, Albania was not only crushed in all areas, but it also lost its subjectivity as a result of the circumstances it had undergone during the war years. (Georges Castellan, 1997, 450). The government of Durres, which was created immediately after the end of the war and was under Italian influence, did not duly represent the interests of the Albanian nation, so the well-known personalities sought to hold a national congress. Preparations for the congressional meeting showed that the Government of Durres was increasingly narrowing its internal support. Moreover, the Albanian officers and soldiers abandoned the government, because they were not only dissatisfied with her work, and wanted to change the overall situation in Albania. (Historia e Popullit Shqiptar III, 2007, 144). Driven by the fear of further fragmentation of Albanian territories in the agreements that could be reached at the Peace Conference, the Albanian patriots organized a national congress that was held in Lushnja from 21 to 31 January 1920 (Hysen Selmani, 2008, 108), outside the Italian occupation zone (Tahir Abdylil, 2003, 226-227). Important decisions for the history of the Albanian state were made in the Lushnja Congress. What is worth mentioning is that in its program, along with the call for participation of delegates in the first paragraph is stated, that: "The purpose of the general meeting is to secure the Albanian union" (AQSH, F, Kongresi i Lushnjës, D, 1). In general, this congress reaffirmed Albania's independence, including the commitment to preserve its territorial integrity, and the non-recognition of all treaties and secret agreements that were at contrary to the interests of the Albanian state. (Afrim Krasniqi, 2006, 45). The main decisions taken at this assembly were: the fall of the Durrës government, headed by Turhan Pasha Përmeti, which was under the Italian protectorate; the election of the Supreme Council (Council of Regency) to represent the independence of the Albanian state, until the king ascends the throne of Albania, where they were assigned: Aqif Pasha Elbasani (Bektashi), Abdi Bey Toptani (Suni Muslim), Bishop L. Bumçi (Catholic) and Doctor Mihal Turtulli (Orthodox), (Tajar Zavalani, 1998, 259). Also, a decision was made for the formation of

a National Council" (Parliament), consisting of 37 councilors who had parliamentary competences. The 1920 National Council held two parliamentary sessions". At the Congress of Lushnja, the following decisions were also taken: submission of a resolution to the Peace Conference in Paris, through which they protested the partition plan of the Albania territory and the election of a three-member delegation to represent the Albanian problems at the Paris Peace Conference (Edwin Jacques, 1998, 406). Then creation of a national army (Miranda Vickers, 2008, 152), repudiation of the 1915 London Agreement (Sejfi Vllamasi, 2000, 186), determining the form of the regime, confirming the continuation of the form of constitutional monarchy, which had begun since the establishment of the Albanian state in 1912/1913 (Afrim Krasniqi, 2006, 45) and the announcement of Tirana as the capital city instead of Durres. (Peter Bartl, 1999, 179).

Despite this, a temporary government was formed in Lushnja under the chairmanship of Sylejman Delvina (Fjalori Enciklopedik Shqiptar 3, 2009, 2157-2159; Robert C. Austin, 2011, 349-351; Ilir Ushtelica, 1997, 35). Both the High Council and the National Council, who emerged from this congress, guaranteed that they would strive for the "protection of a free and independent Albania", but the maturity of Albanian diplomats of the time was constantly sought. In addition to the Lushnja Government, the continuously effort for the national issue by the Kosovo National Defense Committee*, which in its meeting held on 30 August 1920, decided to accept the charter program of this committee, which consisted of three articles.

The Lushnja government, which was set up on 11 February in Tirana, was welcomed by the people. On the other hand, the provisional government of Durres, given the circumstances created, on 20 February 1920, handed over the offices and archives to the Government of Tirana (Hysen Selmani, 2008, 118). Another important issue for the Government of Tirana, after that with the French troops for handing over the city of Shkodra, was also the war and liberation of Vlora from the Italian forces (Historia e Popullit Shqiptar III, 150-167; Hysen Selmani, 2008, 124-129). This issue was resolved on 2 August 1920, when the protocol between the two governments was signed for the withdrawal of the Italians from Vlora, who left on 3 September (Miranda Vickers, 2008, 154).

After this success the Tirana government managed to exert its influence on the whole territory of the Albanian state. However, what was the internal situation of the Albanian state in this period of restoring its subjectivity as a state? Albania had enormous difficulties in the internal affairs in all areas. The situation was exacerbated by external influences and regional differences. Thus, the Austrian influence was observed in the north, the Italian on the coast, and the Greek one in the south. There were no political traditions at all, due to the long dominance of the Ottoman Empire in the Albanian territories. While in the north tribal influence played a key role, this role played feudal ties in central Albania. Somewhat better was the south, where we can speak of a small class of merchants and sailors, but their impact at the country level were irrelevant (Georges, Castellan, 1997, 452).

With all the difficulties, that Albania had to deal with (internal and external), there were great successes during 1920, such as the Congress of Lushnja, the Vlora War, the acceptance of Albania and its recognition in the League of Nations. But despite the above-mentioned successes, on 24 November 1920, 18 self-proclaimed opposition members that constituted half of the National Council, resigned, demanding new elections (Afrim Krasniqi, 2006, 47). That is why the Tirana Government set itself the task of organizing elections and legitimizing a parliament that expressed the will of the people, with a decision taken on 14 December 1920.

¹¹ The National Council or Parliament, called from the beginning the "Senate", had a short life span (held only two sessions). The role of the first Albanian Parliament was enormous. This is due to the fact that the Albanians expressed the political will to take their fate in their hands, then established the Albanian parliamentarism and took over all the responsibilities of the historic decisions of the Lushnja Congress. The challenges faced by the National Council were the reaffirmation of the independence, the confirmation of the country's internal and external sovereignty, the form of governance in Albania, and so on. More details: Kaliopi Naska, (2000), *Këshilli Kombëtar 1920 (Parlamenti i parë shqiptar)*, Drejtoria e Përgjithshme e Arkivave, Tiranë, etj.

¹² From March 27, 1920, when this parliament was opened until May 27, 43 meetings were held (first session) and from 23 September to 15 November 1920, 27 meetings were held (second session).

¹³ The "National Defense of Kosovo" Committee was formed in Shkodra in 1918, with President Hoxha Kadri Pristina. This committee was a political organization with democratic principles and the main body of patriotic movement of the Albanian people in Kosovo in particular and nationwide in general. Its main aims were to maintain the independence of the Albanian state, its democratization, the liberation of Kosovo and its unification with Albania. See more: Zamir Shtylla, (1986), *"Rreth krijimit dhe veprimtarisë së Komitetit Mbrojtja Kombëtare e Kosovës në vitet 1918-1920"*, Studime Historike, nr.3, Instituti i Historisë, Tiranë; Lush Culaj, (1997), *"Komiteti Mbrojtja Kombëtare e Kosovës 1918 – 1924"*, Instituti Albanologjik i Prishtinës, Prishtinë, etc.

As the external problems were overcome, the internal problems that were mainly connected with the movement for democratic change, where the war in the Parliament and the parliamentary elections played an important role, which began in the spring of 1921, came into the forefront. Bearing in mind that this were the first constitutional elections, were for the first time political groups were involved that claimed to be political parties, it was understandable that the final result would be delayed. The entire process lasted from the end of January 1921 to April, respectively until May, when they were completed in Shkodra (Peter Bartl, 1999, 241-243).

Due to the severe political situation on 14 November 1920, after the meeting of the Council of Ministers, the chairman of the government Sylejman Delvina demanded resignation, as a result of the constant pressure being made both from inside the government and by the National Council (Kaliopi Naska, 2000, 110) and by the High Council, institutions which repeatedly complained, because according to them the government acted without the prior approval of these bodies (Afrim Krasniqi, 2006, 48). Whereas, according to the scholars Puto and Fischer, Prime Minister Delvina had a continuous clash with Zogu, who held the post of interior ministries, but aimed at the post of the prime minister. Under these circumstances, the loss of influence of his government, Delvina resigned, thus becoming the first Albanian government to leave, not only in a peaceful but extremely democratic way, because it lost the support of a majority in the National Council. Moreover, Prime Minister Delvina himself stated: *"since we do not have a majority in the Parliament on which the government is based"* (Bisedimet e Këshillit Kombëtar, 1920, 175).

