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THE RISE OF INTERNET OF THING AND
THE RISK OF THREATS
Social Marketing, Some Recommendations from Albania

Abstract

Following developments in the Albanian media allows us to raise some issues or make some observations on this form of marketing, which has been proved that is very important field.

Social Marketing is an approach to development, which applies modern marketing techniques for humanitarian purposes. From our research it appears that our country still has such little awareness campaigns, although social problems grow every day. In recent years there are increased efforts of several organizations, mostly non-profit, such as family planning issues, environmental protection, as well as banning the use of drugs by young people.

In this situation the question we raise is: Does this effect marketing method in our country? Does it improve the lives of our citizens? Did the media properly carried out its role in this form of marketing?

To answer I tried to analyze cases of campaigns that have been undertaken to see their concrete effect.

Keywords: Social Marketing, Albania

Introduction

The society’s awareness on the negative effects of many phenomena remains a difficult issue for the reality of our country. The lack of attention or sensitivity to negative phenomena, the use of incorrect forms of marketing of these issues or non-involvement of the public in flagrant cases that damage our life, makes more difficult the spread of this form of marketing.

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Today we live in a world of rapid developments, dangerous and often feel vulnerable and threatened. Destruction of forests, greenhouse effect that brings global warming, diseases of the century and many other sensitive issues are at the core of the existence of social marketing, which interferes and tries to at least minimize the damage that bring these negative phenomena in human society. Social marketing helps mankind to keep informed about the risks posed by an act without thinking and consequences.

Media in its entirety serves as an impact of this form of marketing. The last two decades our country has known a rapid development of the media in all its forms. This would actually have been a good signal for social marketing, but it seems that it is dominated by commercial marketing.

*What is Social Marketing?*

Social Marketing as a discipline was born around 1970, when Kotler and realized that the same marketing principles that are used to sell products to customers can be used to “sell” ideas, behavior and attitudes. Kotler defines social marketing as a form of marketing that is different from common marketing concept, only the objective of the marketer and his organization. Social marketing seeks to influence social behavior, not for the benefit of the marketer, but in order to benefit the target audience and the whole society. This technique is widely used in international health programs, mainly for family planning issues, and mainly found more widespread use in the US on issues such as drug abuse, heart disease and organ donations.

*4 P’s of social marketing*

Even in social marketing focus is the customer, so understanding what people want and need, rather than attracting people to purchase products produced in advance. It is said that social marketing “talks with the customer.” The planning process takes into account the customer, addressing the elements of the marketing mix. This refers to decisions 1) Product Concept 2) Price, 3) Distribution (Place), and 4) Promotion. These are often referred to as the four “P” of marketing. Social marketing also adds some “P” other marketing.

*Product*

Social marketing product is not necessarily a physical offering. There is a continuum of products, from tangible products, which are the physical products to services. In order to have a sustainable product, people must first understand that they have a problem, and that the product offering is a good solution for this problem. Search role here is to explore the perceptions of consumers about the problems they have and to determine how important it is that they take action to solve these problems.
Price

“Price” refers to what the customer needs to do in order to obtain the social marketing product. This cost may be monetary, or may require the customer to give up some invisible elements like time. If the benefits are perceived as greater than their cost, the chances of approval for the product are much larger.

In determining the price, especially for a physical product, such as contraceptives, there are many issues which are taken into consideration. If the product is priced too low or provided free of charge, the consumer may perceive it as poor quality. On the other hand, if the price is too high, some may not be able to afford it. Social marketers must balance these considerations, and frequently result in a fee increase perceptions of quality and give a sense of “dignity” of the transaction. These perceptions of costs and benefits can be determined through research and used in product positioning.

Place

“Place” describes how the product reaches the consumer. For a tangible product, this refers to the distribution system. For an intangible product, the place is less clear, but refers to decisions about the channels through which consumers are informed or trained. This may include “doctors’ offices, shopping centers or home demonstrations.

Promotion

The last “P” is promotion. Because of its visibility, this element is wrongly thought that constitutes almost all social marketing. However, as can be seen from previous discussions, this is only a part of it. Social marketing is the promotion of the integrated use of advertising, public relations, personal selling and entertainment vehicles. The focus is the creation and maintenance of demand for the product. Research is crucial to determine the most effective and efficient means to reach the target audience and increase demand.

Extra “Ps” of Social Marketing

Public - Social Marketers often have different audiences and their programs must be addressed well in order to be more effective. “The public” refers to groups of foreign and domestic included in the program. Foreign public includes the target audience, secondary audiences, policymakers, while domestic audience includes those involved in the adoption or implementation of the program.

Partnership - social and health issues are often so complex that a single agency can not make a dent in itself. You should all come together in a community to be truly effective.

Politics - Social Marketers sometimes do a good job in changing individual behavior, but it is often difficult if the environment does not support. Often, change is necessary and various programs in the media can be a complement to
social marketing.

Money - Most organizations that develop social marketing programs operate through funds provided by sources such as foundations, government grants or donations. This adds another dimension to the development strategy, therefore, where to get the money to create your own program?

**The role of media in the development of social marketing**

Despite the developments of information technology and the extensive use that has taken recently, still we remain a country that prefer television, which means that this channel of communication remains the due one for cases of sensitization to negative phenomena. From our research I note that no similar studies about this phenomenon even though cases of the use of social marketing have not been scarce. Below we analyze some of the most important cases listed in the Albanian media.

**Awareness of drivers motoring**

As part of awareness campaigns to prevent accidents, undertaken by various stakeholders, Albanian media in general has expressed its readiness to help somehow our awareness of the population. Very active in this mission have been the Ministry of Transport, Ministry of Interior, the Albanian Red Cross and forums set up for this mission. The aim of these campaigns is to sensitize the public on the risks of major accidents on the roads, fatal consequences for life and health.

Implementation of this mission is based on the use of social marketing, which applies to recall promotions for seat belt placement as a way to save lives. But despite increased efforts by the statistical data shows that the number of accidents on the road only has increased and this phenomenon continues to be of concern for our country.

**Awareness of environmental protection**

Not a few have been campaigns on environmental protection undertaken by various interest groups. It is worth mentioning campaigns to maintain a clean environment for the protection of forests from massive damage to conservation of river beds from sedimentation, cleaning of beaches, etc.

We can say with certainty that the media in this regard has made efforts to improve the situation, but for some reason which will be reflected in the conclusions, our environment still remains threatened by ourselves.

Another case of successful use of Social Marketing remains the case of “chemical weapons” and through TV and radio spots was achieved massive sensitization and because of strong reaction was prevented this process with consequences for health and the environment.


**Awareness of family planning**

Numerous campaigns undertaken mainly by humanitarian organizations were supported by Albanian media in the context of family planning. Informing by multiple campaigns through mass media means convey messages useful for improving the quality of life in our country.

From the analysis of the statistics shows that in this case, social marketing has served many humanitarian mission has given positive effects required.

**Awareness of the damages from the drugs**

Use of drugs emerged as a concern on youth after ‘90 and as such was very much an argument for raising initiatives, which were intended primarily to inform about the catastrophic consequences of the use of such substances. Many forms of social marketing were used to raise awareness of young people for their failure to recognize and inform parents with addictions that create symptoms and narcotics. In addition to promotional-type “drugs kill” was launched and training programs in schools to educate generations about this phenomenon. In a retrospective look it appears to be sufficient for ending these cases.

**Awareness turnout**

This case is to make the residents to meet one of their rights such as the expression of their will through the ballot. But it was also observed from the last election, such campaigns are not producing the required results even though policymakers are satisfied with the few although the percentage point increase in voting participation.

The cases discussed above are more specific and problematic, but not the only ones. Social marketing is part of our media programming, whether appropriately or not and regardless, if they bring the required reaction or not.

The aim is that this form of marketing to serve as a tool to improve our daily life. However I continue to think it is not well known as social marketing concept, even not applied properly.

In a poll conducted by me in connection with the recognition or not social marketing in one of the channels most used social communication, facebook, I notice that not few are those who have no knowledge of this branch of marketing to benefit directly the social welfare.

Results of the survey are as follows:

The analysis of this simple observation to note with concern that a not insignificant percentage do not know though social marketing communication using social networking sites and can often become part of cases of application of social marketigut through these networks.
Conclusions

Until not it is discussed too much about commercial marketing, the importance of international marketing, etc., but we handle very little social marketing. Social marketing is a very broad field of world marketing giant.

• the social problems that today are the topics debated by all of us as environmental protection, AIDS, placing the seat belt and many others that are problems that a good marketing can be prevented and to avoid more damage.

• forms or uses social marketing strategies to sensitize the target audience to change behavior or improve it are numerous.

• form faster to inform a wider audience extent are social media as well as electronic ones. Social media are more accessible to all age groups of society. But the electronic media have a great impact and immediate, but in contrast to social media where the audience can become part of a discussion on electronic media audiences can only receive information without giving her opinion.

• social marketing is not widely recognized or not appropriately applied.

• the impact of the use of media to market for humanitarian purposes has not often been the right one. Apparently it is not applied properly and appropriately.

Recommendations

Some of our recommendations have been given during the writing of the article, which are summarized as follows:

• It is little known about social marketing and we recommend to apply it starting with the inclusion in the curriculum of business schools on social marketing content.

• The media should be more addicted to social responsibility and to serve the seriousness of their country’s population in necessary cases.

• Media should raise their voices to the negative phenomena that undermine social welfare, health and life of ours.

• Priority should be given proper social marketing versus commercial.
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Azem HYSA¹
Marsida KLEMO²

INVESTIGATION OF MANIFOLDS IN THE CR3BP

Abstract

Many of the problems facing physicists and applied mathematicians involve difficulties as nonlinear governing equations, variable coefficients, and nonlinear boundary conditions at complex known or unknown boundaries that preclude solving them exactly. Manifolds and optimal control were used to better understand trajectories in the circular restricted three-body problem. Equations of this problem were used to generate two-dimensional and three-dimensional stable and unstable invariant manifolds.

The instability of periodic orbits and similar periodic solutions can be exploited to analyze paths to and from every point on a given orbit. This work presents a systematic method for the designin of impulsive low-energy transfers between the Earth and the Moon by the explicit using invariant manifold theory. Invariant manifolds are tube-like structures along which a spacecraft may travel using no energy and this techniques usually only provied trajectories for uncontrolled spacecraft.

The numerical integration requires an initial position and velocity so that it can generate a trajectory over a specified time interval. A zero initial velocity is required to find the stable manifold to travel to a Lagrange point. The stable manifold can be propagated forward and backward in time so that a spacecraft is able to travel to and from a Lagrange point on the manifold. Finally, this paper discusses the tools used to generate the trajectories in this work. In this study all units of physical quantities are non-dimensional form and the results are plotted using numerical methods in MATLAB.

Keywords: Invariant manifold, nondimensional, low-energy transfer trajectories.

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1. Introduction

Humans have not traveled to the moon since 1972, and that is the farthest we have travelled. If this mission develops, it will be the farthest humans have traveled in the solar system. This would encourage practical technology development, for creating the longest manned mission would introduce many constraints, but also could provide many answers. This would be a critical stepping stone in developing technology for manned missions to other planets, such as Mars. It could also provide valuable scientific information about the far side of the moon, and humans could deploy instruments or control a rover.

In 2000, Koon et al., constructed a planar lunar transfer that was almost entirely ballistic using the techniques involved in Conley’s method. Following (Conley, Koon et al. 2000) observed that the planar libration orbits act as a gateway between the interior and exterior regions of space about the constructed a trajectory that targets the interior of the stable invariant manifold of a planar libration orbit about the Earth–Moon L\(_2\) point. Once inside the interior of the stable manifold, the spacecraft ballistically arrives at a temporarily captured orbit about the Moon. Many authors have debated what it means to be temporarily captured at the Moon; Koon et al., define a similar term, “ballistically captured” to be a trajectory that comes within the sphere of influence of the Moon and revolves about the Moon at least once. There is much literature on invariant manifolds and connecting orbits in the CR3BP; see for example Gómez et al. (2004); Koon et al. (2008); Lo and Ross (1997); Davis et al. (2010, 2011); Tantardini et al. (2010).

Further advances have been made since 2004 to apply dynamical systems theory to the generation of three-dimensional low-energy lunar transfers. Parker mapped out numerous families of low-energy transfers, illuminating different geometries that are available for spacecraft to travel to the Moon and arrive in lunar libration orbits without requiring any capture maneuver. Several authors have begun applying low-thrust techniques to further improve low-energy transfers, including transfers from the Earth to the Moon and transfers from one libration orbit to another. In 60 years, research has advanced the knowledge of lunar transfers from the early spacecraft missions that implemented direct lunar transfers to modern analyses that reveal maps of entire families of low-energy transfers to the Moon. The Earth-Moon Lagrange point on the back side of the moon, commonly known as L\(_2\), has been of recent interest in the space community, specifically for a human mission. The L\(_2\) point is a point of neural gravity from the gravity fields of the Earth and the Moon and located on the far
side of the moon. A human mission to the Earth-Moon Lagrange point, $L_2$, has recently been a point of interest. This topic was discussed most recently at the International Astronautical Congress (IAC) in Naples in October 2012 by space agencies such as NASA and Boeing.

2. Methodology and Invariant Manifolds

This section introduces the methodology used in the analysis and construction of invariant manifolds. The paper begins by simply defining the physical constants used in these analyses, including the masses and radii of the Earth, the Moon, and the small particle in the Earth-Moon system. It then defines the time systems used, coordinate frames, and models, including the circular restricted three-body problem. This problem describes a dynamical model that is used to characterize the motion of a small particle, in the presence of two massive bodies. The model assumes the two massive bodies orbit their barycenter in circular orbits. Coordinate systems include a reference frame and an origin, and are often rotating or translating relative to other bodies. A coordinate system is inertial only when it is not accelerating. When referencing motion in the Solar System, the only truly “inertial” coordinate system is one that is not rotating and centered at the Solar System barycenter. Strictly speaking, no Earth-centered coordinate system can be inertial, even one that is not rotating, since the Earth is accelerating in its orbit as it revolves about the Sun. Although it is inaccurate, coordinate systems may be referred to in this paper as “inertial” when they are merely nonrotating.

In order to generate a manifold for this problem, the two or three-dimensional nonlinear equations of motion were numerically integrated. The state-space representation of the equation of motion was programmed into MATLAB. The set of four or six, first order, nonlinear equations were numerically integrated using the Runge-Kutta method.

Especially, all asymptotic orbits, which are asymptotic to the periodic orbit, form a tube which is called invariant manifold, can present lots of advantageous of mission design. Invariant manifold is also a boundary that separates the transit and non-transit tubes. Transit orbits are always in invariant manifold tube and can pass to one region to another. Invariant manifold are depending on periodic orbits around equilibrium points, and they can be computed thanks to them. But there are various periodic and quasi periodic around there, so which Asymptotic orbits relate which periodic orbits? This is very easy, while in Planar-CR3BP there is only one unique periodic orbit around unstable equilibrium point in each specific energy. So that Asymptotic orbits and so invariant manifold must be
related with this periodic orbit. But in three-dimensional space, there are more than one periodic orbits in each specific energy, and all these periodic and quasi-periodic orbits have their own asymptotic orbits and so invariant manifold. But in practically, three-dimensional-invariant manifold is computed with using either three-dimensional Periodic orbits, for easiness. In addition, a transit orbit seems out side of the manifold tubes while in three-dimensional space, this means that this transit orbits actually in another invariant manifold of another periodic orbits.

These orbits are important for equilibrium point mission and capture transfer missions. They provide a way to get periodic to planet or moon, also capture trajectories are always inside the manifold tubes, and their intersection on Poincare surface of section provides optimum jumping point from one manifold to another. These orbits are used for ‘Low Energy Transfer’; they can be reduced mission cost, and have great potential for any flexible and rescue missions. Same as periodic orbits, there are two main way to compute these orbits, numeric method and LP method for analytic approach. Other efficient methods for computing invariant manifolds include semi-analytical approximations (Jorba et al. 1999; Alessi et al. 2009; G´omez and Mondelo 2001). The latter methods are very precise in a neighborhood of the center of expansion, and rely on other methods to extend the manifolds outside these neighborhoods (G´omez et al. 2001). Invariant manifold techniques around libration points have been used successfully in mission design (Lo et al. 2004). The Genesis spacecraft mission, designed to collect samples of solar wind and return them to the Earth (Lo et al. 2001), is often considered as the first mission to use invariant manifolds for its planning, while other missions have used libration point techniques (Dunham and Farquhar 2003). Having a precise idea of the geometry of invariant manifolds and their connections is desirable in the design of complex low thrust missions.

3. Results

To generate trajectories that meet a variety of mission constraints, tools that provide insight into the available solution space are essential. The Poincare map is a powerful tool that, in combination with a constraint on the energy level, allows a reduction in dimension such that, for the planar problem, the system is reduced into two-dimensions and the phase space is fully represented by the projection onto a plane.

We compute the intersection of the unstable manifold $M_{U_{L1}}$ from $L_1$ and
the stable manifold $M_{L2}^S$ from $L_2$ with the space $\Sigma_1$. Of course, we can do the symmetric counterpart: stable manifold $M_{L1}^S$ from $L_1$ and unstable manifold $M_{L2}^U$ from $L_2$ with the space $\Sigma_2$ (see Figure 1, A.Hysa, M. Klemo 2017).

Figure 1 shows 4 manifolds in the “neck” region in the Earth-Moon system, two periodic orbits around fixed points and the location of the Poincare sections. Unstable $M_{L1}^U$ and stable $M_{L2}^S$ manifolds respectively from $L_1$ and $L_2$ stopping at the plane $\Sigma_1$. Stable $M_{L1}^S$ and unstable $M_{L2}^U$ manifolds stopping at the plane $\Sigma_2$.

Fig.1. Stable (green) and unstable (red) manifolds associated with $L_1$ and $L_2$ periodic orbits (blue), respectively. The location of the Poincare sections $\Sigma_1$ (yellow) and $\Sigma_2$ (purple) are also shown.
The stable and unstable manifolds for a symmetric orbit are themselves symmetric about the $x$ axis. This is because the two experience equal and opposite rotation rates: counterclockwise for forward time (unstable) and clockwise for backward time (stable). Note that only one manifold exists for a certain direction of time. In other words, stable perturbations while moving forward in time do not create a stable manifold. They will simply damp out quickly, leaving no change. The same is true of unstable perturbations backward in time. If a particle is randomly perturbed while on the orbit, the particle will fall off of the orbit at an exponential rate. In Hamiltonian systems, not only are there asymptotic orbits departing from the unstable orbits, there are also asymptotic orbits approaching the unstable orbits.
Figure 3. The unstable invariant manifolds for an orbit about L₂ point of the rotating Earth-Moon system.

Figure 4. Three-dimensional invariant manifold of L₁ and L₂. Green trajectories are stable manifold of outside, red trajectories are unstable manifold of outside, blue trajectories are stable manifold of inside, and purple trajectories are unstable manifold of inside.
The set of all trajectories that asymptotically depart from the unstable orbit is known as the orbit’s unstable invariant manifold; the set of all trajectories that asymptotically arrive onto the unstable orbit is likewise known as the orbit’s stable invariant manifold. Figure 2 show the stable invariant manifold for a typical periodic orbit about the Earth-Moon L₂ point and Figure 3 show the unstable invariant manifold. The manifolds are very similar for orbits about the L₁ point. One can see the underlying tubular structure in the manifolds. As the manifolds approach one of the primaries, this structure begins to break down due to the large divergent behavior near the primaries.

Mission designers may use these invariant manifolds to model the motion of spacecraft in their vicinity. If a mission’s objective is to transfer onto an unstable periodic orbit, then the spacecraft need only target that orbit’s stable manifold in order to insert into that orbit. Although missions such as ISEE3 and Hiten were not designed using invariant manifolds explicitly, the underlying dynamics may be understood using invariant manifold theory. The advantage of the dynamical systems approach is the ability to compute and visualize global families of low-energy transfer trajectories, giving mission designers a priori knowledge of the underlying dynamics in the libration orbit regime.

In Figure 4, hot color orbits (red and pink) are unstable manifold of equilibrium points which are departure from equilibrium point, and cool color orbits (green and blue) are stable orbits of equilibrium points which are arrival to equilibrium point.

Figure 5. Unstable invariant manifold of L₁
In Figure 5, a wild unstable invariant manifold of L₁ is shown, which might be actually any invariant manifold of any equilibrium point. As explained in methods and invariant manifolds section, an invariant manifold is obtained by disturbing a periodic orbit around L₁: the initial conditions of each trajectory that forms the tube is obtained by making a tiny disturbance to a periodic orbit, at a particular phase. So the periodic orbit is subdivided into a series of discrete points and each point is denoted by a trajectory number which is also called “manifold number” in this paper for easiness. This will compose one strand of the invariant manifold.

4. Conclusions

The instability of periodic orbits and similar periodic solutions can be exploited to analyze paths to and from every point on a given orbit. While there are infinitely many of these paths, they all belong to a well-defined set called a manifold. Figure 2 shows two manifolds in the Earth-Moon system. The first, in green, is the stable manifold. This is the set of trajectories moving forward in time that asymptotically approach the periodic orbit. In contrast, the second plot in red depicts the unstable manifold, which departs the periodic orbit over time.

This paper has demonstrated how invariant manifold theory may be used to construct and understand three-dimensional ballistic lunar transfers. A spacecraft on such a transfer could remain on the periodic orbit, freely transfer to another libration orbit, freely transfer to a temporarily captured orbit about the Moon, or perform another maneuver to inject into any lunar orbit. The transfer implements three-dimensional libration orbits as staging orbits in the Earth-Moon three-body systems. Other orbits could be used to produce similar results. The advantages of the three-dimensional approach, compared with the two-dimensional work produced by Koon et al., include access to inclined lunar orbits, the option to use inclined Low-Earth-Orbit parking orbits, access to other regions of space in the Earth’s neighborhood, and better communication geometry. The Shoot the Moon transfer requires less energy than conventional Hofmann transfers, but requires a much longer transfer time. Such low-energy transfers are useful for cargo transport and robotic missions to lunar orbits or to the surface of the Moon.

The approach used in this paper is robust enough to identify families of ballistic lunar transfers, including transfers that use other types of unstable orbits as staging orbits. These families will be explored and presented in future papers. Further analysis of the structure of the invariant manifolds of three-dimensional orbits in the spatial CR3BP may provide additional understanding of these lunar transfers, which may present alternative approaches for the construction and
analysis of ballistic lunar transfers. The methods presented by Gómez et al. 2004, for example, may offer such an alternative.

5. Acknowledgements

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Abstract

Public services play a key role in developing a country as well as in democratic stability in emerging societies. To realize this important mission, public services should be guided by principles of efficiency, effectiveness to fulfill the condition of general interest and general economic interest as well as promoted by the EU. At the same time, democracy orientes us towards a system governed by the principles of individual and groups competition, high inclusion of participatory politics in the selection of leaders and fair choice policies, press freedom, promotion of participation etc. As we mentioned above, it seems that the principles of democracy conflict with those of public services. The main purpose of this paper is to reflect and analyze the way how public services operate in democracy, how it affects the social development of a country, and what is the role of a public servant or public administrator in this case. The paper analyzes the democratic role of interest groups in improving government policies in order to implement reforms and increase the efficiency of the rule of law in Albania. The aims of the paper will be realized between the theoretical synthesis of literature, legislation and reports.

Keywords: Democracy, public service, public servants, competition.

1. Introduction

The main role of the modern state in a democratic and free trade based economy is to provide fair and equal conditions and standards for both the daily lives of individuals and the individual economic activity and the legal entities. The basic mechanism the state uses for this is the law. The passage and strengthening of parliamentary acts, delegated legislation, monitoring their effects and providing a correction mechanism are an important goal for

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“The Economist” recently raises the question of “what is happening to democracy?”, The paper goes on to argue that democracy is powerful but is an imperfect mechanism that needs to be carefully designed in order to protect human creativity and which needs to be properly regulated constructive and systematic. A vision for a model of a new public government not to be seen as an innovation of technocratic methods; it is about solving problems in a collaborative way as a means of reimagining our democracy. It is necessary to minimize the negotiated model that has been inherited, which tends to limit the influence spectrum of those with money or interest groups and has eroded trust in the state as a force of good. Democracy should be enriched with processes that broaden our horizons in terms of what sort of solutions can be effective, and which open up to the decision space before it closes again. As European institutions are reviving this year, the hope is that young leaders will be humble enough to understand that neither they nor their staff have all the solutions. Meanwhile, they should be courageous enough to overturn their organizations by commissioning the contributions of our entire continent and across, to find out what the next Europe may look like. The strategic importance of public services in policy formulation and implementation can not be overlooked. In emerging societies, particularly in the post-independent era, public service has a very important role to play in development. In fact, Ejifor (2003) states that public services in developing societies are all and the most important development catalyst is an efficient service while at the same time ineffective to constituting the most important foundation stone of a country. Public service is constantly the active part of the government’s business, interested in law enforcement as it is done by legislative bodies in the organization and management process. In this perspective, the impact of public services is not controversial, it remains the greatest force in today’s governance. The public service contains human relationships and the spread of associations by the influence of government officers from less paid and powerless individuals charged with all natural and human resources and all other aspects of the life of society for which it is interested the government. In essence, public services are the totality of how progress and development take place in a society.

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Consultancy on Public Services

Since 1980 public services have been challenged by neoliberal views on the economy and the role of the state. On the other hand, the effort to integrate European economies has questioned the purpose of these services. In an era when the facts are uncertain, controversial values, the presence of high action and the urgency of decisions, the public sector’s capacity to present innovative solutions will be decisive. Remodeling the public sector to address the complexity and linkage of challenges should also include a license to innovate. Innovation as a matter of principle should be expected. Public servants need a secure space of innovation and a well-known formal right of what looks old or ineffective. To respond timely and effectively, such dynamism of challenges should go beyond the divisions of the public, social, and social sector. A model of innovative sustainable cooperation as a cause of profitability and an increased social impact is the co-creation model. While it may seem obvious from an intellectual point of view, this model requires new forms of cooperation and cultural change. Such a thing should be emphasized even when a party does not have the same culture as another, it is still possible to develop the most intelligent and least costly solution, jointly contributing a joint force to a partnership. Although the world is changing rapidly and social challenges are becoming increasingly complex, the co-operation model is making it possible to converge between the public and private sectors by creating an idle platform for the government to redefine its role and become more efficient while defending the general good.

The public sector of the public and the broader spectrum of public institutions funded by public funds is an important part of the European economy, representing almost a quarter of employment and half of the gross domestic product. The public sector has long been concerned with stability, but the financial crisis has been a tough teacher for the European Union, making it clear that stability may be an illusion. A challenge of budget cuts and looming social challenges such as aging, climate change and youth unemployment, there is now an urgent need for the changing public sector. Innovation, which is about bringing fresh ideas back to economic and social value, can provide the public sector with a practical way forward. Public administrations in Europe are facing

a number of significant challenging changes. Demographic changes are leading to a decline in the population and skilled shortages of workers, including in the public sector. At the same time, government tasks are becoming increasingly complex and citizens are making greater demands on the quality of public sector services. The only Gordian knot can only be solved through innovation that allows the public administration to provide higher quality services more efficiently. In this context, many promoted in solving many problems related to public administration and public services is the digitalization of public services11.

What has been said above is reflected in a summarized way over the years regarding the governance and reform of public management, whose product is public services. Thus, the various approaches to this process have mainly led to four main waves. It can be seen in the chart in the first wave primarily decision-making came as a result of a good and hierarchical planning process, balancing the costs and benefits. Later the public management process refers to new technicalities for increasing efficiency and efficiency. In the new wave there is no fixed concept that can be referred to, but all inclusive governance, partnership, transparency and trust are prudence that accompanies public management in the way of providing public services. From 2010 until now, it promotes and stimulates the participation and participation of democracy at all stages of the process, open data, coping with online programming and online application are widely used practices.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Period</th>
<th>Dominant discourse characteristics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mid-1960s to late 1970s</td>
<td>Rational, hierarchical planning and cost-benefit analysis. Science and expertise will produce progress.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Late 1970s to late 1990s</td>
<td>New public management. Business techniques to improve efficiency. Rise of “better management” as the solution to a wide range of problems.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Late 1990s – 2010</td>
<td>No dominant model. Several key concepts, including governance, networks, partnerships, “joining up,” transparency and trust.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010 –</td>
<td>Participatory democracy making open data the default for government information and communication technology systems and embracing the use of web application programming interfaces.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Pollitt and Bouckaert (2011) – complemented with a fourth wave of “participatory democracy” added by the authors

How Can We Reconcile Democracy and the New Public Service?

The first goal was to make a picture about the challenges facing our democracy and the new public service. Framing the challenges we face leads naturally to the next question: How do we reconcile democracy with the new public service? First, how do we benchmark democracy? Lincoln found the

idea that democracy is “of the people, by the people, and for the people” quite adequate. But let me be more explicit about four criteria associated with a working definition of democracy\(^\text{12}\). They are:

- **Accountability**: How accountable to citizens are agents of the state in the new public service?
- **Representativeness**: How representative (passive and active) is the new public service, that is, how likely is it that the attitudes and behavioral orientations of the new public service will mirror the general public?
- **Citizen protection**: What does the new public service do to citizens as either clients or stakeholders?
- **Citizen agency**: What can citizens do to change structures or outcomes of the new public service with which they are dissatisfied? Regarding these issues are discussed the four reforms below that could make a difference in our ability to achieve the promise implied by the four criteria associated with our democracy. Professional changes are needed to enhance accountability and citizen protection. Institutional reforms to enhance popular participation could improve citizen agency. Reforming public service wage structures would strengthen representativeness and further support accountability. Finally, renewing civic education is needed to address threats to citizen protection and citizen agency.

**Professional Change First**, is needed to find ways to recapture what Steven Brint (1994)\(^\text{13}\), a sociologist, refers to as “social trustee professionalism,” where professionals are aware of and attentive to their social contract with the larger society. Brint concludes that a key historical change in professions has been a transition from what he calls social trustee professionalism to expert professionalism. William Sullivan (2004\(^\text{14}\)), coauthor of both Habits of the Heart and The Good Society, draws on Brint’s analysis, concluding that the key transformation associated with the transition in professionalism is the loss of “the ethical-social values of professional identity”. Reform may be extraordinarily difficult, but it is a worthy aspiration. It is an aspiration around which policy makers, professional associations, professionals, and educators may be able to find common ground.

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\(^{12}\) Frederick C. Mosher, Democracy and the Public Service by Published March 11th 1982 by Oxford University Press, USA

\(^{13}\) Steven Brint IN AN AGE OF EXPERTS The Changing Role of Professionals in Politics and Public Life By Princeton University Press, 1994

Conclusions

Public services are an area that is still unclear clearly in the context of democratic regimes. Starting from definitions or definitions for public services to their interest and the way they are delivered. The current division of public services according to European democracy can have their overlaps as well, and does not share the access of their bids from the public or private sector. Regarding our public service situation, we can say that there is currently a sufficient range of public services that can benefit the public, but many of them are organized in such a way as to be easily understandable and usable from him. Spending a lot of time in getting the service and this process is characterized by bureaucracy, so often can be encountered corrupt acts.

In the philosophy of public administration work should be the simplification of service provision and citizen life, thus taking on a friendly approach to it. To achieve this, the practices between which the public administrator’s performance is managed should be more flexible in order to reflect this mode of public service delivery. The adoption of the Law on the Status of Civil Servants in 2013\(^\text{15}\) is a very important step that proves the beginning of a new era in the public sector, but it is very important that this law be properly translated and reflected in the statutes, regulations or administrative culture of public organizations so that they do not lose its added value under the previous law and can be used efficiently to improve the performance of the public administrator.

In the philosophy of the functioning of the governing leadership should be public interest, public good, although in dealing with the latter there are many approaches sometimes conflicting with each other. Thus, public opinion is only public good, and according to some theoretical considerations, everything in the public interest that pays irekt or indirectly, despite the massiveness is good public.

One solution to the problems created for our democracies by the new public service are, for the most part, not peculiar to the new public service but extend beyond this arena. The sources of tensions between democracy and new public service are exogenous to the new public service. Thus, any effort to bring democracy into better balance with the new public service will require fundamental transformations in social institutions, not just the public service as we have come to know it. In general, the new public service will require us to return to the “who governs” question and inquire about who is now in charge and what it means for our democracy.

\(^{15}\) Ligji LIGJ Nr. 152/2013 PËR NËPUNËSIN CIVIL
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HOMICIDES WITHIN FAMILY, AS A SERIOUS CRIME THREATENING OUR FAMILIES, IN THE EYES OF YOUNG PEOPLE TODAY

Abstract

The long lasting transition period of the albanian society has affected all social institutions, facing them with a wide range of new-old social phenomena. Family, as one of the most important social institutions, nowadays, is being faced with a wide range of social issues, domestic violence as one of the most concerning between them. Figures show that there is a daunting rise in domestic violence cases from year to year. In this paper, our main focus relies on homicide crimes within family, as the most frightening end of domestic violence. The purpose of this paper is to explore young people’s thoughts on this concerning issue that is happening within our families. How do young people see this phenomenon? What could be, according to them, the causes that lead someone to the point of taking away a family member’s life? Why are women the main victims of such horrible crimes?

To explore young people thoughts on this matter, 30 semi-structured interviews with students of the Faculty of Education, Aleksander Moisiu University, Durrës and Social Sciences Faculty, Tirana University, were conducted. From the interviews, it results that the main factors that contribute to the increase of homicide crimes within families are considered: Increased difficulties and uncertainties in coping with everydaylife; Lack of protective and punitive force of the law; Families no longer have the sanctity and the role it has had in the past; It seems that all family members are endangered by this crime, although figures indicate that women (in particular) are more at risk. Patriarchal mentality is thought to be one of the major factors contributing to this fact. From the interview results it turns out that: jealousy is the main cause that can spur a man to kill his wife, in the other hand, violence against her or her children can

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spur a wife to kill her husband. On the other hand, if a parent kills his child, he should be suffering from a mental problem.

**Key Words:** Homicide, Family, Youth, Perceptions, Gender Issues, Albanian Society;

1. Introduction

When we think about our family and what it means to us, warmth, support and love, seem to be the first things to come to our mind. Family is one of the most important social institutions from which the continuity of society is ensured. Inside families children come to life, they get raised and educated, they become adults, create their own families, and so on. Family is the place where each of us seeks to find security, support and protection, comfort and love. Despite the fact that a number of social and economical issues have accompanied the albaniand families nowadays, it seems that bigger concerning phenomena are occurring within them. Life is being taken off with violence in the place where life is born.

The long transition period of the albanian society has affected all social institutions, facing them with a number of new and difficult phenomena. Thus, in the whirl of these challenges, family seems to have lost “tranquility” and is threatened not only by traditional factors such as death, illness, disaster, poverty, etc., but also by “non-traditional” deviant behaviors, all-round conflicts, violence, alcoholism, abusive use of drugs, etc., (Avokati ë Popullit, 2012: 6).

Among these issues, domestic violence is among the worst concerns for the albanian families. Figures show that there is a daunting rise in domestic violence cases from year to year. Data show that the number of domestic violence victims has reached 4121 people in 2014 (out of which 3090 are women) (INSTAT, 2015: 47, INSTAT, 2014: 9-10, Data Centrum, 2012: 14). Also according to the Annual statistics by INSTAT, the number of domestic violence victims is raising up each year. In 2012 there are 2526 reported victims of domestic violence, and in 2016 are reported to be 3700 victims of domestic violence (INSTAT, 2017: 21).

Domestic violence against women is not a new phenomenon in Albania. This social phenomenon has deep roots into the patriarchal traditions and customs, that have long shaped the albanian society (INSTAT and UNDP, 2013: 9).

However, studies show that its important to be noted that domestic violence often occurs behind closed doors and is not widely discussed, accepted or dealt within the albanian society. Victims generally suffer in silence. Albanians tend to consider domestic violence as a private, family affair, and as a normal part of marital and family life. Consequently, various studies estimate that there are several factors that may influence low reporting of domestic violence, such as
shame, fear of punishment, cultural norms, stereotypes that exist for domestic violence, etc., (Data Centrum, 2012: 14-15).

In this paper, our main focus relies on homicide crimes within family, as the most frightening end of domestic violence. The evidence show that homicide cases within family have increased in recent years. According to the General Prosecution’s report, during 2013 there were 47 homicide cases within family that account for 10% of the total of crimes investigated this year\textsuperscript{2}. A non-negligible percentage! Written and visual media fills pages of newspapers and TV shows with bombastic news like, parents violate children, child violates parent, mother kills children, spouse kills wife, and other frightening events like these. You can easily find in TV-news, newspapers and other media channels terrifying homicidal cases.

Only with a random search we found frightening homicide cases as:

- August 24, 2017 - In Pogradec, the 49 year old man kills his wife\textsuperscript{3}.
- October 23, 2017 – In Kavaja, husband kills his wife\textsuperscript{4}.
- February 22, 2015 - In Gjirokastra, the wife (62 years old) kills her husband (66 years old) with a knife after a conflict;
- March 10, 2015 - In Tirana, husband (32 years old) kills his wife (28 years old) mother-in-law (65 years old);
- March 16, 2015 - In Lushnje, the mother (71 years old) slayed the boy (40 years old);
- April 1, 2015 - In Gramsh, husband suffocates his wife (35 years old);
- April 3, 2015 - In Tirana, uncle (62 years old) kills his grandson (36 years old), and then himself, allegedly being drunk when he committed the crime; \textsuperscript{5}

The purpose of this paper is to explore young people’s thoughts on this worrying issue that is happening within our families. How do they see this phenomenon? What could be, according to them, the causes that lead someone to the point of taking away a family member’s life? Why are women the main victims of such horrible crimes?

For the purposes of this study firstly we need to specify who we gonna consider as youth.

From reviewing the literature it turns out that the definitions on young

\textsuperscript{3} http://www.standard.al/2017/09/24/detajet-krimi-brenda-familjes-ne-pogradec-banoret-tregojne-si-ndodhi-vrasja/
\textsuperscript{5} http://koha.net/?id=27&l=5177
people are many, depending on the criterion taken into consideration by the researchers. Thus, in some cases, “youth” is treated as a mental state, at other times as a legal definition, somewhere treated as a stage of age development, and somewhere as a cultural phenomenon of a particular society (Delgado, M., and Staples, L., 2008: 16; Mortimer, JT, and Shanahan, M., 2003: 215).

Given that the social, economic, and cultural conditions in which young people are formed are specific to any society, it seems that the age criterion is considered as a criterion that connects all societies. However, it must be kept in mind that age as a criterion differs from one society to another depending on the above factors. Although this criterion has changed at various stages of the development of society, in many countries, age 18 is defined as the age at which the youth begins as a life cycle (Center for Juvenile Justice Reform, 2009: 7) and this phase is prolonged up to 30 years old today (Wyn, J., and White, R., 1997: 1).

In this article, young people are considered all those aged between 18 and 30 (Wyn, J., and White, R., 1997: 1; Council of Europe, 2010).

2. Methodology

To explore the opinions of young people on homicides within families, 30 semi-structured interviews with young people are conducted. The interviews are conducted with students from the Faculty of Education (master and bachelor level), Aleksander Moisiu University, Durrës and Social Sciences Faculty, University of Tirana. The data for respondents are summarized in the table below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Data for the interviewers</th>
<th>Nr.</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age 18-20 years</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age 21-23 years</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age 24-26 years</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender Female</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender Male</td>
<td>15</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

The interview contained ten semi-structured questions, the completion of which required about 20 minutes for each interviewee.

3. Results from the conducted interviews

Young people interviewed said they were very worried by this phenomenon and the scary news they are listening every day. It’s like they cannot escape to
hear about violence and murder that seems to be happening everywhere and every day.

“It’s frightening to hear that a mother has killed a baby or a husband his wife” says a student during the interview. *It feels like the earth moves beneath our feet. We all need a safe place to feel protected, family is the nest we encircle. When we hear the macabre cases of feverishness, it seems as if the end of the world is coming*”.

Data shows that from year to year, figures on domestic violence have increased significantly, particularly homicide cases within family. Why this growth?

From the interviews results that respondents think that three are the main factors that have contributed:

- Increased difficulties and uncertainties in coping with life issues;
  
  According to the respondents, each of us faces daily with a very difficult and insecure living. A transitional society, coupled with many issues that hinder people’s efforts to secure their livelihoods, has added much pressure and stress to people. The growing difficulty and insecurity is bringing the birth and multiplication of many harmful phenomena to society.

  *Many people give up ‘‘the pressure of life’’- as a student says - and fall prey to drugs, alcohol, gambling. Life is so insecure and so many people are getting out of the rails - another student says.*

- Lack of protective and punitive force of the law;
  
  According to the respondents, the lack protective and punitive force of the law is an important factor. It seems like people are not afraid from the punitive force law nor do they believe they are protected by it. According to the respondents, the number of crimes and breaches of the law has increased, including homicide within family.

  As a student says: “*It seems like the state has turned a blind eye and deaf ear to homicides. All those women who are raped and killed and the law does not offer you any opportunity to escape, but to shut your mouth and endure violence*”; “*It is normal that it is the fault of non-implementation of the law,*” says another interviewee - *all the unpunished violence that is going on in the Albanian families, sooner or later, will end with the killing of any of the members*”.

- Families no longer have the sanctity and the role they had in the past;
  
  According to the interviewees, the family is losing its holiness and the role it has had in the past. According to them, more and more generations are not respecting one another:
• children do not obey you as parents once;
• parents are not properly caring for children;
• divorces are increasing;
• domestic violence is growing;
• and many other problems.

Many negative phenomena are occurring within the family, waning its image as a “safe nest”. People are not feeling safe inside the family as they felt before, they are feeling threatened.

‘Once, hearing that a son beat his parents looked incredible, and surely the child must have had mental problems.....today nothing arouses any wonder. It seems as if people are used to these kinds of events where everything can happen inside families’” - says a student.

3.1. Women are victims of violence and murder mainly
due to patriarchal society

Studies and statistics show that women are mostly the victims to domestic violence and homicide compared to men. Respondents think that in a patriarchal society like ours, men are more violent than women. Men are taught that, in order to command, you must punish all those who do not obey you. While women are taught to obey and not discuss the decisions of family leaders, who are males.

Albanian males use violence to “restore the rule,” - says a student. “Our society is so masculine - says another student - it seems to me that men think that women are their property and can do whatever they want with them, even kill them if they do not obey or raise them.”.

The evidence shows that men are mostly the biggest bullies within the family, especially to their spouses but also to children. Victimization of women by their husbands is reinforced by the economic situation, mentality and tradition, as well as by the inadequate awareness of the people on domestic violence (Ombudsman, 2012: 1).

3.2. A parent with mental problems can kill his/her child

What can push a parent to take his child’s life? When interviewed students were asked this question, there was some kind of confusion or inflammation in their face.

As one of the students says - “It is difficult to think of such a thing, but such cases have taken place. When you hear that a mother or father has killed a child directly you think about mental problems, it seems as if only a mentally ill parent can kill his or her child. No other cause seems to make you overcome such a bitter fact.”.
Data show that mental illnesses are mentioned as one of the reasons that may be the main cause of these events. Another reason for the interviewed students is alcohol and economic problems.

One of the students says - “From the poverty that has gripped the Albanian families, one loses logic and goes to the killing. Moreover, due to economic problems, many fathers have been given to alcohol, adding cases of domestic violence from them.”.

During the interviews an interesting fact emerged. The interviewed students mentioned the old mentality as one of the main causes that could lead a parent to take away his child’s life.

As one of the students says - “...this can happen in families where the old mentality prevails, when the child goes out of the norms and habits of the family, then it pushes the parent to kill the child. In families that have old habits, when the family honor is touched, the killing of the child may occur.”.

“For this reason, many more victims are women,” - says another student - “They can lose life from such an outdated mentality simply because they seek something different, attend school or love a boy.”.

3. 3. From abused to perpetrator.

What is the reason that can push children to violate and kill their parents? Interestingly, most of the respondents, about 95% of them, mentioned violence, maltreatment or abuse exercised by parents as one of the main reasons that could lead the children to make such an act. According to them, if the child has been subjected to constant abuse, they may also cause them to become self-inflicted. An adult child with violent and alcoholic parents is likely to grow back to parents with the same coin. Another mentioned cause is the limitation of the freedom or the excessive intervention of the parents in the lives of their children.

“Some parents may become too sanguine with the control they make to their children frustrating their children to the point that they lose their torah.” - a student says.

Dependence on alcohol, drugs, mental problems and stress are seen as other causes that may affect.

“Today, the number of young people who use alcohol and drugs is too high - says a student - even underage children are using them. What can you expect from such children except the trouble, why not even violate their family members.”.

“I had a neighbor who used drugs, - said a student - he beats his mother and father often, stealing and selling home appliances, breaking and crushing things” - he continues.
3. 4. A jealous man kills his wife, a woman who betrays is killed.

It appears that respondents think that the wife’s betrayal is the main cause that may cause a man to kill his wife.

As one of the students says - "... an albanian man loses the reason when it comes to betrayal. The situation can be so severe that it can go as far as killing children even if they suspect they are not theirs”.

As it was mentioned before, mental problems are often consideres as a main cause for someone to take someobes elses life, especially when this someone is family. It seems that respondents think that someone who kills is likely to have a mental problem. It seems like the interviewees think that murder is such a macabre crime that just someone who is not "okay", can do something as macabre like that. Another cause mentioned is the use of alcohol, gambling and drugs.

"The bars and caffes are full of men who sit all day there, drinking and betting. Then they return back home drunk and in deep debts. Such a man can do everything" - says a student.

On the other hand, the spouse may go as far as killing her husband if she or her children are abused by him. A woman generally kills to defend herself or her children according to the respondents.

"When you hear that a man has killed or has attempted to kill his wife, people are wondering: do she betray him? If you hear that a woman has killed or has attempted to kill her husband, they wonder: did he abused her or the children..." - said a student.

4. Conclusions:

Homicide within family is a concerning phenomenon with which albanian families are being faced. Figures show that there is a daunting rise in domestic violence cases from year to year. In this paper, our main focus relied on homicide crimes within family, as the most frightening end of domestic violence. The purpose of this paper was to explore young people’s thoughts on this concerning issue that is happening within our families. How do young people see this phenomenon? What could be, according to them, the causes that lead someone to the point of taking away a family member’s life? Why are women the main victims of such horrible crimes?

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ATTENTION DEFICIT/ HYPERACTIVITY DISORDER: CONCEPTUALIZATION FROM THE FIRST DESCRIPTIONS TO THE 5TH EDITION OF DIAGNOSTIC AND STATISTICAL MANUAL OF MENTAL DISORDER

Abstract

Introduction: Attention deficit/hyperactivity disorder (ADHD) is the most common neurodevelopmental disorder that is found in approximately 5% of the school – age population worldwide [56]. From the first description of the ADHD like behaviors in 1775, [15] conceptualizations of the disorder have evolved greatly over time, reflecting the developments on different field of research.

Objective: The aim of this paper is to describe briefly the evolution of the concept of ADHD focusing on today conceptualization of the disorder from the perspective of the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders, 5th edition (DSM-5) [7].

Method: Review of scientific articles (written in English language) from MEDLINE, PSYCHINFO, for the period 1900 – 2018.