Thus, after the significant restriction of activity and the resignation of the government of Sulejman Delvina (Kaliopi Naska, 2000, 111-112), efforts were made by all for the election of a new, neutral government, and for the election of a unifying prime minister for all parties (Sejfi Vllamasi, 2000, 232). Moreover, the National Council, in its 70th meeting, held talks on the impeachment of the government of Iljaz Vrioni, who was appointed on 19 November 1920, as Prime Minister by the State Council, and was a representative of the conservative power with the support of the influential beys, who were landowners. However, this government was temporary, a fact that Prime Minister Vrioni emphasized, when he said that *"his government would lead the Albanian state until a new government is created by the new parliament, which would be the result of new elections"* (Kaliopi Naska, 2000, 113). Moreover, the drafting of the bill on the new elections on 5 December 1920 and the decision to start the elections on December 21 are considered the main decisions of this government (Kaliopi Naska, 2000, 113). According to this law, elections would be held, not for the Constitutional Assembly, as required by the Lushnja Statute, but for deputies in the National Council. (Historia e Popullit Shqiptar III, 2007, 178). This was the reason why the state of internal affairs was worsening and led to the clash of the political forces (Arben Puto, 2009, 315).

The political life in Albania during 1920-1924 was developed thanks to the creation of the first Albanian political parties, which played an important role in the further political processes. Thus, after these elections, specifically on October 10th the "People's Party" was created from the "National Wing". This was the largest party, which brought together most famous personalities like Fan Nolin, who was also the first party leader (Nasho Jorgaqi, 2005; Estela Palnikaj & Dritan Palnikaj, 2016, 50), then Luigj Gurakuqi, Eshref Frashëri, Stavri Vinjaun (Afrim Krasniqi, 2006, 50), etc. The proponents of this party were basically liberal and Western-oriented. Its program consisted of 20 points. On 21 November 1920, the Progressive Party or the Democratic Party was formed. This was the party of the beys, which mainly represented the interests of Central Albania, where the landowners held the power. It was led by Shefqet Vërlaci, while it also included members of the Kosovo National Protection Committee such as Hoxha Kadri Prishtina, Hasan Prishtina and Bajram Curri[†]. The "Progressive Party" program aimed at Albania's national unity, independence and development (Kaliopi Naska, 2000, 106).

The formation of the above-mentioned political parties, which were created during the election campaign, lacked political and organizational experience. The historian Bernd Fischer, describing the political culture in Albania, says that "the power of a leader did not depend on the number of votes but the number of rifles". The Albanian position and opposition were almost equal with the number of MPs, a fact that encouraged more struggle for power. Therefore, this was the reason why there was a permanent and fierce struggle between them, causing continual government crises, until the formation of a

[†] There are different opinions about the date of the founding of the People's Party. In the Historia e Popullit Shqiptar III..., it is said that the "People's Party" was formed on 10 October 1920. We find this date in Afrim Krasniqi, mentioned publication, p. 49. Researcher Miranda Vickers should be wrong when she writes that this party was founded on 24 April.

^{**} This political subject was also known as the Progressive Party. See more: Miranda Vickers, mentioned publication, p. 163. It is worth pointing out that the members of this political subject were named Conservatives.

^{††} Hasan Prishtina and Bajram Curri were part of the People's or Democratic Party.

national coalition government in the fall of 1921 (Miranda Vickers, 2008). But it should be borne in mind that the political parties and also the Albanian parliament were born on an unknown terrain and in extremely difficult historical circumstances. If we add to this the lack of democratic experience, the idea of demanding full parliamentary democracy and free political competition is becoming more difficult in a country where it has not yet been liberated from tribal influences and where there were still no clear borders as a result of wars and long occupations (Afrim Krasniqi, 2006, 49).

Along with the three above-mentioned parties, a series of progressive organizations were formed during this period, aimed at oppose the rule of Muslim landowners. Such were the Federation „Atdheu” (engl. Homeland) (Neil Shehu, 1977, 63; Historia e Popullit Shqiptar III, 2007, 202-204), then the society „Bashkimi” (engl. Union) (Statuti i Shoqnis “Bashkimi”, 1924; Muin Çami, 1974; Studime Historike”, No. 3, 41; Miranda Vickers, 2008, 155; Historia e Popullit Shqiptar III, 2007, 204), “Ora e Maleve” (engl. Mountain Time)”, “Krahu Kombëtar” (engl. National Wing) (Sejfi Vllamasi, 2000, 268-269), etc. The above mentioned organizations have played a significant role in the development of the political life in Albania in the years 1920-1924.

One of the most difficult times of political life, of the time frame of 1921-1924 is undoubtedly the end of 1921, known as the December crisis. To get out of this difficult situation, efforts were made by the Albanian political class to join together, because they saw the danger from neighboring countries. Thus, in October 1921, a broad political coalition was created between the position and the opposition, known as the “Holy Union”, which then resulted in the collapse of the government of Prime Minister Vrioni and the election of a new government, with Prime Minister Pandeli Evangjeli. His election was accompanied by disappointment and criticism, which led to the fall of this coalition government three weeks later. (Afrim Krasniqi, 2006, 61).

Thus, on 4 November, the High Council decided to dissolve the Parliament elected in April, due to the Mirdita Uprising*. While the Parliament once again rejected, but later admitted, Prime Minister Pandeli Evangjeli, under the pressure of the uprising, decided to establish two commands, one in the East under Ahmet Zogu's command and one in the West under the command of Bajram Curri. On the other hand, as a counter reaction, Aqif Pasha, demanded the resignation of the prime minister. The dismissal of Prime Minister Evangjel was signed on December 6, 1921 by Aqif Pasha Ebasani and Bishop Bumçi, who were members of the High Council. Although Evangjeli refused stating that he would resign when the Parliament was convened, under constant threats, he was forced to resign. (Albana Mema, 2014, 129). This act created a serious and extremely negative precedent in the process of the rule of law and democratic progress.

After the fall of Evangjeli, the mayor of Tirana, Qazim Koculi, was assigned, for the creation of the new government, who, seven hours later, fearing reactions throughout Albania, resigned. Koculin was replaced by Hasan Prishtina, whom the Supreme Council assigned to form the cabinet. Thus, on 7 December 1921, he formed the new government, which included personalities like Louis Gurakuqi Fan Noli, Bajram Curri, Hoxha Kadri Prishtina, Zija Dibra, Koco Tasi, Kristo Dako and Haki Tefiku, who held the posts of ministers (Skender Drini, 1984, 274; Xheladin Shala, 2014, 127). But on 12 December (Kujtim Nuro & Nezir Bata, 1982, 120), under the pressure of the citizens, mainly from the south and beys of middle east Albania, who were against the domination of the North, and after a great demonstration in Tirana, Prishtina was forced to resign.

The Government of Prishtina was replaced by Idhomeno Kosturi, whom the two members of the High Council, Aqif Pasha and Bishop Bumçi, charged with the formation of the government from office directors until the parliament meets to form a definitive government. However, neither the government cabinet, headed by Kosturi, could manage to stay long due to the lack of internal and external support. Under these circumstances, he was forced to resign, 12 days after the government's proposal, who was replaced by Xhafer Ypi (Sejfi Vllamasi, 2000, 264).

* *Ora e Maleve*, was founded in Shkodra by a small group of Catholics led by Luigj Gurakuqi. It became the voice of the opposition and the defense of the interests of the northern and the catholic minority of Shkodra.

¹ After receiving promises of help from the Yugoslavs, Marka Gjoni returned to Mirdita, propagating against the Vrioni administration. While the Yugoslavs proclaimed from Prizren the so-called Mirdita Republic, he accused the Tirana Government of being a Muslim one, with a tendency of Young Turks that was planning to intervene in the religious freedom of the Mirdita who were Catholics. With this excuse, he was confident by the support of the Yugoslavs who provided funds, military preparations and armaments, and attacked the military troops. However, fortunately, this rebellion was short-lived, because his forces did not cross the figure of two thousand troops, many of whom were less Mirdita, as most were either Serbian or Albanian irregular troops. See more Peter Bartl. Mentioned publication, p. 186.