Results: Overall, the clinical descriptions have remained remarkably consistent in their essential features over the past century and longer. Research employing factor analysis has repeatedly identified two distinct yet substantially correlated behavioral dimensions underlying the various behavioral symptoms thought to characterize ADHD demonstrating stability over time [72]. Instability of subtypes of DSM-IV, along with shortcomings identified for developmentally

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appropriate presentation and symptom cut-off, age of diagnosis and demonstrated impairment fueled the refinement of diagnostic criteria for ADHD in DSM-5.

**Conclusion:** The DSM-5 diagnostic criteria represent the best consensus of experts in the field. Nevertheless, the criteria have not escaped controversy and are not without limitations. Research must focus at identifying more heterogeneous traits of the disorder.

**Key Words:** ADHD, diagnostic criteria, DSM, hyperactivity/impulsivity, inattention,

**FROM THE FIRST DESCRIPTIONS TO CLASSIFICATION SYSTEMS**

ADHD has a long and somewhat controversial history [10, 68]. Although ADHD is not a new clinical phenomenon, however, it is a relatively new diagnostic label to describe individuals who display developmentally inappropriate levels of inattention, impulsivity, and/or hyperactivity.

Recently, the first description and publication of ADHD-like behaviors is credited to Melchior Adam Weikard, a prominent German physician. In 1775, Weikard, published the textbook “Der Philosophische Arzt”. Weikard’s text contained a brief chapter on attention disorders, possibly the first ever such description in medical literature [15]. He described many of the symptoms now associated with the inattentive dimension of ADHD in the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders.

On 1798, another physician, Sir Alexander Crichton, described a mental state much like the inattentive subtype of ADHD, in his book An Inquiry into the Nature and Origin of Mental Derangement. He wrote about “morbid alterations of attention” characterized by extreme mental restlessness and distraction. He described one feature of this condition as “the incapacity of attending with a necessary degree of constancy to any one object,” which certainly sounds familiar as one of the diagnostic indicators of ADHD. He also wrote of an extreme state of reactivity to stimuli such as barking dogs or other sudden noises, a restlessness that patients with the condition called “the fidgets” [27, 28]. Nevertheless, the first scientific papers about what we today know as ADHD were published in a series of three lectures (Still, 1902). In March 1902, Sir George Frederic Still (1868–1941), delivered a series of lectures under the name “Goulstonian Lectures, Some Abnormal Psychical Conditions in children” before the Royal College of Physicians of London on March 4th, 6th, and 11th, 1902. He described 23 children who had serious problems with sustained attention and self-regulation, who were often aggressive, defiant, and
resistant to discipline, excessively emotional or passionate, which showed little inhibitory volition, and could not learn from the consequences of their actions, though their intellect was normal [64].

Still’s lectures set the foundation for further researches in the area of attentional difficulties. Although the inclusion of inattentive, hyperactive, and impulsive symptoms has been relatively constant across clinical and scientific descriptions of the disorder over time, conceptualizations have evolved considerably fueled by the findings of different fields of research and different terms are being used to describe the disorder, such as, “minimal brain damage, minimal brain dysfunction, hyperkinetic reaction of childhood, attention deficit disorder and the ADHD that we know today”. Concomitantly, efforts have been made to universally agree upon a set of criteria for diagnosing ADHD. What is now called Attention-Deficit/Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD) first appeared in the second edition of the American Psychiatric Association’s Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders in 1968 termed “Hyperkinetic Reaction of Childhood”, [3].

It is important to note that in those early definitions, the syndrome that was studied included a broad set of problems, often including learning problems, motor and coordination problems, and even sleep problems. By the early 1960s, the syndrome in use had become too over inclusive to enable effective diagnosis, treatment, or research approaches [25]. Early descriptions of ADHD mostly were focusing on hyperactivity as the core feature of the disorder, although difficulties with sustained attention were also included. It was only until the laboratory studies from Virginia Douglas in the late 1960s and 1970s that the importance of deficits in sustained attention and impulse control in descriptions of the syndrome came into focus [29] and decisions were made to identify a core element of ADHD and to break off the learning and motor disorders into separate categories. Influenced largely by this research, deficits in sustained attention rather than overactivity came to be viewed as central to the disorder by the early 1980s and the disorder was renamed Attention Deficit Disorder (ADD) in DSM-III [4], while hyperactivity was a specifying feature of the ADD with or without hyperactivity. With the development of more refined research criteria and measuring instruments, the criteria for defining the disorder were modified in the DSM-IIIR [5] where ADD became ADHD and was classified with two other behavioral disorders under the category of disruptive behavior disorders. With the publication of the DSM-IV [6], the term ADHD was retained and to reduce the heterogeneity of the disorder three subtypes of attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder (ADHD) based on numbers of symptoms of inattention (I) and hyperactivity-impulsivity (HI) were defined, although these
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Subtypes proved to be highly unstable over time [72]. Because of shortcomings of the DSM-IV diagnostic system, such as poor subtype stability [45, 72], developmentally insensitive criteria [18], and poor performance of the age-of-onset criteria [11] a series of research modified diagnostic criteria for ADHD were included in the fifth edition of The Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders, DSM-5 [7] clearly reflecting the efforts to more accurately and precisely diagnose the disorder. Nevertheless, debate still exists about the best classification system and subtyping of the disorder with authors calling for necessary revisions to improve ADHD as a diagnostic category [61]. In the following paragraphs we will discuss the DSM-5category of ADHD under the perspective of it’s diagnostic criteria.

**DEFINITION OF ADHD IN DSM-5**

**Symptoms of ADHD**

In the fifth edition of Diagnostic and Statistical of Mental Disorders, DSM-5 [7], differently from DSM-IV, where ADHD was included under the category of disruptive behavior disorders, ADHD is included on the category of neurodevelopment disorders reflecting its nature as a disorder of brain development. In fact, the overarching category of Disruptive Behavior Disorders, which included ADHD in DSM-IV, was misleading because there was no reliable evidence suggesting that the inattentive subtype represented a disruptive disorder. Instead, children with this subtype are often characterized as being hypoactive, shy, and withdrawn. The essential feature of attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder (ADHD) is a persistent pattern of inattention and/or hyperactivity-impulsivity that interferes with functioning or development [7]. Available data overwhelmingly support the concurrent, predictive, and discriminant validity of the distinction between inattention and hyperactivity-impulsivity symptoms, and factor analysis of the items has demonstrated stability over time [44, 72]. Because of the stability of symptom dimensions, the same 18 diagnostic symptoms of ADHD in DSM-IV were retained in DSM-5 and were clustered in the same symptom domains that best describe the core deficits on ADHD specifically, inattention and hyperactivity/impulsivity. The symptoms of inattention include primary inattention (e.g., attention to details, sustained attention, distraction) as well as secondary inattention, or things that happen as the result of not paying attention. These include listening skills, task completion, organization, sustained mental effort, losing items, and forgetfulness. The symptoms of hyperactivity and impulsivity are combined into one category, as they have been found to represent a single dimension, can be difficult to
distinguish from one another, and typically co-occur. Symptoms include motor presentations (e.g., fidgets/squirms, leaves seat, runs/climbs or subjective feelings of restlessness, often “on-the-go”) as well as verbal presentations (e.g., talks excessively, blurs out answers). Some symptoms can be expressed motorically and verbally, such as “difficulty waiting turn,” “difficulty being quiet,” and “interrupts/intrudes.” However, because the presentation of ADHD changes with development, and because certain symptoms are impacted by changing demands (e.g., formal school entry), the application of a single list of symptoms to all ages has raised concern [24, 32], highlighting just how critical it is that symptoms be developmentally appropriate and empirically informed.

In fact one study found changes in endorsement patterns over time for each of the 18 DSM-IV, with several symptoms, particularly those of inattention, were infrequently endorsed and of apparently limited diagnostic utility at ages 4-5; hyperactive/impulsive symptoms were more frequently endorsed among young children with ADHD than were inattentive symptoms. However, by ages 6-7, inattention items were somewhat superior at discriminating ADHD from Non-ADHD children [39]. To address these issues, differently from DSM-IV, most symptoms are illustrated by examples of how each might be observed at different ages, offering developmentally appropriate presentations at different ages. Actually, the DSM-5 wording changes might influence the ADHD symptoms endorsement pattern by increasing symptom identification [62]. While for children and adolescents 16 years and younger the presence of at least six symptomatic criteria [44] from a category must be demonstrated, people 17 years and older require five or more symptoms. This is a change from the DSM-IVTR, which applied the same symptom count requirement across all ages. The decision to require fewer symptoms for older adolescents and adults than for children was reached after reviewing studies that found adults with an established history of childhood ADHD often present with fewer symptoms in adulthood although impairment persists [19, 20, 34, 67]. Matte et al. (2015), examined the reliability and validity of proposed DSM-V symptoms in a sample of adult ADHD individuals and found that fewer symptoms than the six-of-nine threshold required by DSM-IV provided the best cutoff point for identifying adults who are impaired [49]. Additionally, a study that examined the prevalence of adults meeting the revised DSM-5 symptoms cutoff for ADHD as compared to the previous DSM-IV symptoms cutoff, found a significant increase (65%) in the number of participants meeting the new cutoff as compared to the old DSM-IV symptoms cutoff, suggesting that using the new criteria may identify more adults with ADHD and fewer diagnoses will be missed [58]. However, some authors suggest that ADHD symptoms are best characterized along three
dimensions where hyperactivity and impulsivity are separate, demonstrating unique clinical presentations of inattention, hyperactivity, and impulsivity and might offer better predicting behavioral outcomes in children with ADHD [54].

**Subtypes or Presentations?**

ADHD is a greatly heterogeneous disorder with respect to clinical presentation, comorbidity, impairments, possible causal models, outcome and worldwide prevalence [42, 63, 71, 23, 59, 56]. Although ADHD, along with all other conditions in the DSM-5, is considered as a diagnostic category, there is a strong consensus that it, as well as many other childhood disorders, is best understood in dimensional rather than categorical terms where ADHD is considered the extreme of a dimension or dimensions of behavior that vary along a continuum with the behavior of typical children [2, 61, 35, 43, 48]. In fact the view of psychopathologies as representing dimensions of behavior or even typologies of these dimensions arises from the perspective of developmental psychopathology [1], consequently, the presentations of ADHD are best understood as representing a disorder whose symptoms vary in severity along two distinct, although highly related spectra or dimensions of inattention-disorganization and hyperactivity-impulsivity [2, 53]. Because of this great heterogeneity efforts have been made to identify more homogeneous subtypes of ADHD to facilitate searches for causal factors, identify potential differences in long-term outcome, and, most important, aid in treatment planning (Barkley, 2006; Jensen et al., 1997; Willcutt et al., 2012). Studies that evaluated the stability of ADHD subtypes over time, concluded that developmental trajectories of symptoms is highly different with the symptoms of hyperactivity declining over time suggesting weak stability of Hyperactivity Type (HT), with children shifting from HT to Combine Type (CT) [45, 47, 72]. In addition to the unpredictable shifts between subtypes exhibited by some individuals with ADHD, longitudinal studies suggest that a subset of individuals shift systematically from ADHD-C to ADHD-I across development [47]. As a reaction to the instability of the DSM-IV ADHD subtypes, these were replaced with presentation specifiers in the DSM-5, corresponding directly to the prior subtypes. Thus if a child “often” has at least six of the inattention symptoms, the *Predominantly Inattentive presentation* may be considered. Likewise, if he “often” has at least six of the hyperactivity and impulsivity symptoms, the *Predominantly Hyperactive/Impulsive presentation*, may be appropriate. If he is eligible for both of these categories, the *Combined presentation* should be considered. People 17 years and older only require five symptoms from a category to meet symptomatic criteria for DSM-V ADHD.
Persistence of the Symptoms

Beside the requirement of a specific number of the symptoms, “persistence” of them for at least six months is another requirement. In fact, the ADHD symptoms ebb and flow across days, weeks, and months, showing changes when schoolwork gets harder or easier, when tasks are routine or novel, and when an individual is stressed or relaxed. Symptoms of ADHD typically fluctuate across various settings and caregivers [14, 73]. Thus, some factors that determine the variation of symptoms have been delineated, for example the degree of environmental demands for restricted behavior. In free play or low demand setting, children with ADHD are less distinguishable from typical children [14]. These children appear more compliant and less disruptive with their fathers than with their mothers [66], and are rated as manifesting lower levels of symptoms by their fathers than by their mothers [31].

Children with ADHD perform better and display fewer behavioral problems in novel settings or tasks, but once they become familiar with the setting the level of deviant behavior increases [12, 73]. Some consider variability in performance across time and contexts to be the essence of ADHD [22]. In consistence with the above findings the DSM-V delineates that: “Typically, symptoms vary depending on context within a given setting. Signs of the disorder may be minimal or absent when the individual is receiving frequent rewards for appropriate behavior, is under close supervision, is in a novel setting, is engaged in especially interesting activities, has consistent external stimulation (e.g., via electronic screens), or is interacting in one-on-one situations (e.g., the clinician’s office)”, [7] thus recognizing that symptom expression can change in response to many factors, including environmental features.

Age of onset

The DSM-V states clearly, “ADHD begins in childhood” [7] and requires evidence of several ADHD symptoms prior to 12 years of age. Although there is no defined age when the first symptoms of ADHD begin to show, research offers data that symptoms of ADHD start to display in a very little age [32, 65]. Many parents first observe excessive motor activity when the child is a toddler, but symptoms are difficult to distinguish from highly variable normative behaviors before age 4 years. Although issues such as the rapidly developmental changing between age 2 and 6 weakens the ADHD diagnosis among preschool children [46], the validity of a diagnosis of ADHD in pre-school children has increased over the years; these present with the same symptom structure,
similar neuropsychological deficits, associated impairment, co-morbidity and developmental risk [36]. ADHD is most often identified during elementary school years, when inattention becomes more prominent and impairing [7]. Additionally, retrospective accounts of age of onset tend to report a later age than current observation [16, 50, 69]. Prospective studies suggest that nearly all persons identified with ADHD over the lifespan could have been identified by age 12 to 14 on the basis of the symptoms they showed at that time [41]. On the other side results from a prospective birth cohort suggested that adults who are able to report symptom onset by age 12 also had symptoms by age 7, even if they are not able to report them. The data suggested that the prevalence estimate, correlates and risk factors of ADHD will not be affected if the new diagnostic scheme extends the age-of-onset criterion to age 12 [57]. Based on these findings, the DSM Committee proposed raising the age threshold from 7 to 12 years of age which would then allow older children to meet the diagnostic criteria for ADHD, even if symptoms did not first appear until approximately age 11. The strong support for the adoption of this revision was based on the premise that many more individuals could actually meet diagnostic criteria for ADHD. In the past, these individuals would have been denied diagnosis and presumably the necessary treatment to remediate their various behavioral, social, and learning problems [11, 41]. Research has found no clinically significant differences in outcome, treatment response, course, or severity for “early onset” versus “late onset” [34, 57]. Additionally, another study evaluating the impact of age extension in prevalence rates of ADHD in a nationally representative sample of U.S. found that the extension of the age-of-onset criterion from 7 to 12 years led to an increase in the prevalence rate of ADHD from 7.38% (DSM-IV) to 10.84% (DSM-5), supporting the validity of the DSM-5 extension of the age-of-onset criterion in ADHD [70]. Nevertheless, studies aggregating prospective assessments and retrospective reports are needed to address the utility and validity of the new age-of-onset criterion [55].

Pervasivity of Symptoms

In the DSM-IV-TR criteria for ADHD, to ensure the pervasiveness of the symptoms: “Some impairment from the symptoms must be present in two or more settings (e.g., at school [or work] and at home)”. Authors argued that this means of determining pervasiveness might confound the source of information (parent vs. teacher) with the settings across which one is attempting to determine pervasiveness [51]. The DSM-5 requires that the symptoms are pervasive and that several inattentive or hyperactive-impulsive symptoms are present in two or
more settings (e.g., at home, school, or work; with friends or relatives; in other activities), so strengthening the cross-situational requirement.

**Impairment**

The DSM-5 criteria for ADHD mention impairment in several places. Criterion A begins with a statement that the symptoms must interfere with functioning or development. Each category (i.e., inattentive, hyperactive/impulsive) requires that the symptoms must “negatively impact directly on social and academic/occupational activities” [7], (pp. 59–60). Criterion D states, “There is clear evidence that the symptoms interfere with, or reduce the quality of, social, academic, or occupational functioning” (p. 60). In other words, there is impairment if a symptom negatively impacts or limits a person’s activities or development. Barkley and colleagues (2006) distinguished between symptoms and impairment by defining the former as “the behavioral expressions associated with the disorder” and the latter as “the consequences that ensue for the individual as a result of these behaviors” [17].

Several investigators [9, 21, 26] have found that a significant percentage of children that meet diagnostic criteria for psychiatric disorders do not display clinically significant impairment and conversely, other investigators [Angold et al., 1999] have found that some children with subthreshold symptomatology may be just as clinically impaired as those whose symptoms met full criteria for a diagnosis suggesting that they should be regarded as suffering from a psychiatric disorder. Childhood ADHD is associated most frequently with impairments in three primary areas: peer, family, and academic functioning. Additionally, the presence of an impairment criterion affects prevalence rates for disorders. Gordon and colleagues [37] found modest associations between symptoms and impairment, suggesting that not only are symptoms and impairment not identical, but also that it is entirely possible to have a level of functional impairment very different from that “expected” from one’s clinical presentation. However measuring impairment is difficult. Some measuring instruments have proved to be useful at measuring impairment [21, 33, 40].

**Conclusion**

Difficulties with attention, impulse control or motor activity are part of normal human development. Some behavior traits such as short attention span, poor inhibition or increased motor activity are normal behaviors in little children, and vary along a continuum, and also have different developmental
trajectories. When one evaluates for the presence of ADHD must aim at identifying the extremes of this continuum and must ascertain that the behaviors are inconsistent with the development level of the individual being assessed. On the other side, only the presence of six or more symptoms does not qualify someone for the ADHD diagnosis. Some other conditions must be met such as the presence of several symptoms before age 12 years and for more than six months, and impairment and functioning difficulties must be demonstrated in at least 2 areas of functioning.

SUMMARY

ADHD is not a new condition. It is one of the disorders that have provoked a lot of debate and controversies with respect to its validity as a diagnosis. Despite modifications on the conceptualization of the disorder over time, the clinical descriptions have remained remarkably consistent in their essential features over the past century and longer. This constellation of behavior problems may constitute one of the most well-studied childhood disorders of our time. Many laypeople are still struggling to accept the notion that the disorder may be a biologically rooted developmental disability or the result of a subtle brain injury, when nothing seems physically wrong. The DSM-5 diagnostic criteria represent the best consensus of experts in the field, although still have important limitations and have not escaped controversy. In fact, altering an established nosology may alter “patient’s access to health care and educational services, confuse the use of diagnosis on the courts and undermine the cumulative nature of scientific research into mental disorders.”[52].
References


AN OVERVIEW ABOUT “THE ALBANIAN GRAMMAR” (1882) OF KRISTOFORIDHI

Kristoforidhi, a prominent figure for Albania, has a significant position among the Albanian linguists. His contribution and merits in the field of the Albanian linguistics is well known. His work “The grammar of the Albanian language” (1882), written in Tosk dialect, it is considered the best-written work of this kind, taking into account the period when Kristoforidhi published it. This text has been in the spotlight of many scholars and linguists, either in terms of content, or in terms of structure or due to the fact that it was written in Tosk dialect, or in terms of its main purpose.

This paper aims, first, to highlight the values this work, as a unique grammar of its kind and not as a reproduction of the Albanian grammar models which is written earlier back in time, where it is provided a general description of the structure of this grammar. Secondly, the paper aims to introduce it as a work which is highly estimated as it was relied on factual material collected by the author himself. Furthermore, in the focus of this paper is on the questions raised by Albanian linguists; why Kristoforidhi published the Grammar in Greek and if there were consequences of its publication in a foreign language. In this part of the study, it is aimed to highlight the reasons why the linguist was forced to take such a decision. However, Kristoforidhi’s “The grammar of the Albanian language” constitutes a valuable work in the whole set of works of this nature in the Albanian linguistic tradition.

Key words: Albanian grammar, factual material, novelty, Greek language, dissemination.

Introduction

“The Albanian grammar” is one of the most important works of Kristoforidhi. He published it in 1882 in Istanbul in Greek (Gramatiqi’tis Alvaniqi’i’s Glo’sis). Prior to the publishing of this grammar, we have enough notes of Albanian language, mainly, by foreign scholars and written mostly in foreign languages.
Indeed, as the facts tell us; Albanian grammatology had excellent traditions in this aspect. However according to linguist Shaban Demiraj, after the grammar of De Rada, the grammar of Kristoforidhit is the second of Albanian language, written and published by an Albanian, and the best work of its kind written until that period by foreign scholars (Demiraj, 2002, p. 42). Nevertheless, at this point, the question arises: Did Kristoforidhi knows the grammars aspects written before him?

A response to this question is given by the researcher, Jup Kastrati. According to him, Kristoforidhi did not know the existence of these grammars (Kastrati, 2002, p. 56), because they were manuscripts in different foreign archives, private or public, but in the country. On the other hand, some of them were discovered after the death of Kristoforidhi, during the XX century. From the other twenty-five grammars, only seven were relatively complete: others were state sketches or reproduction of any previous author. According to Kastrati, due to the fact that he was a scholar, who had broad linguistic interests, he may have had one of Albanian grammar structure designed by Da Lecce (1716), Adelung (1809), Hobhouse (1810), Leake (1814), Pouqueville (1829), Xylander (1835), Hahn (1854), Reinhold (1855), Kamarda (1864), Vreto (1866), Rossi (1866), Jubani (1870), De Rada (1871), Dozon (1879), Benloee (1879), Juny (1880), Kulluiot (1880), Janik (1881). (Kastrati 2002, p. 57)

However, Kristoforidhi did not discover everything from the begging (Kastrati 2002, p. 57), but delivered by Albanian and foreign scholars. He followed the footsteps of the predecessors, praised the heritage of Arbresh scholars of Greece and Italy, as well as foreign researchers and Albanologists. However, it is very interesting: although he was acquainted with grammars published before him, in his work are not found traces of them (Kastrati 2002, p. 57). Always, according to Kastrati, in the work of the great scholar of Elbasan there is no impact of others, and “the influx and influence of Albanian Father to successors, have been evident in some grammarians of our language”(Kastrati 2002, p. 57). He further adds that: “The originality of our honored author in his Grammar is indisputable, unquestionable. We think that he has been keen on this side. (Kastrati 2002, p. 57) Indeed, if we focus on his book, the first in the entire linguistic concepts set forth, in the treatment of grammatical phenomena, and taking into account the period in which this text was written, we evidently understand Kristoforidhi’s trend as a language researcher.

Regarding Kristoforidhi grammar, there are to be discussed some other

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1 Before Elbasan outstanding scholar, in 247 years, from 1635 to 1882, were compiled 45 grammars of our language, in English, Italian, French, German, English, Czech, Serbo-Croat and Turkish.
valuable phenomena. There is a big qualitative and quantitative difference between linguistic phenomena of the Albanian language by the Elbasan grammarian and foreign grammarians aforementioned, except Hahnit (of whom he was a teacher and collaborator) and Kamarde, the others lack the philological, linguistic, glottological, dialectological, text logical, phonological, phonetic, morphological, etymological, lexical and syntactic diapason of Kristoforidhi. The first, deep researcher of linguistic disciplines, unattainable connoisseur, of his time and the diverse dialects of Albanian, a scientist with clear vision and perspective and high native language (Kastrati 2002, p. 58). Therefore, fairer, we can assume that the first Albanian author who was born, worked and lived in Albania, who wrote a real grammar for Albanians is Kristoforidhi.

Many researchers have expressed their opinions about his grammar, among which are mentioned Gaetano Petrotta, Simon Shuteriqi, Dhimiter Shuteriqi, Jup Kasatrati etc. These researchers have made different assessments regarding the Kristoforidhi work. Some have expressed general opinions about the work or for parts of it, others have treated such problems as: why did Kristoforidhi use the Tosk, why he published his work in Greek, for whom did he write the work for etc. However, to this date has been no comprehensive analysis of the Kristoforidhi’s grammar, an analysis of theoretical and practical contribution to its language, considering one by one the linguistic categories of this grammar in approach with today grammars. Starting from such a comparative perspective of this work, supported analysis of theoretical and practical in linguistic contributions in Albanian language, in general and in grammatology, in particular, we may say:

- K. Kristoforidhi grammar is mainly based in the vivid language of people and in a factual material, unlike many previous authors who in drafting of their grammar relied, primarily, on previous grammars, in published works by authors of the time, in different countries or regions, in a very limited material or heterogeneous (Çeliku, 2009, p. 103).

- Kristoforidhi appears as a collector and researcher of master data from factual materials. He gathered the material himself with enough patience, going specifically or living and working in different parts of Albania. And from that extensive material, also collected for his Dictionary, adopted the rules and laws of the Albanian grammar structure.

- The whole material shows not only the recognition of the Albanian language by the author, but also the hard work done by Kristoforidhi in the grammar design which lies far from grammatical sketches copying the schemes and material of each other. Even, in some places we are dealing with a perfect version of it.

- The material is not only rich and numerous and collected in different
regions of Albania, but it is systemized and grouped in detail. Displaying as well as the accuracy and security in the material.

- In this grammar, drafted after two Albanian spelling books and after collecting the words and editing his vocabulary, Kristoforidhi presents his good knowledge of Albanian literature, of old and contemporary authors and profound cognitive and research of its dialects (Çeliku, 2009, p. 103).

Kristoforidhi grammar can be seen as a grammar built, mainly, on Tosk material. This text is drafted with the rigorosity and seriousness of a scientist well prepared theoretically for that time which is proved, first of all, with the material gathered carefully and accurately and well presented. Generally, it is noted that he has received from Tosk the more general and most representative forms of grammatical phenomena and forms that he gives, but he sometimes presents also other forms. In the text it is done in this way: near new most general forms of the accusative: “gurinë, fatinë, motinë, gardhinë”, are given four forms: “gurnë, gurrë; fatnë, fanë; motnë, monë; gardhnë, gardhë; for a name are also given four forms: “kalënë, kalinë, kalnë, kalë” etc. For the undistinguished consequence also provides several forms: “qenvet, thëngjijvet and qenet, thëngjijjet (“Çeliku, 2009, p. 103) etc.

Kostandin Kristiforidhi also presents some grammatical phenomena and forms which have a more limited territorial scope: so he mentions several times to southern Albania, Cham, the dialect of Gjirokastra, Berat, Permet etc. Regarding Gheg, in the grammar are given, mainly, those linguistic phenomena which constitute the fundamental differences from Tosk, especially the phonetic ones, less morphological differences as pronouns, the present “godis”, against “godit”, the future type of “kam me pasë” and “kam për me pasë” of Gheg, against “kam për të pasë” of all the albanian language (Çeliku, 2009, p. 103).

Kristoforidhi K. mentioned many points of the middle Albania, such as Elbasan, Peqin, Kavaja, Durres, Ndroqi, Tirana, Preza, Ishmi as well as sometimes also the dialect of Shkodra. As it is seen, the grammar of Kristoforidhi also contains rich information for Gheg.

Kristoforidhi grammar can be seen as a scientific grammar of the Albanian language, designed and presented carefully but also in a series of other specifications by a well prepared theoretically scientist:

- The scientific character of the work also appears in the theoretical position kept for the grammar, phonetic and dialectical categories treated. Kristoforidhi spoke with competence about the phenomena that lie in Tosk and for some Gheg phenomena, confronted the facts of two Albanian dialects.

- The distinguishing features between the two dialects discovered, first, by him are entirely accurate; generally, they are accepted also by the Albanian
dialectology of our days. Among them there are (Çeliku, 2009, p. 103): the presence of nasal vowels in Gheg and the lack of them in Tosk; the presence of the sound /ue/ in Gheg, against sound /ua/ in Tosk; the highlighted vowel /ë/ of Tosk against vowel /â/ of Gheg; the group /vo/ in Gheg and /va/ in Tosk, the passage of the root /h/ in /f/ in Gheg, the passage of the unemphasized /ë/ in /i/ in Gheg, especially in the III own of relative etc.

Being connoisseur of old Albanian authors as P. Budi etc., Kristoforidhi is aware of the developments that some linguistic phenomena have undergone, as is the case of two vowels /ua/, /ue/, /uo/ which he rightly sees as variants of each other (Çeliku, 2009, p. 103).

All the above accurate data, further strengthens the conclusion that Kristoforidhi hasnot just discovered the linguistic material on which he built his work, but he was also a researcher who provided a thorough analysis of linguistic facts that this language case carried itself.

1.1 The publication of grammar in a foreign language

There are many debates in the circles of scholars and linguists about the fact that why Kristoforidhi published his grammar in Greek. Regarding this issue, the linguist Kastrati J. maintains that: “The views expressed on this issue in the scientific press and on local studies need to be revised and corrected. The interpretation of the data is accurate. It may be necessary and important to look at the events in retrospect, as they were, and not as we wish they were (Kastrati 2002, p. 58).

Meanwhile, the linguist Celiku M. explains that the Greek and not the Albanian publication of Kristoforidhi grammar were imposed by the social and political circumstances of the time. “He wrote the grammar, however, not mainly for foreigners, not only for Tosk and intellectuals who knew Greek, but for all Albanians. It was better that this grammar was published in Greek, than leaving it unpublished.” (Çeliku, 2009, p. 105).

Similar opinion is also shared by Kastrati J.: “He must have had strong reasons that have prompted the author to use this language, because he knew the goals of Greek chauvinists. Apparently, political, historical and social circumstances were such, that forced Kristoforidhi to publish its own grammar of the Albanian language in Greek, because it made the Greek neighboring chauvinist realize that there is an Albanian language with a rich phonetic and morphological system, with an ancient and diverse lexical, which did not leave lack of anything the most allotted languages of the time.” (Kastrati 2002, p. 58)

According to Kastrati, the Albanian grammar, written in Greek and destined for areas of southern Albania, for Greece and Italy Arbresh, the Albanian
colonies of Turkey, Romania, Bulgaria, Egypt, Australia, countries which, in most migrants were Tosk, it cannot be drafted on the basic of Gheg, since there it could not be understood by them. On the other hand, Kristoforidhi drafted his Tosk grammar in Greek language to help Albanian intellectuals, who knew the Modern Greek, but then they could not read and write in Albanian language. In this way, through the southern Albanian grammar, drafted in Greek, they would have an opportunity to learn their mother language. This reinforces the fact that, at the time when this work was published, there were few Ghegs who spoke Greek, while in Tosk, especially in Gjirokastra and Korca, some Albanian intellectuals, especially orthodoxies, spoke Greek (Kastrati 2002, p. 59).

Then, while Kristoforidhi compiled this grammar in Greek, he could have written it in Gheg, when it was assigned to those south districts, when the Greek was spoken in the church and in elementary school, especially religious, and parts of in some homes? The simple logic says it should not be in Gheg, but in Tosk, especially if it was written in the Modern Greek. Here, then, there are practical reasons that pushed the author to develop his work of Albanian grammatical structure based on the southern dialect. This thesis is reinforced by an another fact that Kristoforidhi, as is known, his work was translated in Tosk then published in Greek alphabet, though it was known among southern regions of Albania, while for the Gheg, he adopted the Latin alphabet, because it was in use in the north (Kastrati 2002, p. 58).

Starting from the above submissions we can say that Kristoforidhi, in the period when he wrote his grammar, the main purpose may have been not only having a grammar of native language, but above all its possible spread, vindication of its existence, which could not happen, if it would be written in Albanian language, when Albanians, excluding those who studied abroad, who did not know to write in Albanian yet, and moreover, when we still did not have a unique alphabet. Beyond the above arguments, that somehow shed light on the Greek publication of the grammar, another natural question is whether there were or not consequences of its publication in Greek and not in Albanian.

According to the linguist, Celiku M. the edition in Greek limited its spread. However, despite this fact, this grammar has not only served to the ordinary Albanian readers, but it has also been an actual, theoretical and terminological support for the design of the later Albanian grammars, starting from S. Frasheri to I. D Sheperi, S. Shuteriqi, A. Juvani and K. Cipo who observed problematic issues, in the interpretation of the phonetic and morphological phenomena, putting on the basis of their grammars the literary Tosk (Çeliku, 2009, p. 105).

This grammar has served and serves as a good base for studies in the field of historical grammar, not only because of the truth in the provision of the
materials, but also on the positions held by the author.

An important aspect related to the grammar is the fact that there are not found foreign words in Turkish, Greek, or Italian. With many Albanian names that are given as example, Kristoforidhi wanted to raise at the Albanian reader the love for the country.

The works of Kristoforidhi made Albanian a culture language, documenting to the world that Albanian was a language like other European languages with a complete and rich grammatical system.

In the opinion of the nowadays and past researchers of Albanian, the treatment of multiple linguistic phenomena, it cannot only be considered “The grammar of the Albanian language” of Kostandin Kristoforidhi, but it should also serve as a landmark for studies of this nature.

Conclusions

Based on research done on the work “The grammar of the Albanian language” of Kristoforidhi, constitutes, in itself, a non-mimetic grammar of previous grammar models, but highly original in its kind. This work is made use of an extensive linguistic material, gathered with a lot of accuracy by the author himself. It is a grammar written mainly with linguistic material belonging to Tosk dialect, from which the author has addressed the phenomenon and more general and representative grammatical forms, which he reflects. In some cases, the author presents some phenomenon and grammatical forms that have a more limited territorial extent, such as South Albania Cham, dialect of Gjirokastra, Berat, Përmet, etc. Regarding Gheg dialect, in the grammar mostly are mention those linguistic phenomenon that constitute the fundamental differences from Tosk dialect, especially phonetic, morphological differences are displayed less. Another valuable aspect of the work constitutes the distinguishing features between the two dialects accepted or observed by him, which are generally acknowledged by the Albanian dialectology of the present day. Regarding the question about publishing the work in Greek, which often provoke the linguists to this day, it must be noted that it was precisely the social and historical conditions of that time of Albania, which pushed the linguist toward this decision. Thus for him it was better to publish it in Greek so to be recognized by Albanian intellectuals which at the time knew it, than not to publish it at all. “The grammar of the Albanian language” of Kristoforidhi, even though written in the Greek language, in a way, became conductor of the fact that the Albanian language was a language with a complete and a very a complete grammatical system.
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Prof.as. dr. Lavdosh AHMETAJ

THE EXTENT OF ITALY’S MILITARY CONTROL IN NORTHERN ALBANIA AND THE CRYSTALLIZATION OF CONTRADICTIONS WITH FRANCE 1917-1918

Abstract

The paper reflects the moment with the interests of the history of the first world war in the Albanian territory, it is about the military movement of Italy to the north of Albania, to put it under its administrative and political control. This moment intertwines and crystallizes at the same time the withdrawal of Serbia from Middle Albania and its control by Italy and the emergence of Esat Toptani, who seems to withdraw from his political activity at the request of French politics in Albania, to be reactivated by France at the Peace Conference which would take place a year later in Paris. France, on the other hand, was interested in Esati making political divorce with Italy so that he would be politically used by Ke D’Orseja (French Foreign Ministry). This political movement essentially had strategic implications through the resurrection of the Secret Trakatate of London, in the service of its own interests France.

Key words: treaty, military control, politics, diplomacy, contradictions, influence.

The Italian invaders largely maintained the part of southern Albania that they had conquered in 1916-17. They even temporarily preserved (until the end of 1919) the occupation of a part of Greek land, that of the triangle Kakavi-Kalibaq-Perat, to secure the Saranda-Korça road. With the designation of the Middle East as an operation area for the Italian troops, and with the withdrawal of the French from Elbasan, the Italian-French contradictions, which were born in October 1918 on this issue, were flattened. The invasion of Middle Albania by Italian troops was completed by October 20, 19181. Another controversy was

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1 - Archives of the History Institute, Vienna Archives Fund, 1918, file no. 28/5, p. 87
born between the two signatory powers of the secret treaty of London, between Italy and France. Would Italian invasion be extended only to Middle East, as the French side thought, or would it include North Albania as the Italians demanded? For Italy’s strategy, it seemed important to master the important roads along the east “along with the Roman road Egnatia, which extended to the lake of Macedonia. This was of great importance, almost capital for us, while from our Adriatic we had only the west coast of the sea2. “ So it seems very obvious that Italy’s greed to securely master the main arteries in Middle Albania, with a look to the north.

With the instructions given by the Allied High Council on 7 October, it seemed that this contradiction was solved for the benefit of the Italians. In these guidelines, by requiring French troops not to continue their progress in the north of Albania, and specifically in the direction of Lezha and Shkodra, underlined: “Italian troops can continue their progress in these directions” (implied, towards Lezha and Shkodra).

These instructions were referred to by the Italians as diplomatic success. But they did not match the intentions of the French diplomacy, which reacted immediately. That is why Ke D’Orseja (French Foreign Ministry3) soon approached the clauses of the treaty of 26 April 1915 and urged Rome to extend the forces of Serbia and not Italians in Northern Albania. The northernmost border of Middle Albania, to which the Italians had the right to advance, was the Massi River because, according to French diplomats, there should be the border of the “Muslim” Albanian state envisaged in the bargaining of April 1915. “In the north of this river, the entire Catholic part of the Albanian state stretching to the borders of Montenegro on the one hand, and Serbia on the other, should be considered outside the Italian area of action. There is therefore no obstacle for the Serbs to be allowed to enter this part, “said the elaborate material at Ke D’Orse on October 8, 1917.

This is also reflected through the observations made by the Austrian military, who, seeing the rival power movements at the end of World War I in the Albanian lands, noted that there were disagreements between the France and Italy regarding the areas of influence. “Between Italy and France there are strong disagreements over Albania. The French want to divide Albania between Greece and Serbia. While Italy will create an independent Albania under its

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3 - Muin Chami, Historical Studies No.4, 1986, p. 54.art “Albania in international relations”. 
protectorate "". But Italy had a greater advantage than France for the fact that these protectoral interests were also supported by the power politics which had an influence that was to be admired at the end of the Great War, “this is the opinion of both England and America⁵”.

But on the other hand, the rulers of Rome based their plans in Albania on the terms of the Treaty of London of 1915. It is well known that it was the leader of Italian diplomacy, S. Sonino, who sought to preserve it as the most expensive thing he had achieved during the war for post-war purposes. It was only his implementation that every party wanted to do now according to their own interests, by interpreting it in different ways. It was in October 1918 that Austrian diplomacy did not spare charges against Italy’s foreign policy, considering it as treacherous and charlatan, led by Soninon. To vindicate the unfaithfulness of the Italian government’s “sneaky way of thinking behind the front⁶" of the Central Powers, this foreign minister had managed to build the phrase “sacred selfishness”⁷. This, according to Austro-Hungarian diplomacy, was the desire of the charlatan man to strike for the war, and the covetous “for the sake of others, is sacred selfishness⁸.” The irony of Austro-Hungarian politics went even further. She compared the politics of the Italian state’s war with that of a man who was conquered by love and “kidnapping another’s wife whom he likes⁹”.

Representatives of France demanded that the invasion of northern Albania by the Serbs (as a first annexation measure) be implemented now, without waiting for the opening of the Peace Conference and consideration of the issue at this conference. And the representatives of Italy felt differently. According to them, the right to partition of Albania under this treaty belonged only to the conference. In addition, the very application of specific treaty clauses is, as we have seen, with certain conditions.

Such is the point VII. According to this point, Italy was obliged to accept the wish of the other signatories of this treaty to divide Albania with the Balkan neighbors only when it first provided for those territories in the northern and eastern Adriatic that the treaty in question gave to Italy. This was a condition

⁴ - A I, Vienna Archives Fund, D. 28/6/619. N.16.206, Telegram 7 October 1918: Reporting. 1-A Kral. ddt of Shkodra October 9, 1918, p. 30, nr. 111, given 5.50 pm afternoon, arrived at 1am the next day.
⁵ -the same
⁶ - A H. Vienna Archives Fund, Viti 1918, D.No.28 / 6, “Here are the strange policies of your government, Italy,” October 1918, the transcribed page, 144.
⁷ -there pg.145
⁸ -there pg.146
⁹ - A I H. Vienna Archives Fund. Year 1918, D. no.25 / 6, f. 130.
that helped Italian diplomats to maneuver for the separation of Albania with two Balkan neighbors. Therefore, the governors of Rome sought to extend the invasion of Italian forces throughout Northern Albania in order to have them, in the peace treaties, in their hands.

The decision of the High Council of War on October 7 came to them more or less to help. At a conference held in Ke d’Orse, after a discussion between Klemansos, Llojd George and Soninos, the French president agreed to send orders to General Franse d’Esperey that two French divisions who were invading Albania to retreat without replacement and that the troops Italians to continue their advancement to Albania. “This decision was interpreted by Sonino as a reservation for the invasion by Italy of all Albania and for a year and a half, so next year Italy justified the right to invade Albania with this decision.” The French disagreed with this view, and this seemed even more apparent when Italian General Ferrero refused to allow Serbian troops to operate in northern Albania because of his claim that the region was reserved for Italy. General Franse d’Esperey complained to Paris that Italian claims and lack of co-operation were hampering military operations.

French Foreign Minister Pesson in talks with Bonin Longere, Italian ambassador to Paris, insisted that although Italian troops were allowed to invade Albania, “this had not prevented Serb forces to conquer Northern Albania. Italy should be allowed to operate in central Albania, “but when General Ferrero, the Italian commander, would cross the Mat River, he would be put under the command of General Franse d’Esperey. The Italian ambassador rejected the request that all operations in Albania be reserved for the Italians, as agreed during the October 7th conference. He insisted that Shkodra and Lezha were also reserved for the Italian invasion, but agreed “to refuse Serbian troops.”

However, two commands of the powers of the Antant powers operating in the Balkans were sent two different guidelines. The command of Italian troops in Albania was forwarded on October 8 to the instruction of the 7 October War Council, according to which the Italian troops would operate in the north of Albania, and on October 10, Parisi conveyed to the command of the East Army its instruction that was based on the elaborate platform at Ke D’Orse on October 8, according to which the northern boundary of Italian troops would be the river of Mat, north of which Serb troops would operate.

However, with the withdrawal of French troops from central Albania, the

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11 - Woodall, Robert Larry, “The Albanian Problem During The Peacemaking 1919-1920”, Memphis State University, PH.D. 1978, F. 26 (7909423)
initiative of military action would take the Italians not only in this part of our country but also in the north. The French authorities did not come to the aid of Serbian troops, a contingent of which broke into Middle Albania sooner (to cross Mat to the north), and occupied Tirana on 10 October before the Italian forces arrived. Paris could not demand that Serbian forces stay in Middle Albania, which had been recognized by Italian forces, but demanded that the advanced army column of the Serbian army that had entered Tirana be allowed to cross north to the Mat River in the direction of Lezha to drive from there Austro-Hungarian forces.

Despite the repeated interventions of French diplomacy with the Italian side on this issue, there was no result. The Serbs were not allowed to cross to the north and were forced to retreat from middle Albania towards Dibra. However, the French government and the command of the Eastern Army tried to find other political and military ways to prevent the spread of Italian forces in northern Albania and to help Serbian forces. The Italians rejected again.

At the end of the tenth second of October (when Italian troops crossed the north of the Mat River), the French came up with two proposals:

First, they demanded that the invasion of Albania in the north of Mat be made with common Italian forces and other allies. This mixed invasion was dictated, according to the French, by military factors, by the successful and rapid development of the struggle against numerous Austro-Hungarian forces. Upon completion of this joint operation, Italian forces would no longer stay in northern Albania but should retreat back south of the Mat River. “We will not hinder the progress of Italian troops in the north of Mat,” - the telegraph on October 19th, the head of French diplomacy, S. Pishon, his ambassador to Rome. “But it should be made clear to the Italian government,” he further underlined, “that immediately after military operations will no longer justify this advance, these troops should be drawn back to the south of Mat in order to leave it inexpensive those parts of the Albanian territory and coastline, which, according to the London treaty, are expressly reserved for both Serbia and Montenegro12.”

This proposal, which was presented to Rome on 21 October, was not approved by Italian governors. For the Italian foreign minister, the question of return could not be extended either. On the contrary, according to the instructions of October 7, the Allied High Council, the invasion of all northern Albania was reserved only to the Italians and, therefore, were the Serbs, he thought, those who should not enter or stay in northern Albania; not Italians.

Second, in this case, according to him, the Treaty of 26 April 1915 did not even come in the middle, after the treaty concerned “related to matters to be

12 - Boston’s “Sun” newspaper, Boston, May 1918, no. 67, f.38.art ‘’ Italy and Austria ‘’
settled upon the end of the war in the peace treaty”.

After rejecting the first proposal, Paris came out with the second, according to which the contingents of Italian troops crossing north of Mat should not operate independently but should be under the command of the Eastern Army\textsuperscript{13}. So they would be disconnected from the Italian army’s supreme command, from which the Italian troops depended on Albania. If he did not do so, then: “No one can stop the progress of General Ferrero when he has no enemies in front of him. Its immediate achievement with Shkodra has to be predicted, as the Austrians are retreating before the threats I am exercising on their left wing\textsuperscript{14}.” Thus telegraphed the commander of the East Army, General F. d’Esperey, Paris, October 22, 1918.

The deployment of all allied troops operating in the north of Albania under its subordination, the French Armed Forces Command, who made this proposal, and then the French Foreign Ministry, which approved it, introduced it as a necessary condition for co-ordination of combat actions and for the avoidance of possible conflicts between the two rivals: Italians and Serbs. But the real purpose of this proposal could not be concealed. He intended to curb the actions of the Italian army in this part of Albania and to limit as far as possible their extension. So even this proposal the representatives of Rome rejected it.

Even the Italian government was preparing to extend its conquests to other parts of the Balkans which would soon be released from central power troops, especially in areas where its intentions and interests were extending. For this reason, Rome also raised a special command, the supreme command of Italian troops in the Balkans, which depended on the Italian troops in Albania. At the top of this command, which settled in Vlora, General Seres\textsuperscript{15} was arrested.

Thus, the diplomatic struggle between Paris and Rome did not stop the progress of the Italian army to the north of Albania. She passed Mat and, on October 27, entered Lezha, where she replaced the Austro-Hungarians who had just retired\textsuperscript{16}. Now when Italian forces were at the door of Shkodra, Paris diplomacy came up with a new proposal.

Thirdly, it set another, more advanced, boundary to where the Italian forces could stretch; this border was the Drin River. This river could only be crossed by the Italians in a place along the coast to go to Shkodra and allowed to pass only

\textsuperscript{13} - A I H. Vienna Archives Fund, D 28/5/610, No 26.206, Telegram 7 October 1918. Reporting
\textsuperscript{14} - A Kral ddt. Shkodër, October 9, 1918, no. 111, f. 39.
\textsuperscript{15} - A I H. Fund of the Rome Archives. D. nr.28 / 5, 1918, f. 65.
\textsuperscript{16} - The newspaper “The Sun” Boston, May 1918, no. 34, f. 5.
a small unit, which would be part of Shkodra’s garrison\textsuperscript{17}.

This third proposal was made by the French government on 26 October, apparently in order to push the Italian government to accept another proposal. The proposal, which we will talk about below, was aimed at putting Shkodra under an ally garrison.