Xhafer Ypi's government was established two days after Zogu has entered Tirana, where he took command of the gendarmerie and called the National Council (Peter Bartl, 1999, 187; Liman Rushiti, 2016, 214).

In the Government of Xhafer Ypi (December 24, 1921-26, December 1922) (Sejfi Vllamasi, 2000, 267; Joseph Swire, 2005, 303), Zogu did not yet see the moment to seize power, however as interior minister he strengthened his position. In fact, this government which took the confidence of parliament, to avoid giving the impression the government monopolization by the popular party that was in power, three ministerial posts were given to the "independents" (Historia e Popullit Shqiptar III, 2007, 183). To include all religious communities in Albania, Ypi's cabinet chose four representatives, one from each religious confession¹

As a result of major opposition discontent began in Puka the anti-Zogu uprising of March 1922 (Hysen Selmani, 2008, 141-144), where Bajram Curri along with other Kosovar leaders led this uprising against Zogu, which spanned in only three prefectures: in the prefecture of Kosovo, in that of Dibra and Durrës. Within a short time, the insurgents managed to take Durrës, then marching to Tirana (Miranda Vickers, 2008, 170). When the insurgents approached Tirana, most of the government and the National Council, which on February 25, 1922 interrupted their work, and the High Council fled hastily to Elbasan, leaving the protection of the capital to Zogu and some of its supporters. (Miranda Vickers, 2008, 170). When the forces of Elez Isufi entered Tirana on 8 March 1922², and took over a part of the capital, Zogu gathered the notables of Tirana, and on the same day the Minister of Great Britain has arrived from Durres in Tirana, Mr. Hersy Eyres, who started the negotiations with both sides in the house of Ali Shefqet in Tirana. (Kastriot Dervishi, 2006, 161). It was also the intervention of Eyres, who upon Zogu's request, managed to convince the commander of the uprising, Elez Isufin to surrender (Joseph Swire, 2005, 313; Arben Puto, 2009, 325).

The opposition justified the uprising as an action motivated by the urgent need of the Constitutional Assembly, unlike the position, which stated that "to set the foundations of the political life of a country you cannot do the assembly under rifle under fist influence of several individuals" (Albana Mema, 2014, 142).

The same attitude with the position was also made by international organizations, who openly expressed their position for the convening of the Constitutional Assembly, but after the final determination of the borders.

Following the failure of the March 1922 movement, Xhafer Ypi's second government was formed, which consisted of the same ministers, with the exception of Pandeli Evangjelit, who was appointed Minister of Foreign Affairs instead of Fan Noli, who had resigned a week before Elez Isufi's forces entered Tirana (Sejfi Vllamasi, 2000, 278).

Although he had received the vote of confidence, in September Xhafer Ypi resigned as Foreign Minister, who was replaced by Pandeli Evangjeli, while on 2 December he also released the post of Prime Minister, who was replaced by Ahmet Zogu (Joseph Swire, 2005, 320).

The government of Zogu³, which was formed on 2 December 1922, retaliated against patriots and villagers who had been part of the uprising. Apart from the murder in Peshkopi of Ramiz Daci, who was the organizer of this uprising, another 70 people were killed, its chief executives sentenced to death in absentia, 300 others were detained, hundreds of officers degraded and burned hundreds of houses (Mediha Jasa, 1958, 23; Peter Bartl. 1999, 188). Whereas, Bajram Curri and Hasan Prishtina, after the failure, were forced to flee to the highlands of the prefecture of Kosovo (Kukes) and Shkodra (Sejfi Vllamasi, 2000, 272-279), who were constantly pursued by the government.

Political circumstances in Albania from March 1922 until the 1923 elections were severe, as the order ended, leaving the country to the most complex events as a result of campaign development by parties, leaders and groups, representing different interests and views (Sejfi Vllamasi, 2000, 333).

In the Albanian parliament, the question of the establishment of the monarchist or republican regime was treated very much. Both political groups were more concerned with preserving the existing situation, which means they were about

¹Omer Vriani (Bektashi Muslim), Sotir Peci (Orthodox), Ndoc Pistuli (Catholic), Refik Toptani (Sunni Muslim).

² On 8 March 1922, a large rebel force, led by Cen Elez of Dibra, appeared in Fushë-Krujë, which then progressed to the outskirts of Tirana.

³ In Zogu's cabinet, there were no major changes from the pre-cabinet. The Minister of Foreign Affairs became Pandeli Evangjeli, while the post of Minister of Internal Affairs was kept by Zogu himself, which was later taken by Sejfi Vllamasi.

holding the Supreme Council, but attempting to expand its powers (Historia e Popullit Shqiptar III, 2007, 214). We can say that the constitutional assembly elections preceded this division of the political spectrum that reflected in the lack of consensus about establishing a form of governance.

By the summer of 1923, the Albanian political scene is deepening furthermore, so that the differences grew more and more between the landowners and those without land, the northern and southern, the liberals and the conservatives, the Muslims and the Christians (Orthodox and Catholics) and so on. It should be noted that one of the main causes of dissatisfaction among Christians and Muslims was the unequal treatment of Christians by the Muslim majority (Miranda Vickers, 2008, 173).

While parliament, after finishing the budget vote, ceased its activity on 18 June 1923., the parliament's dissolution sparked hope among the Albanian opposition to overthrow the government. The outcome of the elections, which precisely reflected the political climate in Albania, also highlighted regional divisions, because opposition forces mainly won in the south and north of the country. The opposition did not accept the election results, and even she was convinced that the indirect vote had won, because in the second round the results had that end because the government used scams, strength, and all they could to prevent the victory of the wing of Noli (Robert C. Austin, 2011, 97-98). These elections complicated even more the political situation with the fact that with their results the allocation of seats in parliament did not give a clear majority, while the government won only 40 of the 95 seats in the Constitutional Assembly. This led Zogu's cabinet to resign after two weeks to be replaced by Shefqet Vërlaci. Zogu further continued his great influence on the government, since neither Vërlaci was acceptable to the opposition.

Causes of internal chaos in Albania on the eve of the June Uprising

The parliamentary elections that took place in November/December 1923, which ended on December 27, brought the victory of the political groups that supported Zogu and the policy he was pursuing. On the other hand, the opposition openly rejected the election results, so the country's political situation deteriorated more and more, as a result of the narrow gap between the two sides' votes. Thus, the newly elected Assembly came together on 21 January 1924, at whose head Petro Goga was elected. She made an attempt to pass on important issues, as the final decision on the form of government, the allocation of capital¹¹ and finally passed in the elections for the new parliament. However, these issues were not chosen, because the opposition was not interested in pushing these processes forward (Robert C. Austin, 2011, 100-101). This situation is due to the confrontation between the deputies, some of whom were liberal, while others were conservative (Emine Arifi-Bakalli, 2015, 306). The contradictions between them deepened so far, that they were leading the country to anarchy.

It must be said that in early 1924, Albania experienced a deep political and economic crisis. The famine that engulfed the north of the country (economic aspect) and the repetition of the demand by the Serbo-Croat-Slovene Kingdom for St. Naum and Vermosh (political aspect), affected the disturbance of the Albanian public and the holding of many protest rallies (Emine Arifi-Bakalli, 2015, 307).

The assassination attempt against Zogu on 24 February 1924¹² (Historia e Popullit Shqiptar III, 2007, 218) was a signal, that further thwarted the deep political crisis that ruled in Albania. The next day, a group of about 29 opposition members, lead by Fan Noli, Sylejman Delvina, Luigj Gurakuqi, Avni Rustemi and others, addressed a statement to the High Council, which stated that: "The continuation of the government in power, would mean the total destruction and internal and external confusion, that could be fatal for life of our Fatherland." Furthermore, this document proposed the formation of a government, in which, after the fall of the ministers, a government cabinet and a prime minister should be elected, who would enjoy the trust of all political groups (Emine Arifi-Bakalli, 2015, 307).