In these political circumstances, the invasion of central Albania and of a part of northern Albania was carried out by the Italian army, which on 1 November 1918 also entered Shkodra. In addition, it also captured some other territories north of the Drin River. With the expansion even in these parts of the country, the Italians occupy most of the Albanian territory.

The withdrawal of French and Serbian troops from Middle Albania and its invasion by Italian armies made another contradiction between Rome and Paris a solution. It is about the support that French diplomacy has given and continued to give Esad Pasha Toptani since August 1916, contrary to the will of Italian diplomacy. Italian invaders looked at pashai toptana as a tool of France and their two Balkan rivals fighting for the partition of Albania. Therefore, Paris tried to hide the political side of the case\textsuperscript{18} and tried to cling to the “military” benefits that supposedly would have from the followers of this Jewish warrior who would fight against the forces of central powers, Austro-Hungarians and Bulgarians. This “benefit”, according to French representatives, would increase when Allied troops would enter Middle East where “France had attempted to restore the relationship between Esad Toptani and Italy, by which Esad would run a small state in central Albania, which would be under an Italian\textsuperscript{19} protectorate. “ But the Consultation had refused this approach.

At the time of the Balkan penetration, Esad traveled to Paris in the hope of receiving French support for his Albanian government in emigration. His mission failed. Rather, the French, trying to show their indifference to Albania, withdrew their de facto recognition and support for Esad. Both French actions, in the abandonment of Esad and in allowing the invasion of all Albania, encouraged Sonin to come to terms with his plans for a “wide-controlled independence from Italy”.

After the establishment of Italian invaders in central Albania, the problem

\textsuperscript{17} - US, FP Dodaj: Ditar i tij, 1918, f. 34.

\textsuperscript{18} - In view of the fact that the secret treaty of London knew Italy as an advantage in the Albanian problem, yet in the coming months it would have become clear that the treaty foundations were dim and they served only as a starting point for further mediation. During these mediations, the current territorial ownership was important. Italy was allowed to conquer all of Albania until Drin, and soon it would extend its invasion beyond this line.

\textsuperscript{19} - The Albanian Problem During The Peacemaking, 1919-1920, vep e përmd, PH.D. 1978, f. 67.
of the official attitude they had to hold to the mercenaries of Esad Pasha was the problem for the French, because the Pasha forces could no longer serve the French. They had had these forces as a guide and as a vanguard to Middle Albania, as they withdrew from there.

In these circumstances, the Eastern Armed Forces command in October ordered the deployment of Esad Pasha’s armed forces. They were ordered to go to their villages with “leave” indefinitely. Under these circumstances, France’s position on Esad Pasha’s “government” had to be revisited, with which she continued to hold a plenipotentiary minister, recently Leon Kraevski.

The one who put the problem first was the French Ambassador to Rome, K. Barer, who was under the constant pressure of Italian diplomacy and, in addition, at first did not agree with this political action of the center. By mid-October he noted Paris that: “The Italian government does not want Esad Pasha to go to Albania and not authorize him to pass through Italy20 ...”.

And K. Barer was reluctant to give Esad Toptani no support. He gave Ke D’Orses the question: “The Italian government has told us in a very clear way that she keeps Esad for her opponent and she will not see it in any way in Albania. The point here is not whether she is right or not. The London Treaty of 26 April 1915 foresees the establishment in the middle Albania of a Balkan state, whose diplomatic representation will be provided by the Italians. This is a privilege that constitutes the main protectorate node. We have therefore recognized Italy in a medium-sized Albania implicitly as a privileged situation, equivalent to that of the protective power. Therefore, “said K. Barer further,” the circumstances advise us and our commitments impose on us ... to put an end to the patronage of whose harm I have pointed out since this patronage was accorded to us and the evolution of events proved his futility. “

The withdrawal of its diplomatic representative to the government of E. Toptani and his call to Paris, the French Ministry of Foreign Affairs decided at the end of October, while the actions took place during November. How did Ke D’Orses’s argument in this telegram to L. Kraevski argued: “Because of the provisions that include all of the middle Albania in the Italian area of operations and deriving from our commitments to Italy, there is fears that the Italian government will again raise difficulties in your presence at Esad and his government. On the other hand, since we have no interest in giving the Consultation a pretext to violate the commitments it has made to us, please inform Esad Pasha that I have called you back to France21.”

21 - The Albanian Problem During Thë peacemaking, 1919- 1920, vep e përmd, Woodall, 1979 (phd).
It is quite clear that Italy’s commitments to France and its other allies, spoken by S. Pishon, were nothing but the ones related to the secret treaty of London. That is why S. Powon was told to tell the Pope toptana to give up attempts to return to Albania until the fighting had ended and the conditions of peace had not been determined, at least in their general lines.

Thus, at the time of the ceasefire, the French government was forced to distance itself from Esad Pasha formally, for in fact, she did not even spare her moral and material support (by granting any subsidy in hand). At this time there was another contradiction to the invasion of Shkodra. This issue was resolved by placing there an interracial garrison, which would be temporary, until it settled for its political future.
Abstract

In this article, after a concise presentation of the modules over rings as a generalization of vector space over the fields, their homeomorphisms are treated. Further builds R-module si R-module of morphisms of the modules.

Keywords: R-module, left (right) R-module, abelian group, associative ring, R-homeomorphisms

1. The meaning of the R-Module, feature

Let \(M\) be an non empty set of equipped with an internal algebraic action [2] marked with the symbol of collection + and \(R\) an associative ring whatsoever [3]. A set \(M\) is also equipped with an algebraic external action [2] indicated by the multiplication symbol \(\cdot\), which, when reflecting \(R \times M\) in \(M\), is referred to as the left multiplication in \(M\) with elements from \(R\), whereas, when reflecting the \(M \times R\) in \(M\) is called right multiplication in \(M\) with elements from \(R\). In the first case the couple’s image \((r,m) \in R \times M\) is written \(r \cdot m\), in the second case the couple’s image \((m,r) \in M \times R\) is written \(m \cdot r\).

Definition 1.1 [1, 5, 6] In the above conditions, the left module above the \(R\) ring is called the structure \((M, +, \cdot)\), which has its own attributes:
• \((M, +)\) is an abelian group; \((1)\)

• \(\forall (r_1, r_2, m) \in R^2 \times M, r_1(r_2 m) = (r_1 r_2)m;\) \((2)\)

• \(\forall (r, m_1, m_2) \in R \times M^2, r(m_1 + m_2) = rm_1 + rm_2;\) \((3)\)

• \(\forall (r_1, r_2, m) \in R^2 \times M, (r_1 + r_2)m = r_1m + r_2m.\) \((4)\)

**Definition 1.2.** Under the above conditions, the right module above the \(R\) ring is called the structure \((M, +, \cdot),\) which has its own attributes:

• \((M, +)\) is an abelian group; \((1')\)

• \(\forall (m, r_1, r_2) \in M \times R^2, (mr_1)r_2 = m(r_1 r_2);\) \((2')\)

• \(\forall (m_1, m_2, r) \in M^2 \times R, (m_1 + m_2)r = m_1r + m_2r;\) \((3')\)

• \(\forall (m, r_1, r_2) \in M \times R^2, m(r_1 + r_2) = mr_1 + mr_2.\) \((4')\)

The left (right) module above the \(R\) ring is marked \(_R M (M_R)\) and is called \(R\)-left module (right). If the left-hand module above \(R\) is also the right is called a module above the \(R\) ring, in short \(R\)-module.

If the ring has a single element \(1_R\) (short 1) and the above-mentioned attributes for \(_R M (M_R)\) is added the feature

• \(\forall m \in M, 1 \cdot m = m (m \cdot 1 = m)\) \((5)\)

then the module \(_R M (M_R)\) is called the unitary left (right) module above the \(R\) ring.

In ongoing, the \(R\) ring is associated and for a module on such a ring simple naming is used \(R\)-Module.

Below we will treat the \(R\)-modules, implying left \(R\)-modules, since the right \(R\)-modules are treated analogously.

**THEOREM 1.1.** A \(R\)-module \(M\) enjoys the following attributes:

• \(\forall m \in M, 0_R \cdot m = 0_M;\) \((6)\)

• \(\forall r \in R, r \cdot 0_M = 0_M;\) \((7)\)

• \(\forall m \in M, \forall r \in R, (-r) \cdot m = r \cdot (-m) = -r \cdot m \in M.\) \((8)\)
Proof. Let \( r \) be a fixed element of the \( R \) ring and \( m \) any other element of the \( R \)-module. By Definition 1.1. we have \( r \cdot m + 0_R \cdot m = (r + 0_R) \cdot m = r \cdot m \). On the other hand, by the additive group \((M, +)\), we have \( r \cdot m + 0_M = r \cdot m \). From here \( r \cdot m + 0_R \cdot m = r \cdot m + 0_M \), that gives \( 0_R \cdot m = 0_M \).

- \( r \cdot 0_M = r \cdot 0_R \cdot m = (r \cdot 0_R) \cdot m = 0_R \cdot m = 0_M \).
- \( r \cdot m + (-r) \cdot m = (r + (-r))m = 0_R \cdot m = 0_R \cdot m = 0_M \)

\[ \Rightarrow (-r) \cdot m = -r \cdot m. \]

2. \( R \)-Homeomorphisms of \( R \)-Modules

Definition 2.1 [1,6] \( R \)-homomorphism (or \( R \)-morphism) of a \( R \)-module \( M \) in a \( R \)-module \( N \) is called any reflection \( f: M \rightarrow N \) having attributes

- \( f(0_M + 0_M) = f(0_M + 0_M) \) \( \forall m_1, m_2 \in M \); \hspace{1cm} (9)
- \( f(r \cdot m) = r \cdot f(m), \forall r \in R \) and \( \forall m \in M \) \hspace{1cm} (10)

(ose \( f(m \cdot r) = f(m) \cdot r, \forall r \in R \) and \( \forall m \in M \)).

If \( M = N \), then the reflection \( f \) is called \( R \)-endomorphism in \( M \).

THEOREM 2.1. For every two \( R \)-modules \( M, N \), if the reflection \( f: M \rightarrow N \) is a \( R \)-homomorphism, then

- \( f(0_M) = 0_N \), \hspace{1cm} (11)
- \( f(-m) = -f(m), \forall m \in M \), \hspace{1cm} (12)
- \( f(m_1 - m_2) = f(m_1) - f(m_2), \forall m_1, m_2 \in M \). \hspace{1cm} (13)

Proof. According to (6) and (10) we have

\[ f(0_M) = f(0_R \cdot m) = 0_N \cdot f(\theta_M) = \theta_N. \]

Further, according to (9),

\[ 0_N = f(0_M) = (0_M + 0_M) = (0_M) + (-0_M), \]

that tells us \( f(-m) \) is the symmetric of \( f(m) \) in the group \((N, +)\), so \( -f(m) = f(-m) \). Finally,

\[ f(m_1 \cdot m_2) = f(m_1 (m_2)) = f(m_1) \cdot f(m_2), \forall m_1, m_2 \in M. \]

THEOREM 2.2. For each two \( R \)-modules \( M, N \), reflection \( p_0: M \rightarrow N \), defined by \( p_0(m) = 0_N, \forall m \in M \), is the \( R \)-homeomorphism of \( M \) to \( N \).

Proof. From the above definition of reflection \( p_0 \) we have
\[ p_0(m_1 + m_2) = 0_N = 0_N + 0_N = p_0(m_1) + p_0(m_2), \quad \forall m_1, m_2 \in M, \]

which indicates that \( p_0 \) enjoys the attribute(9); we also have
\[ p_0(r \cdot m) = 0_N = r \cdot 0_N = r \cdot p_0(m), \quad \forall r \in R \text{ dhe } \forall m \in M, \]

which indicates that \( p_0 \) also enjoys the attribute (10).

**THEOREM 2.3.** Identical reflection \( I_M : M \rightarrow M \) (e.g. the reflection defined by \( I_M(m) = m, \forall m \in M \)) is an \( R \)-endomorphism in \( M \).

**Proof.** From the above definition of the identical reflection \( I_M \) we have
\[ I_M(m_1 + m_2) = m_1 + m_2 = I_M(m_1) + I_M(m_2), \quad \forall m_1, m_2 \in M, \]

indicating that the \( I_M \) enjoys the attribute (9); we also have
\[ I_M(r \cdot m) = r \cdot m = r \cdot I_M(m), \quad \forall r \in R \text{ dhe } \forall m \in M, \]

which indicates that \( I_M \) enjoys the attribute (10).

### 3. Module \( \text{Hom}_R(M, N) \) of \( R \)-Homeomorphisms of the Modules

The study of homomorphisms of modules brings to the construction of an important module, called the homomorphism module.

Let be given the \( R \)-module \( M \) and the \( R \)-module \( N \). The set of \( R \)-homomorphisms from \( M \) to \( N \) is written \( \text{Hom}_R(M, N) \).

**Definition 3.1.** Let be \( f, g \) two possible reflections from \( M \) to \( N \) and \( r \) an element of an \( R \) ring. Then:

1. Many of the reflection \( f \) with the \( g \) reflection, which is written \( f + g \), is called reflection \( f + g : M \rightarrow N, \) defined by
   \[ (f + g)(m) = f(m) + g(m), \quad \forall m \in M. \quad (14) \]

2. The opposite reflection of \( f \) reflection, which is written -\( f \), is called reflection
   \( -f : M \rightarrow N, \) defined by
   \[ (-f)(m) = -f(m), \quad \forall m \in M. \quad (15) \]

3. The left product of the reflection \( f \) with the element \( r \in R \), which is written \( rf \), is called the reflection \( rf : M \rightarrow N, \) defined by
   \[ (rf)(m) = rf(m), \quad \forall m \in M. \quad (16) \]

An analogy is given to the meaning and the right production \( fr \) such that
\[ (fr)(m) = f(m) \cdot r, \quad \forall m \in M. \]

**THEOREM 3.1.** If the reflections \( f, g \) are \( R \)-homomorphisms from \( M \) to \( N \) then:

1. \( f + g \in \text{Hom}_R(M, N), \) \[ f + g \in \text{Hom}_R(M, N), \quad (17) \]
   otherwise, their amount \( f + g \) is a \( R \)-homomorphism from \( M \) to \( N \);

2. \( -f \in \text{Hom}_R(M, N), \) \[ -f \in \text{Hom}_R(M, N), \quad (18) \]
   otherwise, the reverse reflection \( -f \) is a \( R \)-homomorphism from \( M \) to \( N \);
3. For each \( r \in R \), where \( R \) is commutative,
\[
r f \in \text{Hom}_R(M, N),
\]
otherwise, the left (right) production of \( f \) reflection with elements from \( R \) is a \( R \)-homomorphism from \( M \) to \( N \).

**Proof.**
1. Since the reflections \( f, g \) are \( R \)-homomorphisms from \( M \) to \( N \), then
\[
(f + g)(m_1 + m_2) = f(m_1 + m_2) + g(m_1 + m_2)
\]
\[
= [f(m_1) + f(m_2)] + [g(m_1) + g(m_2)]
\]
\[
= [f(m_1) + g(m_1)] + [f(m_2) + g(m_2)]
\]
\[
= (f + g)(m_1) + (f + g)(m_2), \quad \forall m_1, m_2 \in M,
\]
which shows that \( f + g \) enjoys the attribute (9); we also have
\[
(f + g)(rm) = f(r m) + g(r m)
\]
\[
= rf(m) + rg(m)
\]
\[
= r[f(m) + g(m)]
\]
\[
= r[(f + g)(m)], \quad \forall r \in R \text{ dhe } \forall m \in M,
\]
which shows that \( f + g \) enjoys the attribute (10). Consequently \( f + g \in \text{Hom}_R(M, N) \)

2. Reflection \( f \) is \( R \)-homomorphism from \( M \) to \( N \), therefore
\[
(-f)(m_1 + m_2) = -f(m_1 + m_2) = f(-(m_1 + m_2)) = f(-m_1) + (-m_2)
\]
\[
= f(-m_1) + f(-m_2) = (-f(m_1)) + (-f(m_2)) = -f(m_1) + (-f(m_2)), \quad \forall m_1, m_2 \in M,
\]
which shows that \( -f \) enjoys the attribute (9); Also, having in mind and (8) we have
\[
(-f)(r^* \cdot m) = f(-r^* \cdot m) = f(r^* \cdot (-m)) = r^* \cdot f(-m) = r^* \cdot [-f(m)]
\]
\[
= r^* \cdot [-f(m)], \quad \forall r \in R \text{ dhe } \forall m \in M,
\]
which shows that \( -f \) enjoys even the attribute (10).

3. We also have
\[
(r f)(m_1 + m_2) = r f(m_1 + m_2) = r [f(m_1) + f(m_2)] = r f(m_1) + r f(m_2)
\]
\[
= (r f)(m_1) + (r f)(m_2), \quad \forall m_1, m_2 \in M,
\]
showing that \( r \cdot f \) has its attribute (9); also, knowing that the \( R \) ring is commutative we have

\[
(\rho m) = r(f(\rho m)) = r(\rho f(m)) = (r \rho)f(m) = (\rho r)f(m)
\]

\[
\rho (r \cdot f(m)) = \rho ((r \cdot f(m))) = \rho ((r \cdot f(m)) = (\rho r) \cdot f(m)
\]

which shows that \( r \cdot f \) also enjoys attribute (10).

**Definition 3.2.** \( R \)-homomorphism \( f+g: M \to N \) is called \( R \)-homeomorphism \( f: M \to N \) with \( R \)-homomorphism \( g: M \to N \), \( R \)-homomorphism \(-f \) is called the opposite \( R \)-homomorphism \( f: M \to N \), but \( R \)-homomorphism \( r \cdot f \) \( (f \cdot r) \), when \( R \) is commutative, is called left (right) production of \( R \)-homomorphism \( f: M \to N \) with element \( r \in R \).

Through this definition, they are introduced into the set \( \text{Hom}_R(M, N) \) action of addition + and left (right) multiplication, which make it algebra \((\text{Hom}_R(M, N), +, \cdot) \) with two actions.

**Theorem 3.2.** If the \( R \) ring is commutative, then the algebra \((\text{Hom}_R(M, N), +, \cdot) \) of \( R \)-homeomorphisms from \( M \) to \( N \) is the \( R \)-left(right) module.

**Proof.** We show that they satisfy the conditions (1), (2), (3), (4) of Definition 1.1. of a left \( R \)-module.

1. From the above it is easy to see that:
   - \( \forall f, g, h \in \text{Hom}_R(M, N), (f + g) + h = f + (g + h) \);
   - \( \forall f \in \text{Hom}_R(M, N), f + p_0 = f \);
   - \( \forall f \in \text{Hom}_R(M, N), f + (-f) = p_0 \);
   - \( \forall f, g \in \text{Hom}_R(M, N), f + g = g + f \),

indicating that \( \text{Hom}_R(M, N), + \) is an abelian group.

2. \( \forall (r_1, r_2, f) \in R^2 \times \text{Hom}_R(M, N) \), writing \( g = r_2 \cdot f \), we have

\[
[r_1 \cdot (r_2 \cdot f)](m) = (r_1 \cdot g)(m) = r_1 \cdot (r_1 \cdot g)(m) = r_1 \cdot [(r_2 \cdot f)(m)] = r_1 \cdot [r_2 \cdot f(m)]
\]

\[
= r_1 \cdot [f(r_2 \cdot m)] = f(r_1 \cdot (r_2 \cdot m)) = f((r_1 \cdot r_2) \cdot m) = (r_1 \cdot r_2) \cdot f(m)
\]

\[
= [(r_1 \cdot r_2) \cdot f](m), \forall m \in M,
\]

which indicates that \( r_1 \cdot (r_2 \cdot f) = (r_1 \cdot r_2) \cdot f \).

3. \( \forall (r, f, g) \in R \times \text{Hom}_R(M, N)^2 \) we have

\[
[r(f + g)](m) = r[(f + g)(m)] = r[f(m) + g(m)] = r \cdot f(m) + r \cdot g(m)
\]
which indicates that \( r \cdot (f+g) = r \cdot f + r \cdot g \).

\[
\begin{align*}
(16) & \quad = (r \cdot f)(m) + (r \cdot g)(m) = (r \cdot f + r \cdot g)(m), \ \forall m \in M,
\end{align*}
\]

Analogously it is shown that \((Hom_R(M, N), +, \cdot)\) is the right \(R\)-module when \( \cdot \) is right multiplication with elements from \(R\).
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TEACHER EVALUATION WITHIN SCHOOL CONTEXT

Introduction

The assessment is only one component of a comprehensive growth and development system of a teacher. The public education system in the U.S. involves many stakeholders and roles whose responsibilities aim to support and enhance student learning. Unfortunately, the education system itself is a lack of alignment and coherence. Trying to fix what seems to be broken, it may transfer opposite results.

To design and implement programs beneficial to the evaluation there are two basic points to be recognized: the preparation and employment are the most critical to ensure the effectiveness of teachers. Before the teacher logs into assessment, every teacher must demonstrate subject knowledge, pedagogical knowledge and professional teaching skills. Current efforts to develop performance evaluation for beginner teachers provide promising data by ensuring that teachers enter the profession with the necessary qualifications, regardless of their way into class preparation. In addition, employment practices support teaching effectiveness when used criteria for employment are consistent with the criteria used for evaluating teachers.

Developing high-quality professionals should be available for every teacher. Professional development programs should be based on state standards, the district where the school is located, learning goals and the identified needs of students and teachers. In addition, all new teachers must have objective support and participate in an introductory and counselling program. Beginner teachers should have less responsibility and more time for planning than experienced teachers. They should also have the opportunity to observe experienced teachers. Even the best systems of evaluation of teachers are likely to fail in an educational system that does not provide the new teachers with necessary

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training and preparation for acquiring the skills, knowledge and dispositions from the first day of independent professional practice.

**The purpose of teacher evaluation**

Evaluation of teachers tends to influence professional development and career decisions. This assessment is either formative or summative. Formative evaluation aims professional growth to improve individual practices. Formative assessment contains useful information for decisions about teaching ways. By this method, teachers who experience problems with the fulfilment of their duties are assisted by the training services and counselling for the organization, design, planning and presentation of lectures. Formative assessment purposes are important to individual teachers because they help them have a positive perception on evaluation.

Current discourse on teacher evaluation policy is immersed in a corrective and rewarding framework that very often aims:

1. To measure the effectiveness of each teacher
2. Categorization and listing of teachers
3. To reward those at the top
4. To remove those at the end of the list

Such a simple approach not only ignores the complexities of teaching but also overlooks the real purpose of the evaluation of teachers. The main purpose of the evaluation of teachers should be to strengthen the knowledge, skills, aptitudes, and practices of professional teachers in the classroom. This purpose serves to promote the growth of students and learning, and to inspire teachers. Complete systems for the continuous training and professional growth of teachers help them refine their teaching skills, critically analyse their performance and the performance of students and implement the changes necessary for improving teaching and learning. Performance evaluation comprehensive systems provide support, assistance and professional growth opportunities based on individual needs of teachers, students, as well as school itself.

**Literature review**

A number of studies and articles have been conducted on the impact of teacher evaluation on the performance of teachers. Shinkfield and Stufflebeam (1995) defined the evaluation of teachers as’ systematic performance evaluation of teachers or qualifications related to the designated professional role of teacher
and district or school’s mission “(p 86). The literature suggests that assessment strategies are used by objective. If the objective is the responsibility, there should be used summative strategies; if the objective is professional growth, there should be used formative strategies (McDougall, 2001). Formative assessment strategies are designed to encourage professional growth. These assessment strategies do not collect on the outside, controlled data for evaluation purposes; they are teacher-oriented, individualized, and supporting professional growth. Although literature suggests that teacher quality and effectiveness of teachers have great impact on the results of the students, many students still show no increase in desired levels of achievement and growth.