Zogu resigned on the same day from his position as prime minister, working against the opposition from an unofficial position, because he asked the regency to appoint Shefqet Vërlaci to form the new government Zogu resigned on the same day from his position as prime minister, working against the opposition from an unofficial position, because he asked the regency to appoint Shefqet Vërlaci to form the new government (Joseph Swire, 2005, 336). The cabinet of the government

¹¹ For the setting of the capital, there have had clashes mainly between the organizations *Ora e Maleve*, which in her program had the appointment of Shkodra for the capital, and the newspaper *Politika e Vlorës*, which was to make Vlova the capital.

¹² The assassination of Zogu took place on 23 February 1924 by 17-year-old Beqir Volteri, on the stairs of the Albanian Parliament.

led by Vërlaci, who took office on March 3rd, sparked even more resistance to the opposition, which they as an ally of Zogu and who only represented the interests of the landowners (Robert C. Austin, 2011, 105).

For this reason, about 30 members of the opposition, denounced the cabinet of Vërlaci as Zogu's gadget, whereas the member of Vatra, Faik Konica resigned from his position in parliament. From March 1924 on, the government had three strong opponents: progressive forces lead by Noli, the Kosovo Committee and the Albanian Army (Robert C. Austin, 2011, 105-107).

Under this circumstances, the hope for cooperation between the position and opposition faded even more, while the economic and social situation in Albania worsened day by day. The events that preceded the June Uprising, are without a doubt the killing of two American tourists, G.B. de Long and R.L. Coleman, on 6 April 1924, who were travelling from Tirana to Shkodra (Peter Bartl, 1999, 190). Their killing supported the accusation of the opposition and the government that further affected the heavy political climate in the country. But the assassination that made the biggest rage in Albania, resulting in accusations' and counter-claims between the opposition and position, was without any doubt the deadly wounding of Avni Rustemi on 20 April 1924, one of the protagonists of the opposition and the representing member of the organization "Bashkimi". The event was politicized and used by the Albanian opposition, accusing Zogu, for being involved in this assassination. However, the assassination of the parliament member Avni Rustemi*, was a clear political crime, that had not only an influence on the cutting of bridges of communication between the government and the opposition, but was also the starting point of the spring events of 1924, an event that led to the uprising of June (Arben Puto, 2009, 348). The river of anti-governmental accusations didn't have an ending in sight before, during and after the burial of Avni Rustemi (Historia e Popullit Shqiptar III, 2007, 222). Thus, on 30 April, 26 parliament members of the Democratic Party held a meeting in the Municipality of Vlora, where they demanded that the Constitutional Assembly should convene in Vlora and not in Tirana. At the same time, 49 parliamentary members continued they work in Tirana. On the other hand, the opposition from Vlora demanded the resignation of the Vërlaci government, because as expressed by the government, it was impossible to guarantee the lived of the Albanian citizens and that of foreigners. They also accused the government for the country's miserable economic situation etc. (Miranda Vickers, 2008, 177).

Whereas, on 28 April Noli denounced the government was "anti-nationalist", and that the people could expect nothing from the government or the Assembly. The oppositional newspaper Politika, wrote during this period: "*Zogu was working against the national interests, because he was a Serbian tool and he, like Esad Pasha, was determined to make Albania a Serbian province*" (Politika, 3 maj 1924).

On 30 May* the cabinet of Vërlaci resigned, to be replaced with that of Ilias Vrioni, who became prime minister and foreign minister. After the high officials of Vrioni administration fled to Italy, the military units joined the opposition. On the other side, in Vlora was created the Temporary Administrative Commission (Historia e Popullit Shqiptar III, 2007, 224), that was a kind of government, but resigned on 15 June, as a result of financial collapse and other factors. Also, the foreign diplomats who were accredited in Tirana, representing the interests of the countries they came from, didn't stay out of these developments. It's important to mention the representatives of the powers, that had political and economic interests in Albania, who incited the governmental forces for resistance. The most engaged in this direction was the representative of Great Britain, H. Aires.

The democratic government of Noli

The government of Noli, which was created on 16 June 1924 (Miranda Vickers, 2008, 178; Joseph Swire, 2005, 343) consisted of the most famous political personalities of the time, who had a progressive orientation and claimed the democratization of Albania (Emine Arifi-Bakalli, 1982, 239; Robert C. Austin, 2011, 135). Without a doubt, the main problem that conveyed Noli continuously was his legitimacy as prime minister". However, he announced three days after the formation of his government cabinet, on 19 June, a 20-point reform program (AQSH, F. Fan Noli F.14, D.89). The

* According to researcher Joseph Swire, Vërlaci's government took office by gaining a strong vote of confidence on March the 5th.

† Vërlaci's government resigned according to researcher Peter Bartl on 27 May 1924, according to Joseph Swire, 1 June, and according to Edward Jacques, this government left on 15 February.

** It was in violation of the Lushnja Statute. Noli stated that the Regulatory Council had authorized him to form a new government, but he did not legitimize it because in Albania there was only one member of this council (Sotir Peci), and under Article 49, this council could not function, without being at least three of its four members.

government of Noli had an extremely difficult beginning, because of the fact that they came to power through uprising and because Zogu's preliminary governments had robbed the public finances, had rooted corruption and as a result budget deficit were created. Other problems that followed this government was also the ruling class, which continued to be powerful, then the neighboring states that showed great reservations and without a doubt the lack of support of the Great Powers, that became the main problem and had consequently a fatal outcome for the Noli government and its durability (Robert C. Austin, 2011, 131).

Since the international recognition was very important, he left Albania for two months (September and October), went to Geneva, a visit that did cause him much internal problems, because his government created many factions, who saw their narrow interests. Such were the Union, the National Democrats, the Radical Democratic Party and others (Robert C. Austin, 2011, 162-165). Thus, the struggle between these parties grew increasingly harder. As a result, Albania was divided into areas of influence, where each minister had his influence in a specific prefecture* (Sejfi Vllamasi, 2000, 375). The army began also to show her dissatisfaction, due to the cutback in the budget, and because of the fear that the Noli government will not be able to defend the country's independence (Robert C. Austin, 2011, 165). When Noli returned to Albania, forced by the disfavoring circumstances that were created in his absence, makes a very important decision. Thus, on November 13, he accepted to hold new elections that should be held from 20 December 1924 until 20 January 1925 (Robert C. Austin, 2011, 167).

Noli legally couldn't postpone the elections any further, because the function on the High Council ended on November 23, and the election of the new High Council had to be done by the parliament, therefore Noli was forced to sign the decree for the new parliamentary elections (Emine Arifi-Bakalli, 1982, 251).

Noli's government has lost its authority among the people, and the people have lost their confidence that it could bring out the country from the general crisis. There are at least three external and internal factors that accelerated the collapse of Noli's government: 1. Lack of unity within the Albanian opposition¹; 2. The international non-recognition of his government and 3. The lack of government legalization by the Assembly or through elections. But, as researcher Robert C. Austin says, is *"the failure to provide outside support, a poorly equipped army and a relatively uninterested population forced Noli to leave Tirana on December 23"* (Robert C. Austin, 2011, 321). While Sejfi Vllamasi, in the reasons of his fall, mentions also Noli's agreement with the Soviet ambassador in Rome, for diplomatic relations between the two governments, Noli's speech at the League of Nations in November 1924 and the kerosene that was not given in time or in the time of this government, to the British Society.

After six months of Noli's government, Zogu returned to Albania (24 December 1924), who was in Belgrade at that time. There were many reasons that favored Zogu's return, such as the support of the Great Powers like Great Britain and Italy (Esilda Luku, 2015, 158-176) and neighboring states like Yugoslavia, which helped more than anyone, and Greece. Upon returning to Tirana, Zogu immediately assumed supreme power as dictator and commander-in-chief while the country remained in state of emergency. On the other hand, Noli, his government and about 350 people, moved to Vlorë, from where they left for Italy and Greece.