Stronge and Tucker (2000) warn of connection students achievement with the evaluation of teachers. The authors offered nine reasons for linking student performance measurements with professional performance reviews:

1. The use of student learning as a single component to the evaluation system that is based on multiple data sources.
2. When judged the effectiveness of teachers, the context in which teachers and administrators works is taken into consideration.
3. Using measurements of students growth for a fixed standard or goal.
4. Comparing achievements of learning from one point of time to another concerning the same student, not groups or different students.
5. Accepting that test scores have traps that must be avoided.
6. Use of a time frame for evaluation allows models of student learning to be documented.
7. Using fair and valid measurements of student learning.
8. Selection of student assessment measures which match at best the existing curriculum.
9. Non limiting the curricula and teaching to adapt to a test, if the test, in fact, does not measure what is to be taught (p 16).

These nine conditions are contrary to other conditions that support the connection of student achievement with teacher evaluation systems.

The achievements of students in state tests should be taken into account for at least half of measuring the quality of teachers, and the rest be based on ‘evaluation from running school boards or revisions of peers’. There should be a recognition of the link between the effectiveness of teachers and increase of student performance as well as a major focus on the fact that teachers be guaranteed training and support necessary to be effective as soon as they enter the classroom (Thompson & Barnes 2007, pg. 21). Further, the recommendations point to the fact that teachers must not only be qualified, but also effective. The
shift towards the connection of students' growth with the efficacy of teachers is a radical shift with a number of implications.

The obligation for teachers to meet the minimum requirements to be considered qualified is a first step to ensure the effectiveness of teachers, but only the fulfillment of those requirements is no guarantee that teachers will be efficient (Goe, 2007). Along with other measures to ensure the quality and efficacy of teachers, new systems were developed for the purposes of evaluating the performance of teachers. Some performance models focus on standards for instruction, which include content specific pedagogy. Actual responsibility is a challenge for schools that aim to achieve academic success for all students through a comprehensive evaluation system for teachers.

Marshall (2005) supports the monitoring and evaluation for high student achievement, suggesting a new theory of action. Action that stays behind monitoring and evaluation, “the engine that promotes high achievements of students is when teams work collaboratively to meet the same expectations for the curriculum and use temporary assessments to constantly improve teaching and care for students who are not successful ‘(p. 729)

There are 10 standards for teachers:

1. Knowledge of the subject: teachers must understand the basic concepts, tools of requests, disciplinary structures and design, properly and developmentally.
2. Human Growth and Development: teachers need to understand how children and adolescents develop and learn in a variety of school, in family and community and must provide opportunities that support their intellectual, social, emotional and physical development.
3. Students with different learning skills: teachers must understand teaching practices culturally.
4. Instructional planning and strategies: teachers should understand the instructional planning, long-term and short-term plans of projects based on the knowledge of subject, students, community and curriculum goals, and should involve a variety of development strategies, appropriate, in order to promote critical thinking, problem solving, and performance skills of all students.
5. Evaluation: teachers should understand and use multiple assessments and interpret the results to assess and promote student learning and to modify instructions in order to promote continuous development of students.
6. Learning environment: teachers need to understand the motivation, group and individual behavior and should create a supportive and respectful
environment that encourages interaction, active learning and self-motivation.

7. Special needs: teachers need to adapt and modify instruction to accommodate the special needs of all children.

8. Communication: teachers should use the knowledge of effective techniques of verbal and nonverbal communication and written communication, tools of literacy of information to promote the use of research, cooperation and supportive interactions.

9. Cooperation and partnerships: teachers should build relationships with parents, caretakers, families and the wide community agencies to support students’ learning and wellbeing.

10. Professional development: teachers should participate as active, accountable members of the professional community, by engaging in a wide range of reflective practices, pursuing opportunities for professional growth to establish collegial relations to improve teaching and learning process.

The development of these new standards changed the model of teachers from a simple retainer of information into a model that emphasizes the complex and multiple role of teachers who use their knowledge to improve student learning.

Historically, the purpose of evaluation of teachers has been to improve instructional practices (formative) and / or to determine the maintenance of a teacher in a teaching position (summative). The arrival of the movement for standards called for more effective evaluation systems that would allow more accurate measurement of the performance of teachers. Different evaluation models for teachers emerged, where in the early 1980s, a study examining the practice through a conceptual frame of evaluation of teachers. Darling-Hammond (1986) studied the differences between theory and practice in teacher assessment by examining two types of theoretical literature: teaching efficiency and organizational and implementation research.

According to the authors the purpose of evaluation of teachers and organizational conditions dictated a level of standardization in assessment and adherence processes for the validity and reliability of assessment decisions. They argued that the assessment to be effective in improving the performance of teachers, it must have a balance between standardized, centralized, administered expectations of the performance with approaches of teacher specifics for the evaluation and professional growth (Kimball, 2001). In this climate of accountability at all levels of the educational spectrum, it is of great importance that teachers and school leaders focus on what matters most, students’ achievements. Reform movement triggered a new paradigm for the roles of teachers and school administrators.
Recent reviews of the responsibility of teacher evaluation process

Responsibility is an acceptable aspect of the educational system in the world today. Weems and Rogers (2010) reported reforms ‘Act of No Neglected Child’ of 2001, as they related to teachers focused mainly on teacher input methods. Teacher quality capital within the mandate of the legislation was the high quality mandate. This mandate was focused on degrees obtained from teachers, teacher years of experience or types of professional development they had attended. All rolled around teachers and inputs teachers had reached in their certification process. Weems and Rogers explained that with everything that was required by teachers, teachers quality was supposed to be extremely high today.

Responsibility in terms of the evaluation of teachers, typically is considered as summative. Danielson (2001) explained that measures of accountability in education today generally reflect a need to determine the competencies of teachers, which are related to the way in which teachers provide their services, where these services generally include providing instructions, conducting school activities and professionalism in decisions and actions. The public as well as politicians, want to ensure that those services are effective, therefore, many of the teachers of the evaluation criteria are judged since at the beginning because of political and social constructs of what society is based on (Kyriakides & Demetriou, 2007); so the teachers modify their teaching by what others think is effective.

Stumbo and McWalters (2011) discovered a recent shift in the focus of teacher evaluation in terms of responsibility. Their research found that before this shift, as mentioned earlier, the definition of responsibility from the public was generally based on input from teachers. Now, the focus has shifted from the quality of teachers in teacher efficacy. Stumbo and McWalters explained that the shift is best described as a way to see the teacher. Under the model of quality, teachers were measured in how well they knew their subject.

Summary

Teacher evaluation process can be one of the most effective ways to improve student performance. In order to achieve this, teachers must perceive the process as useful, unbiased and worthy. According to a literature review, the emphasis is on the importance of a supportive environment in teacher evaluation system. School culture was focused on teaching and learning for all, the cooperation between teachers and reflection on practices benefited results of teachers assessment.
Danielson and McGreal (2000) showed that the essential context of the assessment includes: school climate and the nature of a continuing professional development as a contributor to effective evaluation; promoting linkages between assessment and school improvement, professional development and students’ learning; and understanding of the role of school leaders as an instructional leader. Research findings show that many teachers and administrators perceive formative assessments, when done with the intent to improve, as a powerful tool to influence the practices of professional growth of teachers towards students achievement.

Findings of the research on the perceptions of teachers show that most teachers believe that knowledge of the supervisors on the technical aspects of teaching, classroom experience and ability to provide a useful model for suggestions are very important (Colby, 2002). According to Collins (1990), an evaluation system for teachers based on standards is a complex system that requires evaluation. Assessment data are crucial to guide the changes for implementation of the system. Through the development of such data and their delivery systems of evaluation based on the standards may become more important and be not merely an evaluation system but a key tool for encouraging improvements in teachers’ competencies and students learning.
Bibliography

A STUDY OF STATE OF RETAIL SUPPLY CHAIN IN ALBANIA

Abstract

Retail Sales market in the last few years is developing with modern elements which have changed the view of retail sales. Online trading is one of the factors. As a result, retail sales in Albania is of great importance and has potential to develop in the future. This is comes as a result of the market structure and the market share of the participants. Consequently, the supply chain is expected to play an important role. But how effective is this chain and how does sharing technology make the difference between partners? In order to realize the study goals, the data was collected through questionnaires by interviewing the respective owners and perpetrators. The study sample is 48 retailers. A qualitative analysis has been carried out focusing on identifying the problems, about the elements of efficiency and the sharing of information through theology.

Key words: efficiency, information sharing, retail market, supply chain.

1. Introduction

The retail market in Albania is considered a developing market. Over the last few years, hypermarkets or other forms of retailing have appeared in this market. In fact, this market is mainly formed by mid-size shops and supermarkets. However, the retail market has only developed in recent years. So in this market there are a large number of small, medium-sized stores and supermarkets where the latter are rapidly increasing in numbers and laps.

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In business, retail sales are considered the most important element as they represent the sale of products and services from individuals or businesses to the end user. Retail trade has been the main trends and developments such as, changing customer needs and increasing experiences for buying more products, retail consolidation, developing multi-channel retail strategies, changing the nature of the retail competition between retail formats, etc. The factors that have affected retail change and developments are: demographic changes in Albania, lifestyles, socio-economic trends, etc. However, the greatest influence on the development of retail trade is now being provided by the information technology factor. In this sense, today is developing the combination of online sales and retail sales in the store, which brings benefits both for the consumer and the retailer. Normally, this role greatly facilitates technological development, which assists the entire supply chain to ensure that products are produced and distributed through fast and low-cost supply channels. Retailers need timely delivery of the goods in order to have a satisfied customer. According to Newman and Cullen (2007) “if the product is not in the shop, you can not show it to your clients! As a result you can not sell it!”

According to Goldman (1974), the nature of developing countries seems to vary in many ways from those of developed countries in terms of economic stability, cultural considerations, industrial resources and technological credibility. The purpose of managing the retail supply chain is to reduce inventory costs, deliver goods according to customer specific requirements and customer satisfaction. As a result, an efficient management of the retail supply chain generates efficiency, higher productivity and preserves the flow of information in the supply chain. In the supply chain all parties are involved directly or indirectly to meet customer requirements. The supply chain does not only include manufacturers and suppliers, but also carriers, warehousing, retail and wholesalers and consumers (Chopra and Meindl, 2010). Wholesale and retail retailers, part of the supply chain, require a higher circulation of their products by increasing their level of profitability (Korsita and Cania). In this regard, the primary focus of this study will be at the very end of supply chain distribution, retail companies. These companies are constantly in direct contact with end customers, as they all receive direct feedback from the customer about the products or services offered by the supply chain. Consequently, they return to the important link and link the supply chain integration with consumer satisfaction or customer loyalty (Stock et al., 2010). Increased pressure from suppliers to sell their products faster, more quality and more cost-effective products has implied pressure on higher efficiency in the supply chain (Korsita and Cania). As a result, specific objectives will be focused on: (a) the impact and importance
of efficiency in the supply chain; (b) identification of supply chain problems; (c) the impact of information technology on sharing information between partners; (d) assessing the effectiveness of communication in enhancing the supply chain performance; (e) assessing the impact of the relationship between suppliers and retailers in the services provided to consumers; (f) valuation of inventory management behaviour. Thus, through these specific objectives, it will be possible to observe whether supply chain management involves the integration of intra-company activities and reaches the external market suppliers.

2. Literature Review

SCM is customer-oriented with the aim of integrating business planning and balancing demand and supply across the entire supply chain from the original producer to the last customer/customer (Cooper et al., 1997). The supply chain focuses on the analysis of primary processes such as transformation processes or transactions within and between vertically linked firms (Thomas and Christopher 2009). From the perspective of developing countries, SCM focuses mainly on improving processes and quality as well as optimizing distribution. A research undertaken by Francis et al. (2008), focusing on the food sector and specifically improving quality in Argentina and Great Britain, confirmed the role of implementing quality standards in supply chain performance. Information and communication systems are considered as the backbone of SCM approach. The management of these elements requires the implementation of inter-functional and inter-organizational processes, which rely on information sharing, coordination of operations and the establishment of close collaboration between firms (Trienekens, 2011). On the other hand, supply chain management is the integration of activities that buy materials and services, transform them into final products and distribute them to the customer. These activities include purchasing and outsourcing activities, adding many other functions that are important to connect with suppliers and distributors. The objective is to build a supply chain that focuses on maximizing value for the final customer. At the moment, competition is no longer between companies, but is among supply chains.

Sparks (2006) explained the evolution of supply chain management in retail markets. He considered a number of changes in the supply chain in retail markets, such as the direct response to changes in consumer demand. He explained how these changes encourage the incorporation of changes in the supply chain in retail markets. This logistics is an important component for supply chain management in modern times. Logistics can be internal or external in retail markets. On the other hand, Kotzab (2005) showed the importance of
logistics. According to him, the importance of logistics within the shop is a key determinant of retail business success. In the model he studied, he included logistical processes that were carried out within a shop starting from the moment of entry into the shop until the exit from the store. Aghazadeh (2004), in his study, explored ways to improve logistics and distribution in the retail food industry. The study explains the concepts of logistics and supply chain as well as the new challenges in the food industry. The study also discusses industry successes and failures. The results show a slow pace in achieving supply chain goals and an easier distribution. This study discusses how consumers plan time, solving these challenges. They include the customer in the process of supply chain planning, product life cycle management, promotion, seasonal product planning through integration of category management, cost-effective delivery channels, and capacity-determination in stores.

Also, Sonpal (2006) cites that the effect of the supply chain on retail markets is the understanding of what the customer needs and then work continuously to meet these needs through resources, the product development mechanism. According to him, the effect of the supply chain on retail markets is to understand what the needs of the consumer are and then work continuously to meet these needs through resources, the product development mechanism. Using stimulating models it shows how changes in the distribution cycle, disposition of shared information at sales points and customer requirements affect supply chain efficiency (Steckel, et al., 2004).

3. **Methodology**

In order to collect the data for this study, the questionnaire was used. The questionnaire structure consisted of six questions. The first question in this questionnaire contains information about the type of activity, as a wholesaler and retailer. The other four questions contained information about the person answering the questionnaire, his position in the organization, the contact options and the period or time in this business. While the sixth question contains the most important information, gathering information about the elements, practices and efficiency of the supply chain.

Distribution of questionnaires was done through direct contact at the business site. Of the 100 questionnaires distributed, 48 were received. So, the sample of this study is 48 questionnaires. In this study, 48 stores were surveyed, which develop their activity on the coastline from Ura e Dajlanit to Mali i Robit, Durrës. The study was conducted by interviewing shop owners or responsible persons. Shops are dispersed throughout the area at the front of the main street.
Their location is at intersections in order to have more clients. The size of the shops generally vary from 1002 to 600m². Data analysis was divided into three phases. In the first phase the analysis focuses on inventory management, the next phase stops at intermediary, price and information operators, and third deals with supply chain study, such as customer relationship management, supply chain management.

4. Results and Discussion

Retailers should be familiar with the information about the course that the product follows. In order for the product to be available in the store, retailers should to manage the supply chain following product flow and manage the demands for the product. They should be in a position to determine what is sold at the store and to accurately predict the changes that may occur in relation to product demand. Logistics and, in particular, supply chain management plays a decisive role in retail sales. In small shops, turnover is faster. The business trend is to be positioned close to the main roads because it has higher turnover traffic to customers. This is shown in the graphic below.

![Figure 1. The location of businesses](Image)

Basic food products stay in the shop for 1-7 days, vegetables rotate for 1-4 days, non-food products are circulating for 5-200 days and drinks are circulating for 6-365 days. Moreover, the inventory of these stores is managed by their owners and finding suppliers is their responsibility. From the survey it turned out that franchise stores spend less time on inventory management, about 1-6%. About 75% of respondents said they spent about 20% of their time managing inventory. So, through this observation, we point out that franchise stores have a
developed system of the supply chain. On the other hand, about 70% of retail stores receive their supplies at distribution centres. This is shown in the graph below (figure 2).

![Figure 2. Source of supplies](image)

The distribution network of food products is developed in two directions: through orders (it has a duration of 1-3 days) and receiving the product at the store from the main distributor. The study showed that 30% of the markets made the process of subsequent payment purchase. This was due to the fact that the suppliers have established a reliable relationship that allows late payments. While the highest concentration of functions is obtained from the city of Tirana about 60% and about 25% of supplies come from the city of Durres.

Whilst, et al. (1986) found that information sharing in the food sector reduces costs by 23 percent. In this regard, there is a need for observation for the use of artificial intelligence and the possibility to share information. The main benefit of information sharing consists in lowering costs and increasing efficiency in the supply chain. Likewise, the highest level of information sharing is associated with the highest order completion rate and shorter time in the order cycle (Lin et al., 2002). However, in Albanian companies, chain integration, chain coordination, chain development and information sharing are key management practices of the supply chain (Spaho and Miter, 2012).

The study showed that 25% of them use a computer for shop management, of which about 40% of the market use computer inventory management and
60% accounting. This shows that there is a lack of information technology development and moreover the retention of customer data in a database is not available by most of them. Consumers in these stores come from approximate areas, resulting that 70% of them come with the family to complete the purchase process, 15% of clients come alone and the other 15% are accompanied, as shown in figure 3. Kapil and Avijit (1999) introduced a model of behaviour in the store based on the assumption that family members seek to minimize travel costs, which are related to the purchase and the costs of carrying goods. They found that the link between family characteristics and behaviour in the store could be quite complex. Of course, for some families, the buying process may be recuperative, while for others the buying process is linked to the salary level.

![Figure 3. Realization of purchasing process by consumers](image)

In their studies, the authors, Kapil and Avij (1999), found that the relationship between family characteristics and behavior in the store may be quite complex, for some families the process of buying can be relaxing, while for others this process is related to the level of salary. According to the authors, this behavioural model of the store is based on the assumption that family members seek to minimize travel costs, which are related to the purchase and the costs of carrying goods. On the other hand, through the data observed, consumers spend about 1-10 minutes in 50% of the purchasing process, 50% of consumers spend 10 minutes on a purchase.
As consumers come from nearby areas, retailers and owners of these markets are very familiar with customers. This means that small shops are in direct contact with consumers and potentially increase the sharing of information on different products. In fact, sales in a store differ not only from one season to another, but also from one week to another. To identify how the sales change over the course of a month, we have analyzed 10-day sales divisions. The results show that 40% of the sales are made during the second 10 days of the month, while 35% of sales are made during the first 10 days and 25% of sales have been made over the last 10 days.

Kohli and Jaworski (1990) proved that organizations focusing on market orientation aim to improve customer demand on the basis of information obtained from the market.

In addition to these aspects, the quality of its sharing information refers to the extent to which an organization shares a variety of relevant, accurate, complete, and confidential information timely with supply chain partners (Sheu et al., 2006). In a way, to achieve effectiveness in the supply chain, we have to rely on cooperation, cooperation, exchange of information, trust, partnership, joint technology, and a fundamental change from the management of special functional processes to the integrated process management supply chains (Akkermans et al., 1999). Based on these previous surveys and based on the findings of the study, such as the use of technology, product distribution network, reliability for subsequent payments, the efficiency of the supply chain in this
sector is of particular importance for further improvement the supply chain. In this sense, there is a need to develop more technology in terms of keeping the customers data.

5. Conclusions

Supply chain management plays an important role in retail sales. Successful supply chains manage product flows, information and financial resources to provide customers with a high level of product availability. One of the key elements of the supply chain is the source and supplier selection. The study showed that French stores spend less time with inventory management, as they have a developed system for the supply chain. This also enables the product distribution network, which is developed in two directions: through orders (it has a duration of 1-3 days) and receiving the product at the store from the main distributor. Also, it was found that only 30% of stores made purchases with subsequent payments. The study found that there is a lack of information technology development, as the use of computers is only in ¼ of the market. However, consumers come from related areas, shopkeepers are very familiar with customers and as a result they are in direct contact with consumers and potential growth for receiving information from customers on different products. So detailed customer information is not complete. In this regard, the success of a company, the growth of the quality of its consumer services, the growth of customer satisfaction and its loyalty and the increase of its competitiveness will only be possible if the whole chain in which it is part works effectively and is well-integrated enough to perform his duties as a whole.
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TRANSITIONAL JUSTICE IN ALBANIA: THE LUSTRATION REFORM AND INFORMATION ON COMMUNISM FILES

Abstract

This paper aims to conduct an in-depth analysis of the concept of transitional justice, of the international legal instruments that address the obligation of former communist states to take measures for the eradication of the communist past as a necessary condition for the construction of a functional democracy that has peace and social prosperity at its fundamentals. This paper provides a detailed analysis of the legal reform of lustration and the right to information on the files of the communist regime, focusing specifically on the arguments that justify the emergence of these reforms, reviewing their content, delineating specifically the category of subjects whom these reforms addressed as well as the rights and obligations that they created, by also outlining the progress and effectiveness of these reforms in relation to the time when they were initiated and were enforced. This paper seeks to identify whether it has achieved or not the purpose for which these reforms were born in order to consolidate the new democratic state and to build a future in peace and social and economic prosperity.

This paper supports the hypothesis that political interest has been the foundation of transitional justice reforms in Albania, while the wider interest of the public and of the different stakeholders has had little impact on the formulation of the transitional justice policies and on their effective implementation. To substantiate this hypothesis, the paper is organized as a study based on the desk research method, namely theoretical consultation with important legal documents as well as historical interpretation of them. The main finding of this paper is that, despite the fact that there is a legal basis for lustration and the right to information on state security files this right has not yet become effective, not

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only because the Albanian Parliament has been postponing for about 1 year and half the election of members of the relevant state authority charged with this task, but also because the mechanism has proved to be ineffective or at its worst unwilling to realize the purpose for which this important mechanism was set up, namely that of uncovering the truth over the communist period and banning on the exercising public functions by former state security collaborators.

**Keywords:** Transitional Justice, Lustration, Right to Information on Communist Files

1. Introduction

A quarter of a decade has passed since the beginning of the aspiration of the Albanian people to build a free and democratic society which has at its fundamentals the highest European standards and the country continues to fall into a deep political, social and economic transition. Undoubtedly, the transition from a communist totalitarian system to a democratic one has been and is still considered as a complex and comprehensive process. At first glance, the transition looks like a change of the governing system and of the economic system, but in the deeper analysis it is characterized by another philosophy of the legal system, where the interpretation of the law is not merely of a positivist but of an argumentative character whereby principles and constitutional rules constitute a set of superior norms and values, and law is the instrument for achieving social equity. In this system which we are trying to build, freedoms and human rights are the leading values, while social justice is not just a constitutional concept, but a social, economic and cultural condition that should not only be achieved but excelled not allowing for discrimination in the society.

One of the main challenges of the democratic state in the transitional period is finding a way in which to achieve social justice, a mode to build a future of peace, economic and social prosperity, serving the interests of society in general. At this stage of major political, economic and legal transformations the realization of the constitutional aspiration of justice demands taking into account not only certain economic or social values such as: needs, merit, services, but above all, appreciating the protection and respect for human rights and fundamental

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2 This fundamental value of the rule of law is embodied in the principle of the social state.

3 The principle of non-discrimination is a very important constitutional and legal principle in the democratic state, which serves as a control mechanism for guaranteeing the state of social justice. It should be implemented not only by every state body competent in the provision of public service, but for the monitoring of its implementation there exists an external control mechanism, the Commissioner for Protection from Discrimination.
freedoms, such as private property etc. abused for decades during the communist system. This view is based on the presumption that in a democratic system human rights and freedoms are considered as human rights, inseparable and inalienable to the man. As it will be dealt with in the contribution to follow, this view, known in the doctrine as transitional justice, was an expression of the conviction that a country based on democratic values cannot be constructed and developed without first casting a view on the historical background to consider the infringement of human rights and fundamental freedoms, and without redressing as far as possible the consequences of this violation.4

In the context of a transition, doubtlessly arises the dilemma whether or not it is necessary for the new democratic state to deal with the past under the circumstances when it has many other challenges ahead? And consequently, several questions arise, such as: what is the public benefit that justifies substantially legal addressing of issues, facts, events, subjects that have occurred and continued in the past based on a certain legal framework which in turn has authorized these actions? And if there are reasons justifying it, does the new system of values and democratic principles allow, from the formal legal point of view, for such a thing?