Conclusion

The political circumstances in Albania in the period of 1920-1924 are extremely complex because it is the most dynamic period of events that have played a decisive role not only in political and economic processes. Thus, among the most significant events that took place in Albania in the above mentioned period were unquestionably those of an interior character such as the Congress of Lushnja and the Vlorë War (1920), the parliamentary elections (1921-1923), the June Uprising (1924), while external ones are undeniably the recognition of Albania and its borders at the London Conference (9 December 1921) and its membership to the League of Nations (1921). All of these events were undoubtedly accompanied by a series of controversies within the Albanian leadership, a fact that has produced destabilization and stagnation.

¹ In the prefecture of Korça, (Noli), of Gjirokastra (Koço Tasi and Stavro Vinjau), of Vlorë and Berat (Qazim Koculit), of Central Albania (Mustafa Kruja), of Kosovo, with the center in Kukës (Bajram Curri) and in the prefecture of Shkodra (Luigj Gurakuqi).

² We think that the Albanian opposition was united because of Zogu and his view of the Islamic religion, temporarily eliminating the profound differences they had and will continue to have. So, the combined dissatisfaction of the Albanian Catholic and Orthodox population, made them unite, while never agreeing in advance for a unified program.

In this period, Albania was not only not united in the political aspect, but also lacked most of the preliminary conditions that testify to the state unity of the country, such as the high degree of centralization, religious and linguistic unity, and so on. Meanwhile, the fierce political struggle developed in the 1920-1922 period between the highest state institutions (the government, the National Parliament, and the High Council), as well as outside them, damaging the country's normal political development, but failed to stop efforts for its stabilization. But if we highlight also its problems with its neighbors (Yugoslavia and Greece), emerge the difficulties faced in the above-mentioned years. It is worth mentioning that from January 1920 to December 1924 in Albania 13 governments have changed.

But despite the political chaos, as a result of the frequent change of governments and problems with neighbors, this period also marked the peak of the Albanian political life. This arose because political parties appeared, programs were announced, newspapers were published, and above all, a previously unheard political debate took place.

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The Problem Change Function of Heritage Building at the Old Cities in Central Java

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Abstract

The old city is the commercial center in Semarang City in The Dutch Government. It can be seen from the buildings a relic history of hotel, warehouse, and also religious buildings. Almost all this building still exist, but they were unable to function properly. Even some buildings are used as shed by the rightful owner of the land. The use of building be a barn it gives the impression slum and not safe to the old city. The flood problem in the old city who lack of after causing the quality of the environment in the old city get worse. This condition certainly disturb the face of the city and made the building worthless again. If managed well, those buildings in ancient old city this can be icon historic for Semarang City. One concept which can be applied to overcome these issues is to conservation old buildings to be new functions as the best possible. This concept chosen because see that function old buildings are no right again when maintained, so we needed sought the use of more worthy economically for old buildings historic not to stopped and remain maintained. The purpose of this research is studying characteristic model the concept of conservation old buildings and produce model design as an application from the concept of conservation of any old buildings. To achieve this aim will be used a methodology qualitative descriptive which can explain problem indetail and described potentials. The result of this research in the form of a model design that can be applied in ancient building, so can improve their quality, both in terms of social, economic, and culturally.

Keywords: Change Function, Heritage Building, Old Cities.

Introduction

Items of Cultural Heritage, a site is a location which contains or is thought to contain items of cultural heritage including the surroundings required to ensure its safety. Items of Cultural Heritage are artifacts made by man, moveable or immovable, individually or in groups, or parts thereof or remains thereof, which are at least 50 years of age, or represent a specific period at least 50 years of age, and a natural object which are considered to be of significant value to history, science and culture (The President of Indonesia Law No. 5/1992 regarding Cultural Heritage). Cultural items of cultural heritage are owned or inherited by descent or are heir looms, exist in sufficient numbers of any given type and a representative number are already owned by the state (The President of Indonesia Law No. 5/1992 regarding Cultural Heritage).

Heritage buildings consist of many functions as like officers, railway stations, ware housings, factories, hotels, housings, restaurants, stores, service officers, churches. At that period the building functions were really suitable for people's activities. And the site of building one mix use zone, everyone went to many functions building at the same zone. Therefore going one building to the others one accessible easily.

In the morning and in the afternoon the life of those areas were crowded by different attitude people, different activities, different ages, education and different employees. These zones were good condition in the morning and afternoon also in the night. Central Business District (CBD) usually arranged as mix use buildings as like in "Kota Lama Semarang-Indonesia, Amosfort-Amsterdam, Rotterdam, and Antwerp-Belgium.



Source: (Darmawan, 2015).

Fig. 2. Changing function from central station in Amsterdam to be store



Source: (Darmawan, 2015).

Fig. 1. Changing function from court office in Kota Lama Semarang to be restaurant

Review of Literature and Theoretical Framework

The Historical Building Conservation Theory

In general, conservation can be defined as activities to care for, preserve sustainability, and preserve ancient and historic buildings to draw back the interest of the community to visit the area or building. Conservation activities are created because of the need to conserve degraded and damaged natural resources. The impact of such degradation creates fear and if not anticipated will endanger humanity, especially impact on the life of future generations. The existence of ancient buildings that are developing the story of history, way of life, culture, and civilization of society, providing opportunities for future generations to touch and live the struggle of his ancestors. Historical building preservation efforts are carried out to safeguard the history of the building, and to keep the building in order to be dedicated to future generations.

Snyder & Catanese (1979) says that the conservation of historic buildings is basically an integral part of urban planning or "the urban planning". The conservation of historic buildings is closely related to three important things: (a) the historical development of the city, (b) the old town's historical area or environment and (c) the diverse context of "urban architecture" and the architectural style of the old historical building. Therefore, in the conservation activities there is always a common thread between the relics of architectural works with cultural values that took place in the community in the past. According to Mulyandari (2011), the criteria for conservation actions can be buildings or places that have aesthetic value, security, historical role, supporting an adjacent area that has important value and has special value or something important.

City development in a city area can be seen since the city area into an area inhabited and inhabited by community groups with urban style. The historical development of the city can be seen from the cultural forms of urban society from the simplest to the most sophisticated urban society. The cultural form of the people of this city will give birth or leave the works of architecture in the form of old buildings with historical value. Therefore, for big cities that are long-lived, the cultural influence of urban communities in an area will be of significant value in the aspect of historical values and cultural values for the society in the future. The old urban areas generally have architectural artefacts in the form of historic old buildings.

According to Papageorgiou as quoted by Mulyandari (2011), there are two criteria for determining a city or a part of a city area that can be categorized as a historic city area, namely (a) its uniqueness in its urban composition; (B) the state of the architectural quality and geographical locality, whereas a city that deserves conservation behavior is partly due to: (a) having a genuine urban structural composition; (B) have architectural qualities (both architectural monuments and certain interesting buildings) which indicate its urban development; (C) have a sustainable social life.

The Cultural of Conservation

According to the certificate of Burra on 1984 on (Bappeda, 1988) the conservation is protected the cultural meaning of building or area for heritage in the future. For the cultural meaning is aesthetic review, historic, knowledge, social of environment building or cities. According J.C Catanese and J.C Snyder on (Bappeda, 1988) it's helped for last period and the future that review of cultural are consist of:

Aesthetic: the shape, scale, colour, texture, and material also the smell, voice are depended to the place and function and relation of the landscape.

Historical aspect: consist of the community historic some place who has historic value related the hero even a historic events.

Knowledge value it's depend on the own interest, qualities and given information of values.

Social value; places that focus for activities such as spiritual, politic, cultural, weather from majority group or minority group.

Conservation is the main role of activities of heritage depend on the Burra charter for the conservation of place of cultural significance 1981 on (Bappeda, 1988).

Conservation is the process heritage of lace that cultural taken care very well. Conservation is concluded the preservation, restoration, reconstruction, adaptation and revitalization.

Preservation is the heritage that precise the original without changing and it's perfected the demolition.

Restoration/ Rehabilitation is returned of place or building with disappear the addition and to install the shape without use the new material.

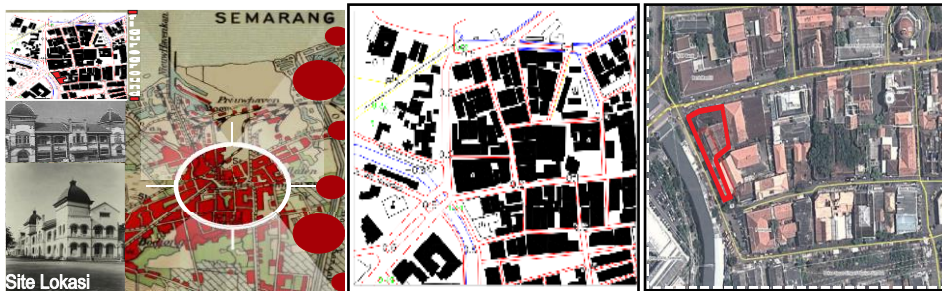
Reconstruction is returning of the building at the similar original condition and uses the new or the old material.

Adaptation/ revitalization is change of the building to be usage the suitable function. The suitable function is usage that not needed the changing eventhough a little bit only.

Demolition is the damage of building that deterioration and dangerous condition and created the new style of the original.

Kota Lama Semarang Area

This area was a Dutch area called as the little Netherland in the colonials periods. At 19 - 20 century, this area had a function as trade center. The buildings here had a function as a town hall, castle, house, company, prison, etc. There are a lot of buildings has a basement (as a hiding place/ prison). Most of those building neglected. Some building has a new function as gallery, conference hall, cafe, church (Piandel, 2014). Most of those building also used as a tourism place (photography object and festival).



Source: (Piandel, 2014).

Source: (Piandel, 2014).

Fig 1: Location of *Kota Lama Semarang*.

Fig 2: The Map of *Kota Lama Semarang*.

Techniques of Participations

The clearly administration of community as important factor that often ignored whether on population, legalization of status, inventaritation physical facilities who have by communities whether government, therefore a lot of problem difficult happen, for performance the serial data accurate. Even we find out the data with many version were very confuse for need research or arrangement of planning program and urban planning for future and others program. This problem would be effect of the

trust for people on the world to make corporation. The data occur at the laws community until center of government. The data have delivered trust way and simple would giving more uses for analysis or economic problem, social problem, cultural, political, defense and security. Therefore communities administration factor are techniques participation way for urban planning.

Political commitment is important thing at period reformation now days, for urban planning without legitimation and all statement that supported this program would be fail. Socialization interactive dialogue between planer, executive and legislative as representative of communities is very important need as techniques participation way for urban planning. The statement of many political elite would be affected to be success of urban planning program, and the short term or long term. Our community of Indonesia believed the paternalistic system that why thus political statement as effective way for successful.

For socialization step of urban planning, use the meetings with the community periodically. It's affected to adsorb the willingness and aspiration of communities for getting facilities of urban planning maximally. At this forum is expected design agreement that effective and efficient. The experiences at last periodically many programs that are not wiliness and aspiration of communities, and fail condition. Many idea from expert that publicated by mass media or electronic media or by book are participation technique way that very effective. Beside that thus ideas could be presented at the seminar forum, discussion, workshop or other forum.

For socialization of physical development program or effective urban planning true press release. At the press release the program would be explained detail and accurate to pass for pers. The information would be directed at the center way, therefore the community would be inform by urban communities.

Research Design and Methods

The method used in this research using qualitative descriptive approach method. This method is chosen because it is able to describe and describe field findings that aim to collect actual and detailed information, identify problems, make comparisons or evaluations, and determine what others do in the face of similar problems and learn from their experiences to plan And decisions in the future (Arikunto, 2006). Observations made on the Old Town area which is an area that has historic ancient buildings with Dutch colonial architectural style. Objects observed is the condition of the building is done by reviewing the elements supporting the character of the building, so it can be prepared redesign of the building.

Discussion, Findings, and Interpretation

Kota Lama Semarang

Just a view of those building that still functionate, the old city area active only at a view spot. At sendowo street (PT. Perkebunan & Nusindo) that building are located across the *Kali Semarang/ Mberok*. Kali Semarang is an artificial river with 15-17 meters diameter. Function : city government has a plan to make this spot as a new tourism place in Kali Semarang ex: gondola rent, as a point of interest (to attracted visitor).



Source: (Piandel, 2014).

Fig 1: Existing of Heritage Building at Sendowo Street.



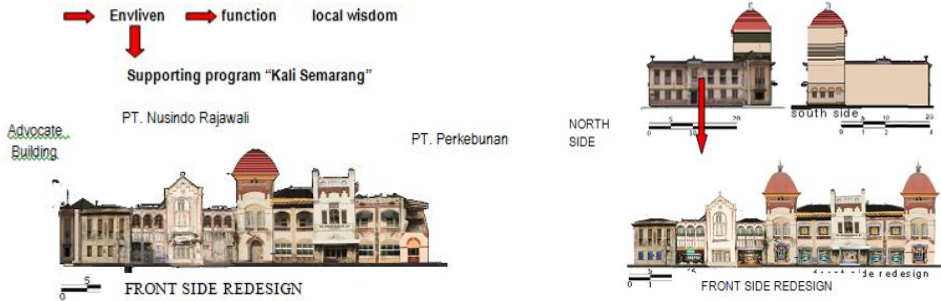
Source: (Piandel, 2014).

Fig 2: Redesign The Lively of Sendowo Street.

This location at Sendowo street (PT. Perkebunan & Nusindo) has a new function as a supporting facility for city government's program at 2015. Function: this place has a function to attract visitor in tourism segment and to reinforce the

economic aspect (commercial), also used to maintaining the old city and open new jobs opportunities for people around this area.

Re-function: the function of PT. Perkebunan has changed as café & resto, retail , with oldskool/ antique stuff center that bought from the communities around this area (to increasing people's income). Re-function: PT. Nusindo has a new function as museum, historic library & art gallery (Piandel, 2014).



Source: (Piandel, 2014).

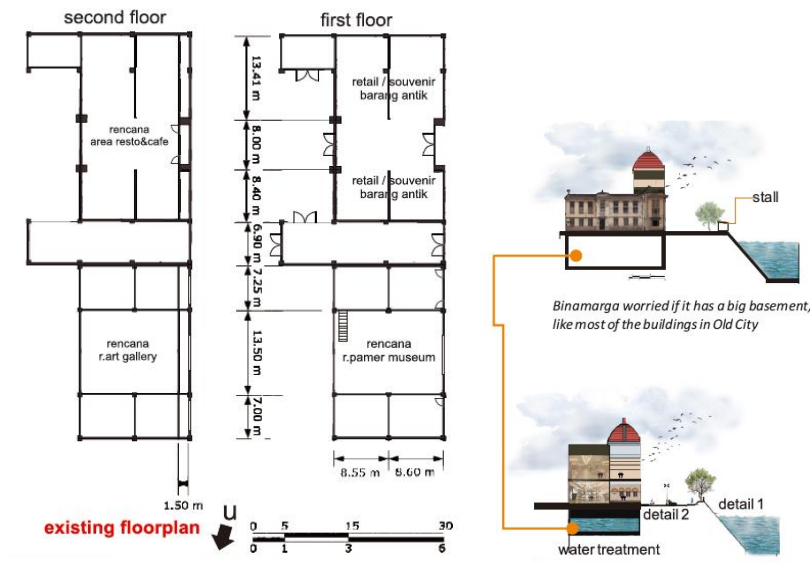
Fig 3: Redesign of Shortern Part.

We still have to obey the valid regulation to enliven the atmosphere of Sendowo Street at Semarang Old City. The building of Pt Perkebunan and PT Nusindo Rajawali, has "*madya*" status (allowed to get only small renovation treatment and the changes of façade isn't allowed) in valid regulation. So, on the way to enliven that building performance we onlu can:

Re-painting without changes the original base colour and cleaning the building area.

Re pro the existing floorplan without changes the building structures.