If one goes beyond the “narrow” framework of the demands of victims of communist violence to another wider society the one of the general social interest, we can say that two are the main reasons justifying the necessity of addressing the past, first, the need to defend and consolidate democracy from the threats posed to it by the long communist past, its ideology and mechanisms, and secondly that the society really understands what has happened during that system, what crimes have been committed so as to be able to decide on how to convict their authors and redress as far as possible the consequences of the incursions and the injustices made, by not allowing such events to be repeated. If justified such an intervention, the main challenge for the democratic state remains justice, honesty, timeliness, the nature and content of the measures to be taken to address the injustices of the past in order to achieve, through law the social equilibrium, enabling the protection of the rights of the persons injured during the communist regime without causing other injustices. This doctrinal concern is also expressed by the former first democratic president after the changes in the Czechoslovak regime, Waslav Havel, who stated that: “It is important to find a fair balance, a proper approach, which is human and civilized, but that does not avoid the past.”5 While attempting to provide an answer to the question

5 Citation from the interview of Waclav Havel with Adam Michnik: “The Extraneous Building of
regarding the nature and the content of the legal measures to be undertaken, it is necessary to refer to the international legal framework on the concept and the instruments employed by transitional justice. This paper aims precisely at carrying out an analysis of the concept of transitional justice in international and domestic law. It is a study of the political and legal nature and focuses on assessing the progress and problems of transitional justice reforms in Albania.


In international law, the term transitional justice was originally conceived as a version of the general concept of justice that characterizes and inspires some legal reforms at the transition stage, addressing the need to build and develop a democratic society, based on the principle that a society cannot prosper without addressing concrete measures to correct violations of human rights and fundamental freedoms that have occurred in the past. (Walker, 2006b: 12). Transitional Justice emerged as a special field of study within human rights discipline at the end of the twentieth century following the collapse of a number of dictatorial powers and pursuant to the democratic changes that took place in Latin American and Eastern European countries and Southeast. (Huntington, 1993). Consequently, the legal basis in international law is the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms and the European Convention on Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms, which in their preamble not only state that “human rights constitute the foundation of justice in the world,” but also list a broad catalog of human rights and fundamental freedoms.


6 In the Preamble to the Universal Declaration of Fundamental Human Rights and Freedoms it is stated: “Given that the dignity of the equal and inalienable rights of all members of the human family is the foundation of freedom, justice and peace in the world.”, while in the ECHR preamble it is stated: “Reaffirming the deep belief that human rights and fundamental freedoms constitute the foundation of justice ...”.

to remove the Communist Totalitarian System Heritage.” With the main purpose of assisting the ex-Communist states in which violations of human rights and fundamental freedoms have been committed to the building of liberal democracy and the rule of law, the recommendations addressed in this Resolution have been embedded within the paradigm of transitional justice. This Resolution represented a political program for a democratic transition that should be implemented in the ex-Communist countries, as well as a legal document serving as a framework for understanding transitional justice and its constitutive legal instruments. In paragraph 2 of this Resolution, PACE makes clear the main objectives of transitional justice reforms: “the establishment of a democratic society based on the rule of law and respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms, based on the principle of subsidiarity, the market economy, freedom of economic activity, equality of opportunity and transparency of decision-making.” This Resolution identified four basic principles that should guide the transition process: demilitarization, decentralization, de-monopolization and debunking.

But what is most important in terms of international law is the articulation for the first time of the transitional justice mechanisms recommended to the ex-communist states for abolishing the legacy of the past and building of a democratic state. According to this Resolution, the application of transitional justice implied the employing of the following instruments:

a) the punishment of crimes committed during the communist regime. The punishment of these crimes and the punishment of responsible persons should be made according to the standard legal framework applicable in these countries.

b) rehabilitation of persons convicted of crimes, which in a democratic society are not considered as such. The indemnity of these persons should not be lower than the one that belongs to the persons who receive compensation from unjust imprisonment.

c) opening communist files, allowing convicted persons the right to familiarize themselves with secret police materials.

d) restitution and compensation of unfairly expropriated property during this

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8 The Resolution of the Parliamentary Assembly of the Council of Europe (1096) 1996 “On the measures to be taken to dismantle the inheritance of the totalitarian communist system”


10 See point 5 of Resolution (1096) 1996.

11 ibid , point 7.

12 ibid point 8.

13 point 9.
regime.\textsuperscript{14}

e) control of the purity of the image of senior public officials, lustration.\textsuperscript{15}

One of the important aspects of this Resolution is the attitude of the Parliamentary Assembly of the Council of Europe regarding the risk of failure to implement transitional justice measures in the former communist countries. According to PACE, if transitional justice instruments are not fully implemented, ex-communist countries are jeopardized by having oligarchic rather than democratic regimes installed, and corruption and organized crime will flourish.\textsuperscript{16} PACE’s Resolutions No.1481 (2006) “The Need for International Condemnation of the Crimes of Communist-Totalitarian Regimes”, which expresses the same view as 10 years ago, is also in the wake of PACE’s approach, calling on the member states of the Council of Europe to address the eradication of the communist past, and thereby addressing the necessity of the international condemnation of the past and of the totalitarian regimes in existence.

The most complete and comprehensive definition of transitional justice has been provided by the United Nations Organization in its report of 23 August 2004, which states that: “Transitional justice represents the full range of processes and mechanisms associated with a society’s state’s or international community efforts to condemn the abuses that have been caused or are caused to the human rights and fundamental freedoms in order to ensure accountability, to serve justice and to achieve reconciliation and social reconstruction.” \textsuperscript{17}

Another very important step in elaborating the conceptual framework of transitional justice instruments has been laid down by the UN General Assembly through Resolution 60/147 of 16 December 2004 “On the Basic Principles of Compensation and Correction of serious violations of international human rights and serious violations of international humanitarian law”.\textsuperscript{18} Several years later, in 2010, the UN Secretary-General presented a roadmap document titled “The UN Access to Transitional Justice”.

The need for transitional justice can be found in several legal documents of the European Union, as in the Prague Declaration “On European Conscience and Communism” (2008) and the European Parliament Resolution on “European

\textsuperscript{14} ibid, point 10.
\textsuperscript{15} ibid, point 11.
\textsuperscript{16} ibid, point
\textsuperscript{18} UN Doc, A / RES / 60/147, https://documents-dds-ny.un.org/doc/UNDOC/GEN/N05/496/42/PDF/N0549642.pdf?OpenElement
Consciousness and Totalitarianism” (2009). In fact, these two legal standings of the EU have the same objectives and goals as those of the EC. At the heart of the Declaration is the view that Nazi and communist totalitarian regimes were the greatest disasters of the 20th century in Europe and that crimes committed during these regimes should be considered as crimes against humanity and such events should serve as a warning to future generations.

The same way as the Council of Europe, the EU in the Prague Declaration asks the ex-Communist states to take responsibility for recognizing and punishing communism crimes as crimes against humanity, by issuing appropriate legislation and monitoring its implementation, by condemning the perpetrators of crimes committed during communist era, treating equally and non-discriminatingly victims of communist violence, promoting public debates on the misuse for commercial purposes and political effects of communist symbols, and by adapting and altering history texts which reflect historical truths about communist crimes. In addition to these national measures, in this Declaration, there can be found articulated a series of international measures such as the necessity to provide an international legal framework on free and unrestricted access to communist-archives, the need to create committees with independent experts involved in the investigation of communist-based crimes on a national level. These experts will closely co-operate with Council of Europe experts. The measures also foresee the assigning of August 23 as the date of commemoration of victims of Nazi and Communist terrorism, and holding of an international conference on crimes communism with the participation of high representatives of the ex-communist states etc.

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20 Prague Declaration, point 10.
21 ibid, point 4.
22 Prague Declaration, point 5.
23 ibid, point 11.
24 ibid, point 17.
25 ibid, point 14.
26 Ibid., Item 13.
27 ibid, point 9.
28 ibid, point 16.
3. The legal regime of transitional justice in the Albanian domestic law

3.1 The legal-constitutional base of transitional justice in Albania.

Since the emergence of democracy in Albania, after the 90s, the Albanian legal system devoted great importance to the concept of justice and fundamental human rights and freedoms. In Law No. 7491, dated 29.04.1991 “On the Main Constitutional Provisions”, it was sanctioned that: ” The Republic of Albania is a juridical and democratic state. Man's dignity, his rights and freedoms, free development of his personality as well as the constitutional order, equality before the law, social justice, and pluralism are the foundations of this state, whose duty is to observe and defend them». “ Article 4 of this law states that: “The Republic of Albania recognizes and guarantees the fundamental human rights and freedoms ... accepted in international documents”. A very important step in the Albanian legal framework in terms of affirmation and protection of human rights and fundamental freedoms is the adoption of Law No. 7692/1993 “On an Annex to Law No.7491 / 1991” On Major Constitutional Provisions “. The need for a new legal regime that is based on fundamental human rights and freedoms and the principle of social justice is justified in the preamble to this law, whereby the legislator states that: “Considering that, during the 46 year wild and inhuman dictatorship of the party-state in Albania civil and political, economic, social and cultural rights as well as the most fundamental human freedoms have been violated and denied through state terror. Considering that the overall respect and enjoyment of these rights and freedoms is one of the highest aspirations of the Albanian people and one of the prerequisites for guaranteeing freedom, social justice and the democratic progress of our society. “

A few years later, the 1998 Constitution of the Republic of Albania in its preamble states that: “... the realization of the aspiration for justice, peace, harmony and cooperation as the highest values of mankind” are the main goals aimed to be achieved by the Albanian people.”29 The Constitution sanctions that justice is established through the law, which constitutes the basis and the limits to the state activity.30 This constitutional statement sanctions the close link between rule of law and law, based on the fact that justice is the fundamental principle governing the lawmaker’s activity in regulating the various relationships in the rule of law. In the Constitution of the Republic of Albania the achievement of

30 Ibid, article 4
the aspiration of justice is embedded within the concept of the social\textsuperscript{31} state as well as within the constitutional principle of social justice.\textsuperscript{32} Therefore, the constitutional principle of social justice requires that, through the law, the social balance be achieved, the interests of different groups within the social structure be harmonized and a state of social welfare be built. On the other hand, Article 15 of the Constitution proclaims that: “1. Human rights and fundamental freedoms are inseparable, inalienable and inviolable and remain the foundation of the entire juridical order. 2. The organs of public authority, in fulfilling their duties, must respect the fundamental human rights and freedoms and contribute to their realization. “ Indeed, a very important aspect in the framework of sanctioning the legal-constitutional basis of transitional justice in Albania is that the 1998 Constitution goes beyond the general rule of law, directly defining, in its Article 181, one of the instruments of transitional justice, that of the restitution and compensation of expropriated property during the communist regime.\textsuperscript{33}

Based on these principles and constitutional obligations, a series of legal reforms have emerged within the scope of transitional justice. In the course of this paper, a detailed analysis of the legal reform of the lustration and the right of information on the files of the communist regime will be conducted, focusing in particular on the review of the content of these reforms, specifying the target groups subject to their regulations as well as the rights and obligations that they have sanctioned, their progress and effectiveness in relation to the time carried out and implemented, the categories of subjects they are addressing as well as the rights and obligations they create. The purpose of this paper is to find out whether or not the purpose for which these reforms were created in terms of protection of human rights and fundamental freedoms, as regards the protection and consolidation of the new democratic state, and building of a future in peace and social and economic prosperity, has been achieved.

\textsuperscript{31} The Preamble of the Constitution of the Republic of Albania states: “We, the people of Albania, proud and aware of our history, responsible for the future, trusting God and / or other universal values have got the determination to build a state ... social ... “.

\textsuperscript{32} Article 3 of the Constitution sanctions: “The independence of the state and the entirety of its territory, human dignity, its rights and freedoms, social justice ... are the basis of this state, which has the duty to respect and to protect. “.

\textsuperscript{33} Article 181 point 1 of the Constitution states: “The Assembly within two to three years from the entry into force of this Constitution issues laws for the correct regulation of various issues related to expropriations of citizens and seizures committed before the adoption of this Constitution, guided by the criteria of Article 41 “.
4. Control the purity of the figures of public officials.  
The progress of lustration reforms in Albania

In the Albanian legal framework, the first provisions containing elements on lustration date back to the beginning of 1993. Adoption of Law No. 7666, dated 26.01.1993 “On the establishment of a commission for the re-evaluation of the permits for exercising the function of the attorney and for a change in the Law No. 7541, dated 18.12.1991 “On the regulation of the profession of the attorney in the Republic of Albania”, was concerned with the purity of the figure of the subjects practicing the profession of the attorney, by imposing a 5-year ban on exercising this profession for those persons who had been ex- State Security Officers and their associates; former members of Labor Party committees, as well as employees of their center-based apparatus, districts and regions; former heads of state bodies in the center and districts; former prison employees and prison serving camps, for persons who had graduated from the Faculty of Law on the basis of the Labor Party’s high school system; the ones who had been former heads of staff at all levels; who had participated as investigators, prosecutors or judges in specially assembled political processes; etc.34 The constitutionality of this law became subject of review at the Constitutional Court, on the basis of the request of the Parliamentary Group of the Socialist Party. The Constitutional Court declared the law in question as unconstitutional arguing, inter alia, that the reassessment of the attorney practicing professional licenses was in contradiction with the constitutional provisions on the judicial system, which provided that the profession of an attorney was a free and consequently self-governing profession. Further, the Court held that the bannings issued by law violated the democratic criterion of individual instead of the collective assessment of the image and qualities of lawyers, the constitutional right to choose the profession and place of work as well as the principles of the separation of powers and the presumption of innocence.35

Law No.8001, dated 22.09.1995 “On the genocide and crimes against humanity committed in Albania during the communist regime for political, ideological and religious motives” regulated for the first time the purity of the figure of senior officials. The regulation of the prohibition of exercising public office, according to this law, was established for a term of 5 years for selected

35 Moreover, see Constitutional Court Decision No. 8, dated 21.05.1993.
or appointed functions in the central and local authorities of the state or state administration, the judicial system and the mass media, affected all those former senior executives holding political or appointed, executive and judicial functions during the communist system as well as state security associates. This law had no effect in practice because two months later, control of the purity of the figure of officials was regulated by a special law, specifically Law No. 8043, dated 30.11.1995 “On the control of the figure of officials and other persons who are related to the protection of a democratic state. “ Unlike previous laws, Law No. 8043/1995 had as an expressed intent the purity of the figure of the subjects who performed or sought to perform important duties in the structures of the Albanian state during the post-communist transition period. According to this law, the bodies and functions subject to the verification of the image were: the President of the Republic, the appointees in executive and state administration functions, leaders of the Armed Forces and police forces, judicial police, directors and editors in Albanian radio Television Broadcast and Albanian Telegraphic Agency; journalists and employees holding the highest office in newspapers with over 3000 copies; leading functions in economic communities, state financial and insurance institutions, and state-owned banks; rectors and directors at universities and colleges.

To serve in the above-mentioned functions, the person should not have been a leader in the political structures of the Party of Labor, an appointee in the executive, or state administration, or an officer during the period of 28.11.1944 until 31.03. 1991. The person was also not allowed to be an associate of the Directorate of the State Security or any analogous foreign structure, a denouncer or false witness in the political trials, or a detective, prosecutor, or judges in special political processes or trials. According to the law for the verification of the public images, a state commission composed of 7 members, appointed by political bodies such as the Assembly, the Council of Ministers, the Minister and the Director of Secret Services, was established for the verification of figures. Persons affected by the effects of the law against had the right to appeal against the Commission’s decision to the Court of Cassation within 7 days from the day of the communication of the verdict. This commission exercised its activity by the end of 2001.

The constitutionality of the two above-mentioned laws became again subject to review at the Constitutional Court at the request of the leftist political forces, namely the Socialist Party and the Socio-democratic parliamentary group. By the decision of 31 January 1996, the Court rejected those claims, arguing that the provisions of the law laid down reasonable limitations that responded to the moral requirements of democratic society in Albania, with the exception of
allegations of unconstitutionality of the provisions envisaging the obligation of journalists to be subject to verification and those who authorize the Minister of Justice to make a request for verification of the heads of political parties and associations. From 1996 onwards, the law on the verification of the figures was amended several times, which essentially narrowed the scope of its action. Thus, for instance by Law No. 8151, dated 12.09.1996, were excluded from the verification of the elected figures the appointees and the candidates for election to the local government bodies. Law No. 8280, dated 13.05.1997, narrowed the circle of positions and qualities held during the communist system that were considered as a deterrent aspect for serving in the public functions set forth in the basic law, thereby allowing to serve in elected or appointed public functions, public figures who have served in non-high political functions during the communist regime, in executive functions, judges, prosecutors or investigators.

In 1997 with the coming into power of the left-wing government, the law of lustration again underwent substantial changes, further narrowing the scope of its action to former state security officials. Subject of lustration from that moment on would be, not only the former state security employees and associates, but only the senior officers and high level managers of the Ministry of Internal Affairs. Subject to the law would not be all state security associates in general, but only those collaborators who had participated in political investigation and judicial processes. Also, according to these changes, subject to the law would not be the judges and prosecutors performing their duties during the communist era. On the other hand, some interventions were carried out in the functioning and decision-making procedures of Commission for the Control of the Public Figures.

Although the Verification Commission dismissed many opposition candidates from the 1996 parliamentary elections, its decisions were later abolished by the Cassation Court and the Constitutional Court, allowing them the opportunity to participate in the June elections. Although with a limited scope of action, the few effects that the lustration law had, caused this mechanism to be severely damaged. With the coming into power of the left party, a new commission headed by Nazif Bezhani was elected/appointed to investigate the purity of the figure of senior state officials. In May 1998, this commission reached the

36 See further the decision of the NLC no.1 / 1996.
37 See, moreover, Law no. 8232, dated 19.08.1997 and no.8280, dated 15.01.1998
39 See Assembly Decision No.336, dated 18.08.1997, on the release of the former President of the State Commission for the Control of Officers’ and Other Persons Related to the Protection of the
conclusion that out of 3000 verified entities, only 81 officials had lost their job as a result of the law’s effects, including 4 MPs, two from the socialist party and two from the democratic party. Until the end of the statutory deadline of the commission’s activity on December 31, 2001, the commission ceased to have any effect. 40 The law on the verification of figures ceased to have its effects on December 31, 2001.

About 7 years later, with the coming into power of the rightist forces and concretely at the end of the first governing mandate of these forces, the question of lustration was reconsidered and reopened. In December 2008, Law No. 10034, dated 22.12.2008 “On the purity of the image of high officials of the public administration and of the apointees” was passed. The purpose of this law was the same as the previous one, the control of the purity of the image of any elected public office or appointed person, regarding his participation in the policy-making process or engagement in the enforcement structures of the proletarian dictatorship, as well as in the former security structures of the State for the period 29 November 1944 to 8 December 1990. This law was also subject to strong criticism by the opposition and the international actors and stakeholders41, claiming that it violated constitutional and democratic standards. Together with the leftist opposition, these representatives strongly argued that the law was aiming to contribute to the fulfillment of the political goals of June 2009. Consequently, the law became the subject of review at the Constitutional Court upon request by a group of left-wing MPs, the National Prosecutors’ Association and the Albanian Committee of Helsinki. The Constitutional Court initially accepted the request for the suspension of the law enforcement, and then, by its decision No. 9/2010, abolished it as incompatible with the Constitution with the argument that the law had serious constitutional problems, especially with regard to the dismissal of judges and deputies, it appeared deficient and unclear about the public figure control process. The law was also abolished because the court considered that the public figure control committee was formatted under the political influence of the ruling majority, and violated the standards of due and timely process for subjects under verification, etc.42

The latest legal reform in the field of verifying the cleanliness of the figure of public officials was the adoption of the Law No.45 / 2015, dated 30.04.2015 “On the Right to Information on the documents of the ex -state security directorate of

Democratic State “, Mr. Hajri Mezini, and the Appointment in this Position Mr. Nazif Bezhani.


41 Embassy of USA, EU, EC Representations, OSCE in Tirana etc.

42 See Decision of the Constitutional Court No. 9/2010.
the People’s Socialist Republic of Albania”. This law, in addition to the primary purpose of guaranteeing the right to information on state security documents, contains provisions that regulate elements of the cleanliness of the figure for public officials. These elements have been integrated into the obligation of the Authority established by this law to inform, up to 5 years after the entry into force of the law, on the figure of officials of constitutional institutions and other public authorities when this is required of the latter with the aim of assessing the ethical, moral and professional qualities of candidates to be appointed or promoted to senior positions in the state. The obligation for providing information, also falls upon the Authority for officials who are elected when this required by them. The obligation of the Authority, is at the same time an opportunity for transparency with the institutions that choose to appoint senior officials and as well as for the candidates for elective functions themselves.

In the procedural aspect, the law sanctions the obligation of the Authority to respond to any request made by constitutional institutions and public authorities on the existence of information in the former State Security Archive when that is required in the framework of the assessment of the ethical, moral and professional qualities of candidates to be appointed or set up in positions such as: President of the Republic; members of the Council of Ministers, deputy ministers, political officials, members of the governing body in the state administration on a senior level and their equivalent positions; members of the High Council of Justice, judges and prosecutors in the courts and prosecution offices of all levels; members of the Constitutional Court; officials of the Armed Forces of the Republic of Albania, members of the Army General headquarters, the Armed Guard Forces of the Republic, officers holding the military rank “General” and “Colonel”; heads of prefecture units; Heads of State Intelligence Service, Defense Intelligence Agency and any other intelligence unit; Heads of State Police on a District and Commissariat level; heads of diplomatic missions; Governors and Deputy Governors of the Bank of Albania; members of the Academy of Sciences, rectors, vice rectors, deans, deputy deans at public universities; General Director and Deputy Directors of the Albanian Public Radio and Television; Director and Deputy Director of the Albanian Telegraphic Agency; any other person decreed by the President or elected by the Assembly. According to the law, the Authority is held accountable to provide information to the constitutional institutions and public authorities for the official who is proposed to be appointed or promoted when this is required by the special law, whether or not there is a person in pursuit of espionage or terrorism, whether or not the person is considered an active collaborator of the former State Security or whether or not the person’s name appears in the former State Security File Archive. The law excludes from
lustration all those officials who are proposed to be appointed or recruited in constitutional institutions and public authorities when they have obtained the certificate of purity of the image from the responsible institutions, according to the law no.8001 / 1995, as well as the law no. 8043 / 1995. Article 30 of the law specifically regulates the cases of control of the purity of the image of candidates for deputies, mayors and heads of the regional council, when this is required of them for the purposes of transparency of the image during the electoral campaigns. The Authority, upon the request of these candidates, has the obligation to state that for the period 29 November 1944 to 02.07.1991 these persons were either: (i) members or candidates of the Political Bureau, members of the Central Committee of the Labor Party of Albania, Members of the Presidium of the People’s Assembly, President of the High Court, General Prosecutor, Chairman of the General Investigation Unit, Member of the Council of Ministers, Chairman of the internal affairs branches, Member of the Central Commission for the Evictions, and Deportation, Investigator, Judge in special political processes, or senior security officer of the former State Security, (ii) active associate of the former State Security Unit or denouncer or witness of the indictment in special proceedings after the age of 18; (iii) persons against whom there are indications for espionage and terrorism for the former State Security.