Make the new tower replica on the right side, without change any shape or colour of the exist building (PT. Perkebunan)



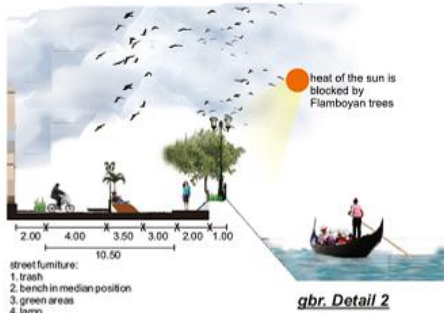
Source: (Piandel, 2014).

Source: (Ruci, et. al., 2014).

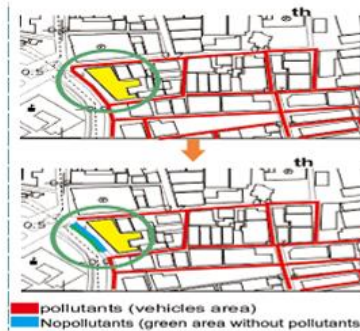
Fig 5: Redesign.

Fig 4: Redesign and Refunction

Kota Lama include in eleven city in Indonesia that has an official green concept area with president approval. Water treatment details green area.



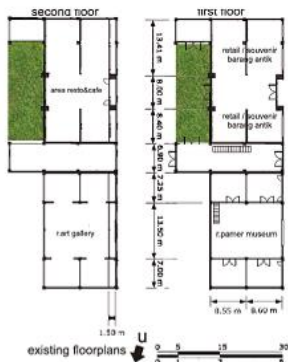
Source: (Ruci, et. al., 2014).



Source: (Ruci, et. al., 2014).

Fig 6: Refunction of Sendowo Street.

Fig 7: The Analysis Pollutants and No Pollutants Area.



Source: (Ruci, et. al., 2014).

Floorplan redesign can held by change and fixed the broken wall, the the rest problem can solved only by optimizing the space function organization and add some open space.



Source: (Piandel, 2014).

Fig 8: Refunction Floorplan.

Fig 9: Eksterior Refunction of PT. Perkebunan and Nusindo.

Kretek Mberok, Kota Lama Semarang

The exact location of building which will be redesigned is near *Kretek Mberok*. *Kretek Mberok* is the famous bridge in Old Town Area. “Mberok” word comes from Dutch “brug”, which means hanging bridge, it is like common bridge in Holland.



Source: (Ruci, et. al., 2014).

Fig 10: The Location Map of *Kretek Mberok*.

Old Town area in Semarang usually called Little Netherland, because those buildings constructed since the Dutch era. It has been becoming as mute witness of Dutch colonial Indonesia history for more than two centuries. Sadly most of the buildings are rundown, broken, or simply just facades of former glory. There are about 50 buildings that stand still and has tons of colonial history. The building that will be redesigned without eliminating the main identity of it, so the historic element will be kept to emphasis its characteristic. Specially to Semarang Old City Area itself. Problem in the past, *Mberok* River was the important part of these areas but slowly that river becoming ignored and dirty. Pedestrian way has malfunction as a place where the street vendors works, not a facility for pedestrian walks. The existence of public transportation around these objects actually makes this area into disorder (Ruci, et. al., 2014).



Source: (Ruci, et. al., 2014).

Fig 11: Existing of PT. Perkebunan and Nusindo Heritage Building.



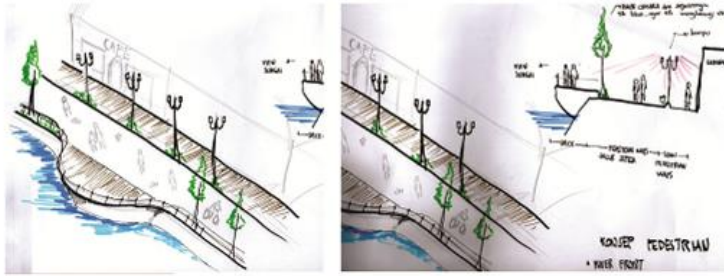
Source: (Ruci, et. al., 2014).

Fig 12: Location Area of Vendors in Front of The Heritage Building and Beside The River.

These old building looks neglecting and broken by pieces, whereas these areas are potential to be something beautiful and making Semarang be different than other cities. Few photos above show the situation around, even when the atmosphere still colonialist they still look not interesting to be visited.

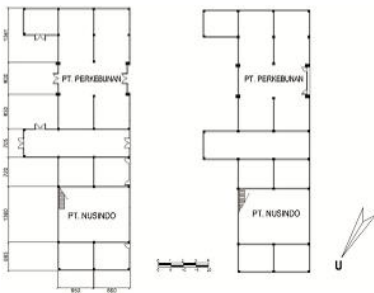
Redesign

The building is currently an office, but somehow it looks unused. The idea of redesign planning is to change the function of this building as art gallery center. It will conclude café, art gallery, museum, and gift shop. We decided to involve the surrounding area for redesign planning because it linked each other. To feel what the museum represents is not only by what is inside but also what is happening outside. The building itself has two stories, and we do not can to add or reduce it so we keep it as two stories building. We only change the function and interior design and try to keep the real characteristic of this historical building especially the ornament (Ruci, et. al., 2014).



Source: (Ruci, et. al., 2014).

Fig 13: Sketch Redesign.



Source: (Ruci, et. al., 2014).

Fig 14: First floor and second floor.



Source: (Ruci, et. al., 2014).

Fig 15: Redesign First floor and second floor.

This is a site plan of the building, and we can see how the neighborhood look like. *Mberok* river actually can be the main attraction of the area, so we include it for redesign plan by creating "river view space". Façade of this building has not changed at all. That because the maintain the figure of "Kota Lama" is used as a historical heritage tour in Semarang. Just cleaning and repainting that done on this building, so the building doesn't look dull (Ruci, et. al., 2014).



Source: (Ruci, et. al., 2014).

Fig 16: Site plan redesign.



Source: (Ruci, et. al., 2014).

Fig 17: Facade redesign.

The exterior of the building is designed with pedestrian priority as "Kota Lama" tourists. Sendowo roads be an area that free of the vehicle. This will make the tourists comfortable to enjoy the atmosphere of "Kota Lama".



Source: (Ruci, et. al., 2014).



Fig 18: Exterior Redesign

The interior design is modern style, to keep the balance between vintage and modern. Calm colour is being the key in the rhythm of décor, except for the café which is using bold colour to encourage (Ruci, et. al., 2014).



Source: (Ruci, et. al., 2014).

Fig 19: Interior Art Gallery.



Source: (Ruci, et. al., 2014).

Fig 20: Interior Gift Shop.

Revitalisation Lawang Sewu

Lawang Sewu is located in the heart of the city, namely in the area of Tugu Muda Semarang, making it the building that will be seen by many people, this location was the one who also makes Lawang Sewu so strategic. Tugu Muda area is often used as public space, especially in the city of Semarang the youth spend a weekend night. This could be a great potential for Lawang Sewu building to be revitalized with a variety of functions that can accommodate community activities. Lawang Sewu not skyscraper which height is very prominent. However, for the size of the 2 storey building Lawang Sewu is high. Area is spacious and Europe style makes Lawang Sewu impressed magnificent. Lawang Sewu as one of the central point of tourism that very potential in Semarang and Central Java.

When viewed from the problem revitalization Lawang Sewu, probably the building is do iconic and save a lot of history and get into one of the heritage buildings in Semarang, make the revitalization do not want it to change the atmosphere, façade, and the structure of the original building. As one of the cultural heritage as well as a building that is protected by the Government, Lawang Sewu from less desirable communities. Lack of promotion is done, so the popularity of Lawang Sewu defeated by shopping centers and malls are more and more in the city of Semarang causing shortages Lawang Sewu number of visitors, especially on weekdays.