Until 2016 the lustration laws, starting from their scope of action, the category of current public functions that were subject to verification, those formerly considered harmful to the new democratic order, the period when they were undertaken, can be said to have not served the cause for which they were initiated, that of justice, namely the building, the consolidation and the well-functioning of the democratic state, in particular, the creation of a state apparatus with public figures with a pure past, of moral and professional integrity. Approval of this law after about 17 years from the collapse of the communist regime and its previous application only in electoral periods shows best that the real purpose was not to make justice in the name of the past and set standards for the construction of the future but to the narrow political interest of a political elite that holds and recycles power in an oligarchic way. Lustration reforms have had a limited and selective scope, focusing mainly on political aims, namely the exemption of political opponents. Although the adoption of Law 45/2015 marks a positive step in controlling the figure of officials involved in several important public positions at the time of appointment or election, it does not turn out to be complete. This was due to the fact that the adoption of this law was not accompanied by legal arrangements in the special laws that regulate the procedures and requirements of recruitment, or the procedures of termination of employment of civil servants in the public administration, representatives
of the judicial power, in the prosecution body, without exception here to the
election, or termination of the mandate of senior public officials. On the other
hand, legal regulation does not include verification of proposals and respective
decision-making for awarding decorations, honorary titles, medals and local
honorary titles, by state bodies having this right. Also, the implementation of
this law by the competent state appellate bodies is the next challenge, in the
case when the lustration legislation does not provide any legal consequence if
these bodies fail to comply with this legal obligation and, secondly so long after
the democratic changes, by also raising questions of the constitutional nature
because the criminal, constitutional and international criminal law provides for
the principle of rehabilitation of convicted persons rather than those who may
have held some public functions at the time of communism.

5. The right to information with communist files.
The legal framework and its effectiveness

Knowing the truth about the communist-era files is one of the important
measures for eradicating the communist past and building and consolidating
the democratic state. In this respect, in Albania the first step was made in 1995
with the law of lustration. Article 7 of Law No. 8043/1995 sanctioned the right
for verification of the purity of the image of a person seeking to exercise the
public functions set forth by law, the right of the state body competent for the
election or appointment of a public official or the right of the person concerned
when, there are public accusations in the press or by his relatives when he or
she does not live ,when the decision is needed for rehabilitation, or indemnity
to personality or where the person has been a holder of public functions and is
no longer required to perform those functions are addressed to the commission.
The law stipulated the obligation of this commission to initiate an administrative
procedure upon request, with the right to call for a hearing, not only the person
concerned, but also specialists and persons related to the case etc. who in case
of refusal to testify or false testimony or expertise, are held accountable in
accordance with the penal law.

Prior to the adoption of this law, the files were illegally used by individuals
in power to blackmail political opponents. In fact, the law of lustration did

43 See, 2015 Report of the People’s Ombudsman addressed to the Parliament of Albania, p. 91,
withdrawn on 03.01.2017 .avokatipopullit.gov.al / sites / wwwdefault / files / ctools / REPORT%
20SHQIP% 202015% 20.pdf.
44 See Article 6 of Law No. 8043/1995.
not have any positive effect in terms of informing convicted persons regarding ex-state security files. This is due to the fact that the political nature of the composition of the commission for the verification of the figure of officials enabled only a few dossier verifications to be carried out during this period. Additionally, truth regarding the files was used more for political purposes than for the purpose of revealing information about that period, not allowing access to the files to any interested person. Upon completion of the legal deadline for the lustration process in 2001, the legal effect of the provisions related to the opening of the files was terminated. The next attempt to open the files was that of 2004 and then of 2008, both in hot election periods. The draft proposed in 2004 basically proposed opening of the files unconditionally and to all. The event was supposed to be carried out by a non-political commission and the sphere of action would be for every public official. But such an initiative was not pushed forward by political forces, creating the impression that such a law would have a powerful impact on public officials over their communist past and their engagement in the political and public life. In 2008, after about 13 years it is materialized the right of every citizen to access the personal file of the former state security in law no.10034 / 2008 “On the Integrity of Senior State Administration Officers”. But such a legal regulation had no effect in practice because its application was suspended and then it was abrogated by the Constitutional Court.

Elements of the right to information on the bitter truths of the communist past based on the criminal events and criminal acts recorded in the files or materials of the former state security are also found in Law No. 10242/2010 “On the Institute for Investigations of Crimes and Consequences of Communism in Albania”. Although this Institute was set up with the mission and responsibility to uncover the grave historical truths of the Communist era in Albania and consequently to inform the public in general, its activity consists in the recognition of the truth based on the individual files of the former state security services and further

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46 See ibid
47 See Law No. 10034/2008, Article 26 sanctions that: “1. Every Albanian citizen has the right to be recognized with personal data in relation to what are contained in the files of the former State Security, according to the definitions of this law. 2. For the recognition of such data the citizen submits a written request to the State Authority. Within 30 days from the submission of the request, the Authority is obliged to respond negatively if there is no data or, if there is data, to provide the opportunity for the citizen to be acquainted with them. In any case, the citizen is only acquainted with his personal data and is forbidden to be acquainted with the data or names of third persons that may contain his file.”
48 See Constitutional Court decision no. 9/2010.
the publication of these findings in various forms. This transitional justice mechanism emerged, as part of the recommendations of international bodies addressed at the beginning of this paper, as a research institute that has the legal obligation to study and objectively record the period of the communist regime, the crimes committed by the dictatorship, and the consequences during and after the communist period, the causes and the ways of establishing the communist regime, the documents confirming the involvement of Albanian or foreign persons in the endorsement to the regime’s arrival and of those who resisted to this regime. The mission of the institute was foreseen to consist in collecting data, documents and evidence to highlight the activity of the State Security structures, on the forms of persecution and resistance against them, as well as records about all the activities that have led to the violation of fundamental rights and freedoms of man under the communist regime. Likewise, the law assigns this Institute the obligation to identify persons who were part of the decision-making bodies responsible for communist propaganda, for administrative acts and decisions that have led to repressive actions in the social and cultural sphere, including war classes, collectivization, the fight against religion, isolation, the prohibition to be informed, censorship in art, culture and science, and the restriction of food supply through food coupons.

Only after 25 years from the change of the communist regime in Albania we find a special law regulating the right of information on the documents of the former state security services. That right is sanctioned in the law no.45 / 2015, dated 30.04.2015 “On the Right to Information on Former State Security Documents in the People’s Socialist Republic of Albania”. If referring to Law 45/2015, one can state that it is intended to establish detailed rules and procedures for guaranteeing the right to information for any interested person who has been affected by the State Security Service, for whom the State Security has collected data,49 who has been a collaborator of the former State Security,50 has held a favorite position,51 has been one of the heirs of the latter, institutions,52 one interested on research, historical 53and political 54re-evaluation and media55. The

49 See Article 19 of the Law No.45 / 2015 “On the right to information on the former state security documents of the People’s Socialist Republic of Albania”.
50 Ibid, Article 23.
51 Ibid, Article 24.
52 Ibid, Article 26.
53 Ibid, Article 36.
54 Ibid, Article 30.
55 Ibid, Article 38.
rules are individualized in accordance with the requesting subject, guaranteeing in every case the right to a private life of third parties, based on the evaluation of legitimate competitive interests.

According to this law, the Authority has the legal obligation to provide information to any affected person that is a person regarding whom it is established that the former State Security has deliberately collected data, including the collection of data in a secret manner or through wiretapping, for documents that previously existed or were prepared for them upon their request. The opening of the files under this law is not intended as an opportunity for anyone to go to this institution and to seek information about his neighbor, colleague or someone else on whether one has been a state security collaborator. Such an information for third parties can be requested only by public and non-public institutions, arguing the reasons why such an information is needed. The law allows the right of every individual to seek information about himself. Request for information may also be carried out with the intent of rehabilitation, redress, refraining from threatening private life or moral damage or proof of the fact of non-cooperation with the former state security. Such a right under the law is also known to family members or ancestors or descendants if the affected person no longer lives. The information is provided in written form by the institution, while only the relevant documents related to the person concerned are forwarded. The affected person has the right to learn the pseudonyms or true names of ex-security employees. In addition to the right to information of interested parties, the Authority has the legal obligation to respond to the requests of public institutions when this is required in the framework of assessing the ethical, professional qualifications of candidates to be appointed or elected to certain positions in the governmental, legislative or judicial powers, armed forces or state police, members of the academy of sciences, university rectors, etc., thus having, as a law, the nature and features of a lustration law.

Despite the fact that the deployment of this instrument is an important element that serves to the consolidation and development of democracy, the passage of such a long period of social upheaval in Albania raises many questions about the state of the archives of former state security files. The fact that these archives were administered during this period, whether or not affected by the 1997 riots, whether complete or not, have disappeared for certain persons is a serious concern. Although there is already a legal basis on the right to information on ex-insurance files, this right has not yet become effective even at the end of 2016.

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56 See also Article 5 of the Law.
57 See the above approach to this transitional justice instrument in Albania.
for the fact that the Albanian Parliament delayed for about one and a half years the election of state authority responsible for this task. The most recent case where the Dossier Authority fails to verify and identify whether certain persons who have been a state security co-worker and notification to the competent state bodies for the purpose of excluding them from the right to exercise their functions in the new constitutional institutions of the judiciary represents in the best case an inefficiency of the mechanism created or in the worst case a lack of will to realize the purpose for which this important mechanism of whitening the truth over the communist period and the prohibition of exercising functions public from former state security collaborators.

6. Conclusions

One of the main goals of the transition process in Albania was the creation of a democratic state, based on the rule of law, respect for human rights and social justice. For this purpose, transitional justice reforms were designed as the main instruments of the new democratic state to build a future in peace and social harmony, putting at its fundamentals the demands for respect for human rights violated years ago.

From the above analysis of the timing of the implementation of the transitional justice reforms, their contents and their outcomes and the results achieved, it is clear that Albania has failed to effectively address the communist past in a complete, sustainable and useful way. Moreover, in the conditions of incomplete and not serious reforms of transitional justice, as well as of a long and difficult political, economic and social transition, there is an ever increasing number of people who evoke the return of the former regime as a better and beneficial solution for the social and economic interests of Albania. This shows that in Albania has been going on what the 1096 (1996) Resolution was foreseeing: a long and incomplete transition process going on which in turn has led the country’s fortunes to be in the hands of an oligarchic class, favoring corruption and organized crime. This shows that besides the anti-communist rhetorics used in the framework of these reforms, the legislation adopted and its effects show

58 The members of the Authority were elected by the Assembly on 17 November 2016, moreover see Decisions of the Assembly no.79 / 2016, 80/2016; 81/2016; 82/2016 and 83/2016, dated 17.11.2016.

59 The case of Mr. Cozma Jano where opposition from the opposition was disclosed data or documents showing the fact of being a cooperator with the former state security, while the Dossier Authority had given an answer that until then no data or documents were confirmed the fact that the person concerned had been a co-worker of state ex-security.
that Albania has progressed little in dealing with its communist past seriously.

The main reasons why transitional justice, as a political and legal platform in Albania, was not implemented seriously and sustainably are: a) lack of a genuine dissident movement in Albania; b) existence of relatively strong links of right-wing and left-wing parties with the communist past; c) existence of a weak political elite of the group of persecuted and political prisoners; and d) instrumentalization of these reforms for narrow political gains. Changing the system in Albania did not come as a result of a genuine dissident movement, led by an intellectual elite who had experienced communist violence and gone through sufferings because of communism. At the top of the democratic processes in Albania were people with strong credentials tied to the communist past or the succulent leaders of the communist regime. They used transitional justice reforms for their narrow political and economic goals. Consequently, they are and remain responsible for the economic, political and social situation in which our country is striving today, especially for the fact that the communist past continues to be eminent in the political, economic, cultural, and educational sphere etc.

Transitional Justice in Albania has represented an electoral policy. Consequently, the political interest has been at the foundation of the transitional justice reforms in Albania, while the public interest and the interest of the stakeholders has had little impact on the formulation of transitional justice policy strategies. At the time when these reforms were undertaken, not only it was too late, but they were multiplied with the political interests of the ruling majority in power. On the one hand, time factor was the foundation of the success of these reforms. This was because they were temporary reforms that were to be implemented immediately in the framework of the creation of the democratic state, during the reformation and consolidation of the state administration, in the framework of the condemnation of the initiators and enforcers of the communist terror, during the rehabilitation of the prisoners and the politically persecuted. It was during these temporary reforms that Albania was confronting the politically condemned and politically persecuted ones and the society in general with the half-century bitter truth left behind, the reevaluation of history away from communist ideology. In Albania, transitional justice reforms were initiated too late, making it almost impossible to address properly the communist past. The politicization of these reforms, on the other hand, had a huge cost mainly because in substance they did not adequately represent the interests of society in general and the interest of particularly convicted and persecuted citizens. Moreover, their politicization made the society in general and the politically condemned and persecuted to lose faith in them.
In this context, alongside the sharp economic and social problems, Albanian society continues to suffer the severe consequences of the old model of totalitarian thinking and action, such as the oligarchy, the long dominance on the political scene of only a few political figures, the adoption of a centralized approach to the exercising of power, the presence of harsh political struggle for narrow ends of profit, a closed electoral system, etc., which in itself pose a serious threat to the country’s democracy, and especially to the integration processes.
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THE RISE OF INTERNET OF THING AND
THE RISK OF THREATS

Abstract

World Wide Web has become a global driver in the information sharing from
the users. Internet has changed a lot during its lifetime. The change is continuing
with the rise of new technologies as well. The low cost wireless connections
are making the information sharing even more persistent. Data collection has
become more advanced with embedded devices connected with each other and
RIFD technology used to transmit data in a continuous way.

Exactly these technologies has led to the “Internet of Things” that is a way
to display web as a medium of connected devices through the world and to
communicate with each other.

IoT has also faced a lot of challenges, especially when it comes to Enterprise
IoT. Techniques for implementing IoT need to be developed especially in
developing countries.

The challenges and threats of the IoT are described in this paper. An initial
security evaluation is also shown.

Keywords: IoT, security, Web, IPv6.

1. Introduction

IoT is an emerging global Internet-based architecture used to facilitate the
exchange of the information between the connected devices [1]. The whole
network is a virtualization, which a group of embedded devices with sensors
and each of them connected to this network. The idea is that each of this network
deVICES can disconnect and the whole network is still operating. The list of devices

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connected can be from mobiles, to air-conditioners and wearable devices. This implies that the connected devices need to access the internet using Internet Protocol version 6 (IPv6). Using his IP address these devices can transfer data over the network using IPv6. The usage of IPv6 is because of the lack of space of IPv4. One thing to note is that IoT also has devices connected that can act within that network and not only sensing devices.

2. History and Definitions

Internet of Things can be defined and described as the livable environment in the presence of mobile technologies as a powerful multimedia system [2]. IoT can be understood also by having three paradigms in mind, internet oriented IoT which is a Middleware, things oriented IoT which is created by sensors and semantic oriented IoT which is Knowledge [3].

The first real Internet of Things network was in 1999 where Massachusetts Institute of Technology, MIT wanted to develop a network and started using RFID technology to identify things on that network. This was the first step into IoT. In 2005 it was recognized as a network with things that interact by the International Telecommunication Union and in 2009 it was called Internet of Things by Cisco Internet Business Solutions Group [4].

Another definition of Internet of things is a network that objects are connected across the world and possess unique address based on a standard protocol for communication [5].

Figure 1 shows the Internet of things IoT technology perceived by the normal user as a single network that nodes interact with each other.
Today Internet of Things technology is following the trend of wireless sensor networks, and Google forecasts that this trend will continue and even enhance the usage of Internet of things in 2017 and ongoing [6].

3. Design of IoT

Design of an IoT is illustrated better with a classification of the parts in it, Hardware consisting of sensors, communication hardware and actuators; Middleware consisting of storage devices and tools for data analysis; and Presentation consisting of virtualization and interpretation tools that can be accessed by different platforms or applications.

Sometimes these parts are approached as three dimensions that are, Information items including all items connected to IoT such as sensors or controllers; Independent network including features of self-optimization, self-adaptation or self-protection; and Intelligent applications including applications that have an intelligent behavior over the Internet [7].

Figure 2 presents the infrastructure of IoT and the different parts of this infrastructure.
While there are several approaches to create an IoT infrastructure, the general view of a simple IoT infrastructure is created by implementing a WSN (Wireless Sensor network) in Internet.

If IoT is compared with Internet and WSN, the communication protocol of IoT is a lightweight protocol similar to WSN while TCP/IP is used on Internet. On the other hand, the degree of the area covered by IoT is wide similar to Internet and not local like in WSN. The same can be stated about the Network Approach which is similar to the Internet with a backbone and not self-organized. The behavior of IoT is dynamic like on WSN and not fixed like the Internet. So, in general IoT is a combination of WSN on the Internet.

4. Wireless Sensor Networks (WSN)

WSN are the most important part of IoT since it’s the core of the whole network. The nodes of the network work separately and autonomously. They are linked together by self-organizing. WSN supports the elements division of a sensor consisting of an external antenna, a microcontroller and an energy source [8]. Components that make up WSN are:

- WSN hardware containing a sensor interface, processing units, transceiver units and power supply.
- WSN communication stack with ad-hoc nodes.
- WSN middleware for applications with interoperable services.
- Secure data aggregation offering reliable data collection.

5. Applications of IoT

The rise of IoT effects many other existing technologies in virtually every category. The applications are usually divided using the type of network available, the coverage, the heterogeneity, the impact or the involvement of the user. The categories of the application domains are:

- Personal and Home IoT
- Enterprise IoT
- Utilities IoT
- Mobile IoT

Personal and Home IoT are applicable to individuals who own the network. For example the smartphones having Apple IOS or Google Android can measure various data and parameters into our personal network. Or the personal BANs
(body area networks) can be extended to a monitoring system through a personal network to take care of elder people. Home appliances can be controlled remotely using IoT.

Enterprise IoT is applied to a larger scale. All the environmental information gathered is used to have track of people within a building is one example of Enterprise IoT. Various security and automated services regarding a large factory are integrated using IoT.

Utilities IoT is the gathering of the information through a network used by companies to optimize cost and profit. Energy consumption efficiency is achieved using Utilities IoT.

Mobile IoT are used widely by people and they are not aware of it. One example is the usage of Bluetooth to share information with each other. The usage of Bluetooth headphones creates a small IoT network into a car. These are examples of Mobile IoT.

6. Enterprise IoT

To develop a IoT network specifically for Enterprise level, a complete set of development tools and capabilities need to be accessed. ThingWorx is purpose-built to overcome this challenge [9]. It makes it easy to develop and deliver powerful Enterprise IoT solutions suing partners to extend smart and connected world. The economic impact of IoT is projected to be very big and the complexity of sensors, hardware providers and software vendors need to cope up with this complexity.

Creating smart, connected products requires an approach that builds on top of and integrates with the ecosystem of enterprises applications.

7. Challenges and threats of IoT

IoT has a lot of challenges facing both recently and during the years. Below are the challenges that are subject of research directions with proposed solution for each of them.

1. Networking Challenge

Networking has a great relevance in the Internet because it manages the network flow. Traffic and protocols have an impact of IoT [10]. One method to solve the issue is MANET (Mobile Ad-Hoc networks) which consists of self-organized mobile nodes using a way to maintain interconnection.
2. **Routing Challenge**
Routing is choosing the best path between nodes to communicate. There are many protocols used to select the best route possible. So as in Internet, even in IoT this challenge is faced.

3. **Heterogeneity Challenge**
IoT environment has a lot of different devices connected through the network, so the Heterogeneity challenge is faced like no other network. The best way proposed to deal with this problem is the Middleware Layer. It is a software used to interpose the technological layer with the application layer into a standard usable in real world service [3].

4. **Interoperability Challenge**
Interoperability is the ability to create devices cooperating with each other in an efficient way. Since IoT is a big network, the interoperability challenge is enhanced. To overcome this problem, a Semantic Interoperability Architecture to part the network into smaller groups is proposed [8].

5. **QoS Challenge**
QoS is the measured by the time it takes to deliver the message from the sender to the receiver. There are some standards that need to be followed to ensure the requested QoS. This challenge is faced even in IoT.

6. **Scalability Challenge**
Scalability is the deal with the continuous growth in an efficient way. It means that the system needs to handle the growth scale of IoT usage without effecting the performance. This challenge is dealt with Virtualization.

7. **Power Efficiency Challenge**
Power consumption issue is a critical point in wireless networks. Since IoT is a type of wireless network, the power efficiency is one of the critical challenges it has to face.

8. **Security Challenge**
Security is the biggest challenge of all the network. The threats that can attack a system can either be external threats or internal threats. In IoT environment, security is very important to ensure a reliable interaction [11]. The proposed solution is to use the RFID security protocol to make the IoT more robust.
Below are the most common threats that IoT faces:

1. *Abuse of activity*
   The malicious abuse of the infrastructure letting a penetrator gaining confidential information about the IoT network. This may result in damage of the reputation, fraud, Denial of Service and data leak.

2. *Eavesdropping*
   This threat is common on every type of network. This threat includes the man-in-the-middle attack, repudiation attack or interceptions that lead to confidential data leaking.

3. *Physical attacks*
   Theft, vandalism or different forms of physical attacks can make the network not accessible. Even the devices are very vulnerable to natural disasters like storms, earthquakes, or corrosion. This loss of assets can lead to a disrupt data of IoT.

4. *Software failure*
   Failure or malfunctions of software, or even bugs and design flows lead to the loss of the services of IoT.

8. **Consequences of the threats**

   According to Microsoft [12] this is the list of consequences that affects an IoT network:

   - **Damage to brand (DB):** This leads to long-term impact of the whole business with different additional consequences like financial loss.
   - **Financial loss (FL):** From the theft of the loss of sales, the financial loss of the business can be a long-term consequence to a company.
   - **Loss of data (LD):** This consequence leads to DB because the data and the intellectual property need to be protected.
   - **Loss of control (LC):** A loss of control could be extremely detrimental to business operations.
   - **Compromise of privacy (CP):** Privacy and its breach can have significant consequence to the company.
   - **Loss of property / Loss of Life (LP/LL):** This involves either physical damage to property or a loss of property. Sometimes even the injury of humans can be a consequence from the automatization coming from IoT.
   - **Service disruption (SD):** Disruption can effect both reliability and brand of the company.
9. Security Evaluations

The evaluation of the security of IoT is a long process and it subject to further researches. Below are a few evaluation strategies to initial security evaluation:

1. Threat Modeling
   Analyzing the infrastructure of IoT to discover possible threats.

2. Deployment review
   Reviewing the design, deployment and development of the IoT network. This involves audits and configuration analyzing. The most important part is to maintain privacy throughout the review.

3. Access control review
   This review analyzes the authentication and access control models used in the IoT network. This includes even analysis of operating system of the devices and even review of password complexity and policies.

4. Device risk analysis
   This involves the analysis of device standards and regulations, to have a better standardized IoT network, and the review of the exploitations available to different devices.

5. Device firmware review
   This involves reviewing the devices firmware to check if they have been updated to the latest one. A newer firmware is known to have less exploitation possibilities.

6. Network traffic analysis
   There are threats that exploit the whole network from the topologies and traffic patterns, so a throughout analysis of the network helps to remove this risk.

7. Encryption review and penetration testing
   Review of the encryption algorithms, a vulnerability assessment and a penetration testing can lead to a more secure IoT environment.

10. Conclusions

   IoT faces many challenges starting from the most general ones like security and power efficiently to more complicated ones like scalability and
interoperability. There are a lot of applications where IoT can be used starting from personal and home usage to enterprise and industrial usage. The world is changing constantly and these challenges need to overcome to adapt the network to IoT. A lot of advancements are being made and the understanding of the infrastructure of IoT can help developing countries to implement IoT and thus advancing their technology.
References