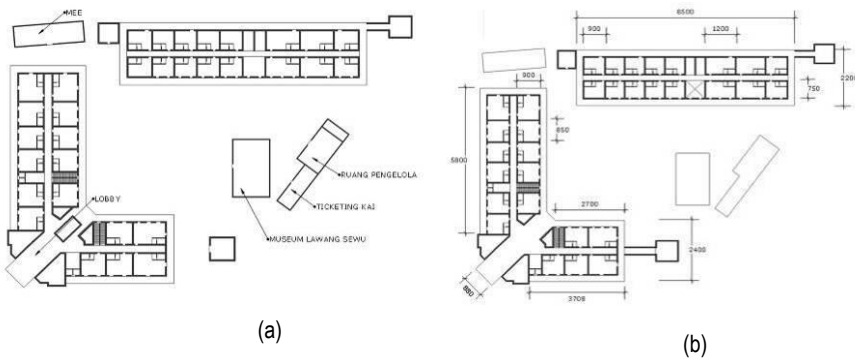
Lawang Sewu not allowed to change the exterior of the heritage for it needs to be done over the function of Lawang Sewu building should return to the iconic buildings and attracted many people. Plans over the function of the building, it is necessary to explore the potential that existed at Lawang Sewu building and its surroundings, in order to become one of the landmarks of Semarang.

Concept Design

Law No. 11 of 2010 on Heritage defines heritage as immaterial cultural heritage in the form of object of cultural, heritage building, structure heritage, world heritage, and cultural reserve on land and or water to preserve its existence because it

has important value for history, science, education, religion, and or culture through setting process. In this law is not set on "conversion" but development is described in article 78 which reads "Development of Cultural heritage carried out with due regard to the principle of expediency, safety, authenticity, and the values attached to it. Similarly the Dutch East Indies heritage of historic buildings is an asset at the same area of the building heritage which only developed utilization without changing its original from as set out in Article 95 of law 11 of 2010 that local governments have the task to the protection, development, and utilization of Cultural Heritage. The local government in making policies for the development of heritage buildings which should also consider whether the current building has given maximum productivity that is allowed to be constructed building other more valuable or with other terms should pay attention to the highest and best use, in which he must meet four criteria, physically possible, legally permissible, legally permitted, financially feasible, financially viable, maximally productive, maximum productivity (yield the highest value) (Hanafi, et. al., 2014).

Redesign Plan



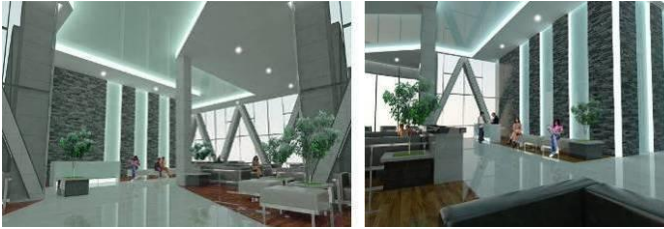
Source: (Hanafi, et. al., 2014).

Fig 21: (a) 1st Floor Plan Lawang Sewu; (b) 2nd Floor Plan Lawang Sewu.



Source: (Hanafi, et. al., 2014).

Fig 22: Redesign Exterior Lawang Sewu.



Source: (Hanafi, et. al., 2014).

Fig 23: Redesign Lobby Lawang Sewu.



Source: (Hanafi, et. al., 2014).

Fig 24: Redesign Interior Room Lawang Sewu

Conclusion

The heritage buildings in Semarang have problems left behind by their owners, so the government finds it difficult to identify owners of heritage buildings. The heritage building was eventually damaged due to the long time not being used. To overcome this problem, Semarang City Government attempted to change the function of historic buildings and make other functions more modern without changing the previous characters and patterns. Historic buildings will change other functions depending on the investor demand and the potential that exists in the surrounding environment. With the change of function is expected to increase the tourist attraction in Semarang City.

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Public Health Aspects of Post -Traumatic Stress Disorder in Patients Who Have Experienced a Car Accident

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Abstract

The main aim of this research was to show the public health aspects of the emergence of post-traumatic stress disorder patients (PTSD) following a traffic accident.

Keywords: anxiety disorder, injury, pain, event, trauma, memory

Introduction

Posttraumatic stress disorder is an anxiety disorder that occurs in some individuals after witnessing or experiencing a dangerous event. Primary this disorder has been observed in war veterans, but it can also occur as a result of some other traumatic events. One of the causes of posttraumatic stress disorder are traffic accidents. Traffic accidents can be terrifying accidents. Quite often during accidents some people are physically injured, sometimes with serious injuries, and the vehicles are damaged too. Hence, traffic accidents represent a traumatic experience for the survivors, especially if there is chronic pain for several months after the event, which can induce the presence of post-traumatic stress disorder. Early detection of these patients is essential for intervention and prevention of major damage.

Material and methods

The study was conducted as observational cross-sectional study. It was conducted in n O.E. Emergency Center - Skopje (part of the clinic TOARILUC). The data required for the research were provided by specialist reports from patients who have received bodily injuries following traffic accident, data from the history of the patient, data from PTSD test (Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders, American Psychiatric Association, 4th Ed., 2004), data from PTSD Check list - Civilian Version (PCL-C), as well as data obtained from a questionnaire designed for the survey. Statistical processing was done in the statistical program SPSS for Windows 17,0, where we used the following methods or tests:

-In series with numerical marks and homogeneous distribution descriptive parameters were use, i.e. measures of central tendency (mean, standard deviation, minimum and maximum values of the parameters analyzed).

-In the series with attribute marks are calculated percentages (i.e., ratio and proportions).

-For testing the significance of the differences between certain variables, depending on the distribution of the data, we used tests for independent samples (Chi-square test with Yates correction and no, t- test for independent samples, Mann-Whitney U test, Kruskal-Wallis test, Analysis of Variance, Linear Regression Analysis).

-For determination of correlation between two variables was used Pearson's coefficient of linear correlation (r).

For statistically significant p values were taken.

Results

The study presents the results obtained with the analysis and evaluation of data from 86 respondents, patients from the Emergency Center in Skopje, who responded to the review or were brought after experienced car accident. The gender structure of respondents comprised 54 (62.79%) men and 32 (37.21%) of respondents were female. Descriptive analysis

of the age of the respondents found that their average age is $37,73 \pm 13,7$ years. The youngest patient with experienced accident of this group is 19 years old, and the oldest is aged 65 years. In the structure of education of the respondents dominate patients with secondary education represented 51 (59.3%) respondents, followed by 33 (38.37%) of respondents who have completed higher education, and only 2 (2.32%) respondents have primary school. The distribution in terms of nationality constitute 61 (70.93%) Macedonians and 25 (29.07%) Albanians. The highest number and percentage of respondents - 41 (47.67%) their financial condition described as moderate, 26 (30.23%) of them have a high socio-economic standards, the remaining 19 (22.09%) respondents have a low standard residence. The study included 50 (58.14%) respondents who suffered damage or injuries from severe degree, while 36 (41.86%) respondents suffered minor injury. During the accident, most of the respondents were drivers of the vehicle - 40 (46.51%), co-drivers were 22 (25.58%) respondents, and only 9 (10.46%) were located on the back seats. The majority of respondents participated in traffic accident with a motor vehicle - 71 (82.56%) or at the time of the accident 59 (68.6%) respondents were in the car, a motorcycle and a bicycle 6 (6.98%), while 15 (17.44%) of respondents in the accident have participated as pedestrians. In the traffic accidents 81 (94.19%) respondents were injured with direct collision and only 5 (5.81%) of them had a independent crash.

Our results showed that the financial situation of the patients who experienced an accident has significant impact on the occurrence of PTSD (Chi-square: 12, 14, $df = 2p = 0,0023$). Respondents with average socio-economic status significantly more likely than those with low and high socio-economic status, develop stress disorders after an accident ($p = 0,0005$, $p = 0,026$). The emergence of posttraumatic stress disorder is also significantly associated with the degree of the injury acquired in the accident (Chi-square: 11,83 $df = 1$, $p = 0,00058$).

According to research, older people and co-drivers are more like to have memory problems about the accident, than the other participants in the accident.

Conclusion

The study answered the main purpose or confirmed the occurrence of posttraumatic stress disorder in patients who survived an accident. It confirmed that age and level of education significantly affect posttraumatic disorder. The severity of the damage occurred after an accident is significantly associated with the level of PTSD. PTSD significantly more frequently occurs after an accident with a mild degree of injury. Also, there is a significant difference of more frequent occurrence of PTSD at co-drivers compared with the passengers sitting in the back seats of the vehicle during the accident.

